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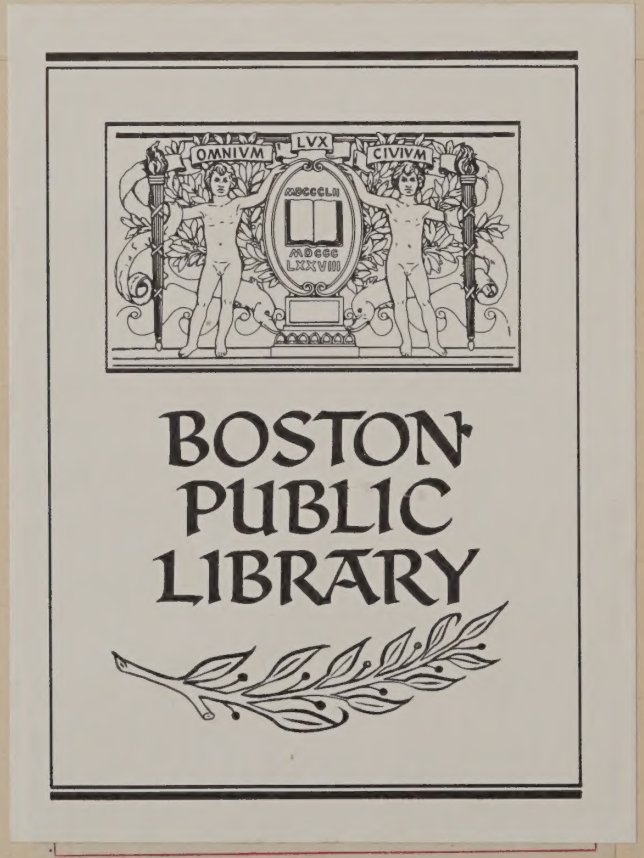

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The Week.

JUDGE Cox had an opportunity last week to explain his peculiar manner of conducting the Guiteau trial, and his explanation was probably what most persons who have followed the proceedings with any care looked for. There was, it must be confessed, something absurd in having a solemn discussion as to the propriety of putting Guiteau in the dock. It seems to have been approached by counsel engaged in the case as if it involved grave constitutional questions, or as if the dock, instead of being the prisoner's regular place in court, were a relic of antique barbarism and cruelty, like the thumbscrew or the rack. Judge Cox, at the end of the argument, rendered his decision with the gravity of a final judgment, and no sooner was Guiteau placed in the dock than he began again to interrupt the proceedings. The reason why he exhibited so much fear of being removed from his seat inside the bar evidently was that he thought he might, if put in the dock, be shot. He was relieved of all anxiety on this score, however, by the judge, who assured him of protection. In deciding the motion, Judge Cox admitted the truth of all the criticisms made in the press on the subject of the conduct of the trial. The behavior of the prisoner had been from the first "in persistent violation of order and decorum." This had been allowed by the court, at the express desire of the District Attorney, "in order to furnish the experts an opportunity of diagnosing the prisoner's case," and on the ground that "the prisoner's conduct and language in court would afford the best indication of his mental and moral character, and contribute largely to the enlightenment of Court and jury on the question of his responsibility." This expectation had been justified by the result, for the opinions of the experts had been largely founded on the exhibitions which had taken place on the trial. The case was, however, now approaching its end, and it was incumbent on the Court to impose such restraint as the circumstances admitted. He could not be gagged or sent out of court, because this would interfere with his constitutional right to a fair trial, and so he must really now be placed in the dock.

It cannot be denied, scandalous as the trial has been, that there is a good deal in what Judge Cox says as to the effect produced by the spectacle afforded by Guiteau in court. The experts have had an opportunity of making up their minds upon the very important point as to whether he was acting a part; as to which, had he been kept under restraint, they would have been much in the dark. There was at the outset a suspicion in the minds of a good many people that the man was irresponsible, and nothing could possibly have removed all doubt on this head so completely as the course adopted by Judge Cox. On the other hand, Judge Cox by no means clears himself of the charge of weakness. He has not only permitted the prisoner to exhibit himself in a true light to the jury and the witnesses, but he has allowed the audience a latitude that no judge with a proper sense of the dignity of his court would have countenanced. Whatever he might permit Guiteau to do, there was no reason why he should not have sternly repressed the misbehavior of the audience. Clearing the court-room once or twice would have brought them to their senses, but Judge Cox very early in the trial showed a disposition to make threats which he was not prepared to enforce, which is the surest invitation to disturbance. It was Judge Cox himself who made the suggestion that Guiteau should be gagged, and yet if he did at the outset determine to give him full swing, this must have been intended as a mere form of words.

We have heretofore commented upon Mr. Hewitt's bill providing for the free exchange of gold dollars for silver dollars at the Treasury, indicating that in our opinion it would be unwise to lodge in the hands of the Secretary the power to increase the present monthly rate of coinage of silver dollars, although this power, as proposed by Mr. Hewitt, is limited by the public demand for such dollars. Mr. Hewitt has replied that it was not his intention to add to the powers of the Secretary in this regard, unless there should be an actual demand, which is not likely to arise, seeing that the great bulk of coined silver lies inert in the Treasury. Obviously Mr. Hewitt's belief is that the discretionary power proposed to be given to the Secretary would lead to a cessation of such coinage for some time to come, which would of course be a gain to the taxpayers, who are now contributing two million dollars per month for the purchase of silver bullion not wanted for the purposes of trade. The question whether the producers of silver might not create an artificial demand for that kind of dollars, under the operation of the bill, in order to "steady the market" for silver, ought to be considered along with the question whether the Secretary will always properly construe his own powers and keep on the side of safety. Inasmuch as there is room for doubt upon both points, we think that the bill should be amended in this particular. Apart from this, it may be said in favor of Mr. Hewitt's bill that the position of the Government in respect of silver is now illogical and unjust. It buys silver bullion at the rate of, say, 87 cents per dollar, coins and issues it (so far as it is issued at all) at 100 cents, and pockets the difference, but refuses to give gold for it except in the indirect way of receiving silver for duties and taxes. This awkward and roundabout system grows out of an attempt to establish a double standard, and at the same time to guard against its evils. This is what the Allison bill avowedly sought to do. We have now reached a point where some further legislation is necessary, and we recognize in Mr. Hewitt's bill the purpose to accord something to the silver advocates and at the same time to exact something from them in return. Probably any bill which has any chance of passing will have to be based upon a compromise of some kind.

A correspondent writing from Adeline, Illinois, sends us the following paragraph clipped from the editorial columns of the Chicago *Tribune*, and inquires whether the statements therein made are correct:

> "The United States silver dollar being a legal-tender throughout this nation in the payment of all debts, and possessing exactly the same purchasing power as gold or greenbacks, it is received by European traders, manufacturers, and merchants on an equal footing with American gold. The only possible difference in value would be the extra cost over gold of sending it back to this country for the purchase of American products, and that would only amount to an insignificant fraction on the dollar. There is no other difference in Europe between the current value of legal-tender American gold and silver coin."

In the first place, the number of United States silver dollars in Europe is about the same as the number of English half-crowns in the United States—probably rather less. But if 1,000 silver dollars could be collected in Europe they would sell for as much as they would bring in New York minus the cost of handling, not because they are legal tender here, but simply and solely because the Government receives them for taxes and duties. The legal-tender property adds nothing to the value of silver except as it may be made to apply to debts previously contracted. In the making of new bargains and contracts and in the purchase of property from day to day, the legal-tender feature is not worth the smallest fraction of a penny. Whenever the amount of silver coined and got into circulation becomes sufficient to cause it to pass at its bullion value, gold will buy more property than silver, although both will be equally available to discharge old debts. But while the amount in circulation remains so small that the Government can take care of it and redeem it from day to day by receiving all that is offered at the custom-houses and internal-revenue offices, the silver dollar will buy as much here as a gold dollar, and will buy as much in Europe, minus the somewhat higher charges for brokerage and transportation. Therefore the Chicago *Tribune* is technically and in a narrow sense right, but by inference and suggestion altogether wrong.

The unprecedentedly heavy stream of immigration that poured into the country last year —over 430,000 arrivals in eleven months— seems to alarm timid citizens with serious apprehensions as towhether this mass of humanity, consisting of people wholly unacquainted with American life, can be safely absorbed by the body politic. It is true, the number of newcomers seems very large, almost sufficient to form three new States out of territory hitherto uninhabited, were the immigrants all to settle down together. But the effect produced by the sudden accession of a foreign element to our people depends in a great measure upon the proportion it bears to the general population and its dis-

tribution among the different parts of the country. From this point of view it appears that the heavy immigration of 1881 will not put our institutions under as severe a strain as they have been put before. We have now a population of over fifty millions, and the number of immigrants for the whole year will be about 440,000. In 1854 the population of the United States was about twenty-five millions, and the number of immigrants in that year was 319,223, a number more than two-thirds as large as that of the present time, while the aggregate population of the country was only half of what it now is. It is also reported that the majority of the immigrants who arrived last year were of an uncommonly good class, people of working habits and generally of some means. More than one-third of them were Germans, mostly belonging to the agricultural classes, who proverbially make good citizens and are easily assimilated. Immigrants from Great Britain, mostly Irishmen, come next, forming something less than one-third of the aggregate, a valuable addition to our working forces. Norway, Sweden, and Denmark furnish the next largest contingent, about one-eighth of the whole, and the rest is divided among other nationalities. The bulk of the immigration is going to the West. It is a fact worthy of note that the Northwestern States, which receive among their people the largest proportionate number of foreign immigrants, rank among the most orderly of American communities.

The *Mail and Express* published on Thursday a long reply to the charges of the *Times* with regard to the elevated-railroad management, consisting chiefly of opinions of counsel and decisions of the courts with reference to the consolidation of the roads and the operations which led to it. These documents go to establish the following facts: first, that the agreement between the Manhattan, the Metropolitan, and the New York, made in 1879, by which the first leased the other two and guaranteed ten per cent. dividends on their stock, was a valid contract; second, that the modification of it made in October last, by which this rental was cut down from ten per cent. to six, was also valid; third, that the directors had legal power to act for the companies in the matter; that the agreements needed no ratification by them; that the old ten per cent. guarantee cannot be enforced at the instance of individual stockholders who might have benefited by it, and that since the reduction the Manhattan Company is no longer insolvent.

The *Times* admits that all this is settled and out of the way, but insists that these matters are all irrelevant to its main charges, which it repeats, substantially, as follows: Gould, Field, and their associates entered into a stock-jobbing conspiracy to depress the elevated-railway shares and then buy them in and secure the control of the lines. At or not far from the same time the Attorney-General, Mr. Ward, set out with great zeal on behalf of the State to wind up the Manhattan Company, not merely on the ground of insolvency, but on that of a forfeiture of all its rights and franchises before the ten per cent. agreement of 1879 was entered into. But "about the time that Jay Gould entered the management of the Metropolitan Company he abandoned his suit in this city and resorted to Judge Westbrook at Kingston with an amended complaint, alleging only the facts involving the insolvency of the company"—insolvency being a difficulty which could easily be got over by the means actually resorted to of cutting down the guaranteed rental. The company's affairs were put into the hands of receivers, the men selected being "closely associated in interest with the principal manipulators of elevated-railroad stocks." This of itself is a very grave charge against Mr. Ward, as he was bound to see that the receivers were disinterested persons. Having brought affairs to this point, his interest died out; and, his original suit being out of the way, there was nothing to prevent the consolidation from going on. With regard to Judge Westbrook the charge is that he made an order granting authority to issue certificates of indebtedness in Jay Gould's private office, and in the same office rendered a decision for the surrender of the property of the New York Company. The *Mail and Express*, in bringing forward its array of "highly esteemed judges" and "foremost jurists," does not, after all, touch the real point; no stock-jobbing conspiracy has ever been unearthed in this city without finding it backed up by the opinions of judges and jurists. As the *Times* says, they may amount to no more than proof that the conspiracy was successful. The question most important to the people is, Were the Attorney-General and a judge of the Supreme Court knowingly instrumental in forwarding it?

The explanation of Attorney-General Ward to a *Tribune* reporter of his course in connection with the elevated-railway litigation may be summed up as follows: He brought the action for insolvency against the Manhattan Company, before Judge Donohue, at the instance of the newspapers. Judge Brady stayed the proceedings, and the case got into such a tangle that he discontinued it and commenced a new action before Judge Westbrook at Kingston. The Manhattan Company denied its insolvency, and issue was joined. He (the Attorney-General) believed that the leases of the New York and Metropolitan Roads to the Manhattan were invalid, and so stated to the public. He also doubted the validity of the $13,000,000 of Manhattan stock. When issue was joined on the question of insolvency he was ill and could not attend court; so he telegraphed to Judge Westbrook to do what he thought was right. The Judge, with the consent of all the parties, discharged the receivers and restored the property to the Manhattan Company. He (the Attorney-General) never had any interest in elevated-railway stock and never received any consideration for anything he did in the premises. The gist of the charge in the *Times* against Attorney-General Ward is that he used his official position to help Jay Gould in a vile stock speculation. It was important for Gould that the Manhattan stock should be depressed to a low figure, but that the company should not be destroyed. The action by the Attorney-General, as things went on, was adequate to accomplish both these ends. It was important that the litigation should not be unduly protracted. The discontinuance of the first suit and the beginning of the second one before Judge Westbrook were adequate to push matters forward rapidly. It was important that the owners of the New York and Metropolitan Railways should be frightened so as to consent to the execution of new leases at a reduced rental. The statement of the Attorney-General that he doubted the validity of the old leases and consideration of those leases—viz., the $13,000,000 of Manhattan stock—was well calculated to produce fright among those who had received the stock and sold it, and might be required to account for it to the Manhattan Company. The discontinuance of the suit when the necessary effect had been produced upon the New York and Metropolitan stockholders was the only remaining act needed to carry out Gould's programme. Now, nobody can probably affirm that Attorney-General Ward received any consideration for his agency in the proceedings, but the general verdict will be that such greenness as he displayed according to his own showing is exceedingly dangerous to the public when united with power and responsibility.

The hasty assertion made in some quarters that the Star-route prosecutions died with the late President is effectually contradicted by the spirited letter of Attorney-General Brewster to associate-counsel Bliss. The Attorney-General says that as soon as he assumes the duties of his department he will give the counsel special authority to push the civil suits for the stolen money, and that "the uttermost penny lawlessly received and taken from the public treasury must be recovered." He further insists that the criminal proceedings "be earnestly pressed." Mr. Brewster, however, is not content to turn the matter over to the special counsel employed by the Government. "I have," he says, "resolved that my duty will require me to take active part in the trials in court," and he promises to be present as the leader of the prosecution. Whatever hope the Star-route rascals have founded upon the supposed indifference of the Administration must be dispelled by the Attorney-General's emphatic letter.

General Grant has made a very frank and very complete recantation of his views on Fitz-John Porter's case, owing to his having gone over it again with the fresh light derived from the Confederate orders and reports. He thinks that, had "the testimony and documents now available been brought before the court-martial, there would have been no verdict against General Porter." This is very creditable to him; and as there is no politics in the matter, nobody will question the sincerity of his conversion. We may add that we believe his experience is that of every disinterested person who has gone over the ground recently. It was that of Mr. Joseph H. Choate, who appeared without fee, and as a consequence of his change of opinion, as counsel for

General Porter before the late Advisory Board. It has been our own experience, also. Porter has for nineteen years been lying under a tremendous penalty, inflicted after a conviction which, however justifiable at the time, is now shown to be untenable, and the country owes it to its own honor to relieve him. But all this does not solve the problem of poor General Logan's condition. He is the head and front of the great anti-Porter phalanx. He knows, and has always known, that Porter was guilty. He feels it in his bones and his moustache. Now, however, his idolized chief, General Grant, has gone back on him, and says Porter is innocent. Who will mourn for Logan now? What will he do? Whither will he turn?

The discussion in the press on the proposed Tariff Commission shows that the subject has really taken a strong hold upon the public mind. The point in controversy at present is whether the commission shall be composed of Congressmen or of persons outside of Congress. The high-tariff men generally favor an outside commission because they could more easily pack it and conceal any evidence tending to discredit the present outrageous scale of duties on imports. The principal objection to an outside commission is that the work to be done has to be passed upon, in order to acquire any validity as law, by another and different body of men, that is, by Congress, and thus virtually will require to be done twice. The conclusion reached by the commission must be reviewed first by committees of the two houses, and afterward by the houses themselves. It will be practically impossible for the committees to examine all the evidence taken by the commission, and if it were possible, it would still be open to question whether all the evidence which the committees themselves would have taken was gathered in. In the discussion which the report must undergo on the floor of the two houses, the members of the commission can take no part if they are not also members of Congress. Consequently there will be much groping in the dark when unexpected questions are put by members in debate to those who have the measure in charge. Moreover, an outside commission would be an irresponsible body, having no constituency to pass effective judgment upon their doings. The public will be better assured of the fairness of the report if they know that its members have to meet their fellow-citizens at the hustings within a brief period of time, and give an account of themselves. We can conceive of no method of dealing with the tariff so poorly calculated to satisfy public opinion, so awkward and dilatory, and so unlikely to lead to a permanent adjustment, as to send the subject to an outside commission.

Early in the last week there was a sharp recovery in prices at the Stock Exchange, but on the closing day of the year depression again became the rule and has since continued to be. The particular reason for the decline in prices is that the railroad war has broken out afresh—in other words, that business is being solicited and taken by the trunk railroads at prices which do not cover the cost of the work done. During the close of navigation the railroads usually earn a good part of their yearly profits, and the present contest is therefore the more serious, since every month of delay in settling it before navigation reopens shortens by so much the most profitable season of the year. There was a sharp demand for money throughout the week, yet the New York banks lost but little in their surplus reserve, and the money market has ceased to be a matter of concern for several months, as all domestic influences will now work in favor of lower rates. Foreign exchange advanced during the week, so that at the close there was no profit in importing gold.

There has been a large meeting of Irish landlords in Dublin, at which resolutions were passed expressive of the alarm and disappointment with which they view the proceedings of the Land Commission, hinting that the antecedents of some of the commissioners disqualify them for their work, and demanding that if their decisions are confirmed on appeal, Parliament should compensate the landowners for their loss. There is little likelihood that this complaint will produce much effect on English opinion. It is in substance a complaint that the act is producing the effects it was intended to produce. It was passed simply and solely because rents in Ireland were believed to be too high, and the payment of them was enforced by means which were held to be cruel and unjustifiable. The evidence on these points was overwhelming. What the commissioners have done in a large number of cases is to lower rents, and in lowering rents they have simply taken away from bad landlords money to which, in the estimation of the framers of the bill, they had no claim. It would, therefore, be an absurdity on its face to call on English taxpayers to make up to such landlords what they have lost through the operation of the law. Outrages on a large scale continue, but the judges declare that they seem in very few cases to be the work of the farming class. They will probably disappear as the discontent of the farmers disappears. That the Land Act is going to prove successful in removing this discontent there is daily less reason to doubt.

The budget of the German Empire for 1882–3, which has recently been prepared, presents some features that are worthy of notice, because they bring out in strong relief the weakness of the present system of imperial finance, and give the real cause of the recent changes made in the system by Prince Bismarck. However much his protective measures and his agitation for a tobacco monopoly and taxes on spirits may militate against sound political economy, circumstances demand that something be done to create a steady revenue. According to the budget, the ordinary expenditures will amount to 534,140,792 marks, and the extraordinary expenditures to 73,393,979 marks, or a total of 607,534,771 marks. The income is estimated at 607,534,771 marks. The budget, which is voted annually, when closed is always found to be in equilibrium, the revenue being equal to the expenditure. This result cannot be readily understood without explaining the general outlines of the financial system of the empire. The resources of the empire are derived from customs duties and excises, railroads, posts and telegraphs, the public property, and the treasure made up of the French war indemnity. These are the chief sources of revenue, but the sums thus obtained, together with other numerous small items of revenue, are insufficient to defray the necessary expenditure of the empire for the central administration, army and navy, courts of justice, and foreign office, and the deficit is a large and increasing one. This deficit is covered by contributions which are apportioned among the States according to their population, some allowances being made for the privileges they enjoy. Thus the contribution is relatively larger for Bavaria, Baden, Würtemberg, and Alsace-Lorraine, because they are allowed to impose taxes for their own account on malt and spirits. The sum of the contributions is then the deficit between revenue and expenditure. This deficit, which was in 1872 81,327,265 marks, in 1881 had increased to 103,684,389 marks, and in 1882 to 116,062,748 marks, being an increase of more than 12,000,000 marks in a single year. Of this large sum more than 85,000,000 marks are to be redistributed among the individual States, so that the real contribution amounts to but 30,000,000.

So long as the war indemnity could be drawn upon, the extraordinary expenditures were paid from it, and the contributions of the States were so small as to create but little discontent among the States. But as the war fund has been exhausted, and the deficits to be covered have increased, the contributions bear more heavily upon the smaller and poorer States, many of which are unable even to pay the expenses of their own administration, and the difficulty of meeting them is increasing. The income of the individual States is derived from lands, forests, and such mining and manufacturing operations as they conduct. This is, at best, an uncertain revenue; for while the lands and forests afford a nearly fixed income, the manufactures carried on by the State are not exempt from the vicissitudes of trade, and the revenue from this source is liable to be greatly decreased in years of depression. The same objection will also in great part apply to the mines, so that while the calls made upon the States are rapidly increasing, there is no corresponding increase in the means of meeting them, and there is the constant danger of a diminishing income. The complaints and discontent among the States against the present system are growing more bitter each year, and some reform by which they may be relieved of these contributions is loudly called for. It is true that the Chancellor is allowed to borrow funds to cover whatever deficit may occur in the budget, but this power has been but little used. In order to allay this discontent Prince Bismarck has been casting round for some new sources of revenue which may allow him to decrease the calls upon the States, and his protectionist tariff is a part of this plan. His measures for a Government monopoly on tobacco, such as exists in France, and for imperial excises on liquors, are only means for attaining this end.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

ADDITIONAL interest was lent to the proceedings in the Guiteau trial on Wednesday. During the cross-examination by Mr. Scoville of one of the witnesses for the prosecution, Judge Porter objected to one of the questions as being "blasphemous," whereupon Guiteau began to abuse Mr. Porter in a most violent manner. The latter then demanded that the Court remand the prisoner to the dock. After some argument the motion was granted, and Guiteau, considerably cowed, was removed to the dock. In rendering his decision, Judge Cox took occasion to say a few words in explanation of the course which the Court had pursued with regard to the prisoner's conduct during the trial. He stated, among other things, that Guiteau had been allowed considerable latitude, in accordance with the expressed wish of the District Attorney, so that the experts might be able to observe his conduct. Two more experts were called to the witness stand on this day—Drs. A. E. Macdonald, of New York, and Randolph Barksdale, of Virginia—both of whom expressed the belief that Guiteau is sane now, and was sane on the 2d of July. On Thursday Dr. Walter Kempster, of Wisconsin, was the most important witness. He has made a specialty of craniology and has had considerable experience with insane criminals. Dr. Kempster did not think that Guiteau's head was of an unusual shape, and illustrated this point by card-cuttings showing the shape of the heads of various well-known men, including District Attorney Corkhill, whose head is said somewhat to resemble Guiteau's in shape. Dr. Kempster further said that he thought the prisoner was feigning insanity. On Friday morning, as Guiteau was being taken across the court-room to the dock, he said to Mr. Scoville and Mr. Reed, as he passed them, "If you will just keep quiet, I'll laugh this case out of court." He proceeded to carry this project into effect by making more of a buffoon of himself than usual. Dr. John P. Gray, the last expert witness for the prosecution, was examined on Friday. Dr. Gray had had interviews with Guiteau before the beginning of the trial, in one of which the latter had said that had the Paris consulate been given him it would have prevented him from "removing" the President. At the close of this day's proceedings Dr. Gray emphatically stated that the result of his interview with Guiteau had been to convince him of the prisoner's sanity. On Saturday Dr. Gray continued his testimony and gave his reasons for considering the prisoner sane, which were in brief that he had found nothing in the story of his former life to show that he had ever had any symptoms of insanity, and that his account of the assassination showed reason, judgment, reflection, self-control, fear for personal safety, and preparation of a legal defence before the commission of the crime. These things were, according to Dr. Gray's experience, entirely inconsistent with a delusion of a divine command to commit homicide. Mr. Scoville's cross-examination of Dr. Gray, which was continued on Tuesday, resulted in nothing of importance to the defence. On Friday Mr. Scoville gave notice of an application for the introduction of new evidence for the defence. The remanding of Guiteau to the dock seems to have had little effect upon him. He has been as noisy and abusive as ever.

Guiteau was allowed to see about 200 callers on Monday, who were permitted to go as far as the door of his cell. Many of them are said to have been women.

Mr. Solomon, chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means of the Garfield Memorial Hospital, says that the subscriptions to the institution now amount to about $80,000, but that, as it is deemed desirable to make the hospital independent, if possible, of Congressional appropriation, a much larger fund will be necessary.

The committee of the Garfield Memorial Hospital have received $400 from the Khedive of Egypt, through Consul-General Wolf, who writes that he expects to supplement this with further subscriptions to the amount of $1,000.

The total amount raised for the endowment of a Garfield professorship in Williams College is reported to be about $35,000. It is expected that $15,000 more will be raised.

Senator Hoar of Massachusetts delivered a eulogy on President Garfield, before the City Council, in Mechanics' Hall, Worcester, on Friday. There was a large audience present, including Governor Long, Chief Justice Gray, and Justice Devens.

In order to correct certain misstatements which have been made concerning the relations between the President and Mr. Blaine, a statement has been furnished for publication which asserts that there has never been the slightest misunderstanding between the President and Mr. Blaine in regard to the latter's retirement from the Cabinet, and that their personal relations continue, as they have always been, entirely friendly and cordial.

Postmaster-General James expects to surrender his department to his successor on Thursday next, on which day he will have been ten months in charge.

From the returns made to Third Assistant Postmaster-General Hazen, it appears that the sale of postage stamps, stamped envelopes, and postal cards for the quarter ending September 30, 1881, amounted to $7,017,788 88, an increase of $1,030,109 over the corresponding period of last year.

A letter has been published from Attorney-General Brewster to Mr. George Bliss in regard to the Star-route prosecution. Mr. Brewster says that the civil as well as the criminal prosecutions must be "earnestly pressed," and "the uttermost penny lawlessly received and taken from the public treasury must be recovered." Mr. Brewster also says that he is convinced that his duty will require him to take an active part in the trials in court, and that he proposes to be present with Mr. Bliss "and in person lead in the prosecution for the United States."

Mr. Bliss sent out on Saturday seventy subpœnas for witnesses to appear before the Grand Jury in the Star-route cases, which will soon be brought up. Mr. Bliss is reported to have said that Brady and Dorsey will surely be indicted.

The Post-office Department is reported to be "waging a war" against the Mormons. The department having found that the Mormons in the territory of Utah were "boycotting" such postmasters as were not of the Mormon religion by buying postage stamps, etc., only from Mormon postmasters, have removed Democratic and Mormon postmasters and substituted anti-Mormon Republicans in their place. In most of the post-offices in Utah the compensation of the postmaster is derived from his commission on the sale of his stamps.

It is stated to be the general sentiment of the House Committee on Elections, in regard to the Cameron-Campbell case from Utah, that neither of them is entitled to a seat. It is thought that the whole matter will be referred back to the people of Utah for a new election.

The debt statement for the month of December, issued on Tuesday, shows the decrease of the public debt during the month to have been $12,793,623 56.

The annual estimate by the Director of the Mint of the values of foreign coins for 1882 makes only two changes from the estimated values of last year. The Austrian florin and the Japanese yen are each reduced one mill.

Some 440,000 emigrants arrived in this country during the past year. Of these three-fourths were landed at Castle Garden, New York.

The growth of the State of Colorado during the past year is said to have been unprecedented in its history. The Auditor's records show the assessed valuation of the State to be $96,059,000, an increase of $23,000,000 over that of 1880. The total indebtedness of the State is $330,000.

The Atlanta Cotton Exposition was closed with appropriate ceremonies on Saturday. An immense throng was present. Director-General Kimball and Governor Colquitt, President of the Exposition, delivered addresses, after which the machinery was stopped and the Exposition declared at an end.

There was a disastrous fire in a crowded hall at Shanesville, Ohio, on Monday night. It is said that the total number of killed and wounded will probably reach 100. The building was a rickety frame structure, and has long been considered unsafe.

The annual message of Governor Cornell, of New York, which is ready for the Legislature, treats solely of State matters, and announces that there is a surplus of $2,500,000 in the State's treasury. This, which is said to be the largest surplus there has ever been in the treasury, it is expected will enable a reduction in the State taxation to the lowest rate in fifty years.

There is a "deadlock" in the New York State Legislature. The Tammany members of the Democratic party refuse to support the nominees of the regular Democratic caucuses, and the result is that it has been impossible to elect any officers or to transact any business.

The Virginia House of Delegates recently passed a bill removing from about forty persons the political disabilities which had been incurred in consequence of duelling contrary to the State law. A systematic movement is now being set on foot by the ministers of the State to defeat the bill in the Senate.

Mr. William G. Russell, who was appointed by Governor Long to the Chief Justiceship of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts, made vacant by the appointment of Mr. Gray to the Supreme Court of the United States, has declined the appointment.

There is a dispute between the Choctaw and Chickasaw Indian nations in regard to the right of way recently granted by the Choctaw Council to the St. Louis and San Francisco Railroad Company through the Choctaw country. Ex-Governor Overton appeared before the Secretary of the Interior on Tuesday, as the representative of the Chickasaw nation, to protest against the ratification of the grant, on the ground that the Chickasaws had an interest in the Territory and had not been consulted in the matter. It has been asserted that the Choctaw Council was "bought up," the majority of the nation being opposed to the railroad.

There has been an alarming increase in smallpox cases in all sections of the country. The Post-office Department has been appealed to by postmasters in several States, especially in New York, to adopt some method of protecting them from infected mail matter, even to the extent of stopping the mails altogether, if other means fail. It is stated that the postal authorities are considering the matter, with a view to taking such measures as may be feasible.

The deaths from smallpox during the week ending Saturday, the 24th of December, are officially reported to the National Board of Health to have been as follows: At Pittsburg, 25; Cincinnati, 14; New York, 11; Philadelphia, 11; Madison, Indiana, 1. On Thursday seventy-seven cases of smallpox were reported to have occurred in the infected region below Wahpeton, Dakota, twenty-five of which proved fatal. The disease is said to be spreading in that region.

It is reported that the court-martial in the case of the cadet Whittaker have found him guilty of cutting his own ears, and have sentenced him to be dishonorably dismissed from the service. It is also rumored that Judge-Advocate-General Swaim has reviewed the

proceedings of the court, and has decided that it was illegally constituted because it was ordered by President Hayes without any request from the department commander, and that therefore all the proceedings were void. Although no official statements in regard to the matter have as yet been made, there seem to be good reasons for believing the above to be true.

The ceremonies accompanying the retirement of the old and the reception of the new Chinese Minister took place at Washington on Saturday. The new Minister, Cheng Tsao Ju, was presented to the President by Mr. Frelinghuysen, and the customary addresses were made.

Señor Martinez, the Chilian Minister at Washington, has received a despatch from the Chilian Government, stating that a manifesto has been issued to all the powers with whom Chili is represented by an envoy, giving the reasons on account of which Chili went to war with Peru, and defining the Chilian policy in regard to the present difficulties. The arrival of the manifesto is awaited with interest.

Mr. James Stevenson, who has been in charge of the Archæological and Ethnological Exploration among the aboriginal towns of the Southwest, has, in a conversation with a reporter of the New York *Tribune*, given a very interesting account of the result of his labors. These have been mainly among the Pueblo Indians in New Mexico and Arizona. He explored a number of ruined towns built by the old cliff-dwellers, one of which, he says, must have been the abode of 100,000 souls, and which these explorations are believed to have first brought to the knowledge of the civilized world. The dwellings in the city are carved out of the rocks for sixty miles along the face of a winding cliff, and many interesting relics, such as pottery and the like, were collected therefrom. These researches have been conducted under the auspices of the Smithsonian Institution, and Mr. Stevenson's collection, comprising eight or nine thousand articles, is on the way to Washington.

FOREIGN.

In receiving the congratulations of the Senators and the members of the Chamber of Deputies on New Year's Day, King Humbert said, among other matters, that it was well to make known that Italy was firmly decided not to admit the slightest discussion on the part of foreign governments of certain questions touching internal order. This is supposed to have been an allusion to Prince Bismarck's designs in behalf of the Vatican. King Humbert also dwelt upon the necessity of completing the military organization. The King's words are reported to have "produced a great impression."

In replying to a question in the Spanish Cortes as to whether in case of a "powerful nation" undertaking to protect the rights of the Pope in Rome, the Spanish Government would interfere, Señor Armijo, the Minter of Foreign Affairs, said that as far as he was aware no power contemplated taking the rights of the Pope under its special protection.

It is stated that, notwithstanding the rumors which have been circulated of late, the Pope has no thought of leaving the Vatican.

Arabi Bey, the leader of the national party in Egypt, has written a long letter to the London *Times* setting forth the aims of the party. He says it is loyal to the Sultan and the Khedive, but is determined to oppose any attempt on the part of either to assume despotic authority. It hopes to redeem the country from the hands of its creditors, and desires the army to be strengthened so as to protect the Assembly in obtaining a fair measure of popular rights.

It is stated that France and England have agreed to send to the Khedive of Egypt an identical note, announcing that, in the event of peace being disturbed or his authority overturned, they are prepared effectively to "support him, restore order, and protect his authority by material coöperation."

It is stated that the British Government has opened negotiations with France, Germany, and America, with a view to establishing an international court to deal with outrages connected with the kidnapping of natives of the South Pacific.

It is stated from Parisian sources that the Anglo-French treaty negotiations are virtually ended, owing to the refusal of the English commissioners to accept the concession made by the French commissioners in regard to cotton and woollen goods. This concession did not reach the minimum fixed by the English. A despatch to the London *Times*, however, states that the situation is slightly improved and a definite arrangement quite possible.

Affairs in Tunis seem to be becoming comparatively peaceful. A despatch states that a majority of the Hammema tribe, numbering 2,300 tents, were expected at Gafsa on the 27th inst., to make submission, and that the rest of the tribe were also disposed to submit. If this be true, the insurrection in the south of Tunis will be practically at an end.

M. Roustan, the French Minister, returned to Tunis on Sunday. He was met by a few French residents and natives, but no great demonstration was made.

French troops have entered Figuig, Morocco, and fighting has ensued between them and tribes within the frontier.

The French Government has issued a decree abolishing the post of Directeur des Cultes at the Ministry of Worship. This department is to be entirely reorganized, and an examination is to be made of the modification of the decree and laws affecting the State churches. It is understood that no new bishop will be appointed without taking the oath prescribed by the convention between France and the Vatican.

A meeting of delegates from the Department of the Seine for the election of Senators, was held in Paris on Thursday. Victor Hugo is among the candidates for the Senatorship.

The Irish Property Defence Association is constantly receiving recruits. On Dec. 28 an influential meeting of the landowners and traders of the city and county of Dublin was held and a branch of the association formed. The Lord Mayor of London is reported to be energetically advocating the fund for the defence of property in Ireland, which has now reached the sum of £9,000. On Thursday the police entered the shops of all the news agents in Dublin who are engaged in the sale of seditious journals, and seized all the copies of the *United Ireland*, *Irish World*, and *United Irishman*. The organization of eleven of the worst counties into five districts, each under the supervision of a special magistrate, is looked upon as an indication that the Government has resolved to take still more vigorous measures for the suppression of the disorders. A meeting of the Ladies' Land League was held in Dublin on the 1st of January, at which Miss Anna Parnell presided. The police did not interfere. The Dublin correspondent of the London *Times*, in reviewing the events of the past year in Ireland, draws a very dark picture. He says that commercial credit is broken and the spirit of the country sunk in deep depression. The result of the year's trade shows a decrease of thirty per cent. in imports.

Mr. Dawson was formally inaugurated Lord Mayor of Dublin on Monday. The Corporation refused to pass the customary vote of thanks to the retiring Mayor, Mr. Moyers, in consequence of his refusal to convene a special meeting of the Corporation to confer the freedom of the city on Messrs. Parnell and Dillon.

The London *Times* of December 31, in a financial article reviewing the state of British trade during the past year, says that "the year has been marked by a quiet but steady improvement in trade"; that pauperism is diminishing and the revenue from deposits in savings banks increasing, and that the outlook, on the whole, for the new year is reassuring.

The English Foreign Office has published Mr. Blaine's despatch of November 14th to Minister Lowell, thanking the British people for their sympathy with Mrs. Garfield and her family.

It is understood that Mr. Bradlaugh will appear before the bar of the House of Commons and make claim to have the oath administered to him on the day on which Parliament reassembles.

The total amount of the subscription obtained in London in aid of the sufferers by the Vienna fire exceeded £100,000.

The Allan Line steamship *Moravia*, from Portland, bound for Liverpool, England, ran ashore near Yarmouth, Nova Scotia, on Friday. The cargo, consisting mainly of wheat and flour, was thrown overboard, and the passengers taken ashore, but it was found impossible to get her afloat. It is stated that there is little hope of saving the vessel, as she fills with each tide.

The Hamburg-American Line steamer *Gellert*, which sailed from New York on the 15th of December for Hamburg, ran ashore on Wednesday during a fog, near Cuxhaven, on the bank of the Elbe, fifty-six miles from Hamburg.

Since the Anti-Socialist Law was promulgated in Germany, 225 Socialist societies have been dissolved, and 758 Socialist publications suppressed.

It is stated that Herr Richter will soon resign the leadership of the Progressists in the Reichstag, and that Herr Hanel will succeed him.

The trial trip through the St. Gothard Tunnel was made on Thursday. It is said to have been highly successful. The time occupied in the passage of the train was forty minutes one way and thirty-three minutes the other.

Despatches from St. Petersburg announce that great frauds, amounting to millions of rubles, have been discovered at the custom-house at Taganrog, and all the officials arrested.

The total number of arrests of persons engaged in the recent riots at Warsaw is 1,700. It is stated that the prisoners are mostly young men.

A committee, consisting of Sergeant Simon, Baron Nathaniel de Rothschild, and Messrs. Cohen and Worth, in London, is collecting information with regard to the persecution of the Jews in Russia and Poland.

A Madrid despatch announces that the conversion of the privileged debts into four per cents has succeeded beyond all expectation. About £53,000,000 of the nominal capital of the debt has been converted.

King Luis of Portugal opened the Portuguese Cortes on Monday.

Complaint is being made in Portugal in regard to the treatment in the Sandwich Islands of emigrants from the Azores. The press in Lisbon has called upon the Government to take some steps in the matter.

The elections in Greece have been held. The returns are as yet incomplete, but so far they are unfavorable to the Government. The Ministers of Marine and Finance have lost their seats.

It is said that Señor Matias Romero has been appointed Mexican Minister to Washington.

The latest despatches from South America announce that when the news of the departure of Messrs. Trescott and Blaine, on a special mission to Chili and Peru, was received it caused a decided improvement in the markets.

TUESDAY, January 3, 1882.

FRENCH STOCK SPECULATION.

It is impossible to judge, until a full report of the recent libel suit of M. Roustan against the *Intransigeant* has been received, to what extent, if any, the jury were influenced by political considerations in finding for Rochefort, the defendant. The salient facts in support of the charge that Roustan's operations against the Bey were part of a gigantic stock speculation are, that his character does not seem to have stood very high at Tunis, and that the price of Tunisian bonds rose greatly at Paris just after the Bardo treaty, and next after the commencement of active military operations; further, that the original quarrel with the Bey was a dispute about the possession of a farm claimed by a French company against an English Jew, and that Roustan had long been an active dispenser of concessions from the Tunisian Government to French speculators. Moreover, an appearance of bad faith and of the existence of something that had to be concealed was created from the very first by the campaign against the Kroumirs, which everybody saw was a sham in the first fortnight. This was enough to cast discredit on the whole enterprise. The *Temps*, which is now a semi-official organ of the Gambetta Ministry, has admitted frankly that the Kroumirs were phantoms, but justifies the use of them, on the ground that there were serious diplomatic objections to saying, at the outset, that the real cause of the attack on the Bey's sovereignty was the desire to put an end at once to Italian pretensions to influence over him. Of course, a Government which confesses that it went to war on a fraudulent pretext, must expect to have its honesty impugned at every stage of the enterprise of which the war was the beginning. It is true that Gambetta was not in office when the war began, but he approved of it, and since coming into office has adopted all the methods and agents of his predecessors. Moreover, the Jules Ferry Ministry made no secret of the fact that the subjugation of Tunis was to open a rich field to French capital.

What makes the verdict of the jury appear a serious blow for Gambetta is, however, probably not so much anything positively criminatory which has been brought out at the trial, as the formal confirmation it seems to give, in a country in which judicial findings have great moral weight, to the theory which all the opponents of the Republic have been vigorously preaching, that the Republican régime is essentially a corrupt, stock-jobbing régime. Ever since the Monarchists had to cease denying its power and permanence, they have taken to accusing it of dishonesty in money matters, and the charge has derived a certain plausibility in French eyes from the fact that the present Government is, to a greater extent than any other which has preceded it since the Revolution, a government of poor men who have their fortunes to make, and men unknown to "Society," and whom Society thinks ready to steal whenever they get a chance.

It is not this, however, which makes a Parisian bourgeois jury ready to believe evil of the men now in power, so much as the enormous extent to which the French people is now plunged in stock speculation. Nothing like it has hitherto been known in French history, and one consequence of this is undoubtedly a readiness on the part of the ordinary Frenchman to believe that everybody, high and low, official and non-official, is in pursuit of things which have "money in them." A writer of high authority in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* asserts that it is not only the failure of the vine and the olive which has lowered the value of land, and thrown much of it out of cultivation, and made it very difficult to rent on any terms in central and southern France, but the rage of the peasantry for stocks, and the town life which seems to be a necessary accompaniment of stock speculation. In fact, it has now gone so far as to have greatly weakened if not destroyed, over a large part of France, the old "earth hunger" which has been so long one of the most powerful agents in French history, and did so much to ensure the success of the Revolution. The peasant has, in short, begun to prefer to have his money in scrip, or rentes, to having it in land, and to prefer the chance of increasing his store by lucky turns on the exchange to the chance of increasing it by that painful industry of the spade, for which he has long been famous.

To meet this demand for stocks, the railroads and "governments" by no means suffice as they do with us, great speculators as we deem ourselves. There is now in France a great swarm of banking companies, or "crédits," as they are called, in whose shares thousands of small people deal without knowing anything of their business. But the greatest material for speculation is afforded by the "Crédits-Fonciers," of which there is another and larger swarm, with much greater command of capital. These are in reality what we call "Construction Companies," of which our famous Crédit-Mobilier was a pretty example. Their proper business, theoretically, is some kind of speculation in real estate, as their name implies. They are ready to dig canals, make railroads, open streets or tunnels, build houses or stores, sell lots, and carry on farms, or vineyards, or sugar plantations. Nothing comes amiss to them, in fact, and their operations reach all over France and Algeria. They will soon be in operation in Tunis, but they rarely venture from under the French flag, owing to some remains of the timidity which has for nearly two centuries stopped French colonization. Their shares are small in amount, and thus within everybody's reach, and with this great variety in the nature, extent, and profitableness of their undertakings there is of course room for numerous and heavy fluctuations in their Bourse value.

How managers are provided for organizations requiring such a great diversity of talent and capacity, and how frauds and malversation both small and great are prevented, we are unable to say, and for our present purpose is of no consequence. It is enough that no gross mismanagement has yet been revealed, and that the companies still command the confidence of the small investors and speculators; and it is highly probable that they exerted considerable influence in precipitating the Tunisian crisis in order to provide themselves with new fields. The real danger of Gambetta's Ministry on the financial side probably lies not so much in popular suspicion that its members are making money through their use of power, as in the liability of the bubble to burst while he is in power. If he could support the collapse of speculation which his Government might be fairly accused of fostering, it would show that he was the strongest ruler France has ever had, for the resulting ruin would be felt over a wider area than any similar preceding calamity. Most "crashes" touch only the well-to-do; a French crash just now would reach the "chaumières," in which every French Government has to keep content alive as a condition of existence.

OUR "PROTECTED" FORESTS.

Among the most interesting of the points which require attention in the impending revision of the tariff is that relating to lumber. Here the principle of protection has received a very whimsical application, and one decidedly hostile to the public advantage which protection is supposed to subserve, whether we view it as assisting the accumulation of raw material for our manufacturers and builders, or as protecting the process of its manufacture by them. The production of new stores of this raw material is very slow at the best, and yet it is of the utmost importance to both our builders and manufacturers that the required supply should be ample and of moderate cost. It is no less important that the indirect benefit of our forest growth to agriculture should be considered. The necessity of an abundant timber supply to our carpenters every one can see at a glance. It will be very hard for us in a thousand ways to have the supply of black walnut, for instance, give out as that of tulip wood and ebony has done. But the loss of the forest to the farmer, though not so plain at first glance, is no less real. Scientific men agree with great unanimity that the preservation of extensive forests is vital to the prosperity of a large part of the country. Our climate is naturally drier than that of Europe, and vast tracts of our Western territory are particularly exposed to prolonged droughts and devastating gales. The whole great region extending from the valley of the Missouri to the Rocky Mountains is very generally of this character. There the wind acquires enormous force in its unobstructed sweep over hundreds of miles of prairie, and no mountains intervene to break its force or arrest the travelling rain clouds. Every season we are appalled by accounts of calamitous gales and irresistible tornadoes. The rainfall, too, diminishes markedly to the west of the Missouri, and when the needed showers come they fall too often upon parched and unretentive ground. From this they roll off in sheets to the stream channels, through which they rush in appalling floods. Drought is a frightful foe to the farmers of the far West. For several years they have escaped it, but three times in the last decade the crop has failed from this cause over whole States. More than once the rich bottom lands have been rendered untillable from floods.

These bad Western crops were felt heavily in the East, in the shape of diminished demand for goods, and bad debts. The East cannot flourish while the West suffers; for there is produced the food that feeds the nation and preserves the balance of our European trade, and there is consumed the product of the Eastern mills. Moreover, the prosperity of the West is an agricultural prosperity directly connected with its forest growth, for one of the few means of moderating these violent excesses and keeping up the even distribution of the necessary moisture is by forests. Indeed, that and the altered character of the surface, produced by cultivation, by which the soil becomes more porous and receptive of moisture, as well as more regularly drained, seem the only methods of producing any effect in the desired direction. The thrifty Western farmer has taught himself without books the value of the little grove on the windward side of his dwelling, and the benefits to be expected from a better system of arboriculture are so widely recognized that many States offer tax abatements to those who set out trees.

In direct opposition to that wise policy, our national Government puts a premium on the destruction of our forests by its tax on Canadian and other imported lumber, and under this extraordinary legislation our forests are rapidly falling. It is estimated by the Government that the once superb forests of Minnesota will be exhausted in a dozen years, and that the Florida supply will not last more than thirty. In California the destruction of the trees has been so reckless that over great tracts of land the soil, stripped of its natural protection, is burned by the sun and powdered by the wind into a hopeless desert. In northern Wisconsin and Michigan, where the depleted soil cannot be profitably farmed, it is true that the woods are allowed to spring up again, but the lumbering is so improvidently done that a worthless scrub growth generally takes the place of the destroyed forest. The denudation is so rapid that with all our natural optimism we cannot help looking with alarm at the approaching scarcity of an article so valuable at every step of our lives. Yet the Government does its best to hasten the evil hour, and does it apparently in mere carelessness.

It seems almost impossible to defend the lumber tariff. It is not in the interest of the manufacturer—he is impeded by the enhanced price he has to pay and threatened with an exhaustion of raw material; it is not in the interest of the farmer—he has to pay more for his house and more for every wooden thing he buys, while he is exposed to an increased danger from drought and flood. The whole country suffers, and the only persons benefited are a few great lumber firms—a mere handful of capitalists—whom the nation could far better afford to support in luxury at some European capital, where their destructive propensities would not be exercised at our expense. From their position as employers of a large force of men in a sparsely-settled region they have, of course, considerable political influence, but that need not be yielded to so tamely, and probably would not be if their position were better understood.

The method upon which our tariff was made up was that of buying off opposition by giving every interest a share in the protection distributed, and like most other political compromises it had its good points; but the danger it was especially exposed to was that of unduly assisting business interests which were particularly importunate or influential in politics at the expense of the well-being of the inattentive and unorganized community at large. This will plainly seem to have been triumphant in regard to our woodlands, upon which the tariff has had the most unfortunate effect. One thing that led to the mischievous blunder was probably a neglect of the difference between the lumber crop and most others in which foreign competition was feared. In most products increased prices tend to increase the supply. The tariff on wool did not exhaust the national stock, because it made it more profitable to breed sheep, and so it enormously increased the domestic flocks; but no such result followed from the lumber duties, because timber trees are so slow of growth that we cannot stop to cultivate them. Hence the tariff has not led to their planting anywhere, but only to the speedier sacrifice of the stock on hand. Here protection not only does not protect, but it hastens the rapidly approaching exhaustion of our native supply, so that the next generation must become dependent upon foreign support unless the evil process is arrested. The active encouragement of forest culture is probably a matter best accomplished by State action. State officials appointed to give their immediate personal care to the matter, and laws imposing a tax upon wild lands, from which land with good growing timber should be free, are expedients for State action which naturally occur to the mind. But at least we may demand of the national Government that it shall not offer a premium for forest destruction.

MARK TWAIN'S VISIT TO CANADA.

According to a despatch from Ottawa, published on Thursday, there has been some "fearful blundering" over the interpretation of the Canadian copyright law within the past few weeks, and no one has blundered more than Mark Twain, who made a trip there in search of a copyright for a new book which he is bringing out. As a humorist Mark Twain must enjoy the account given of his attempts to get protection for his property, though as a literary man he may wish that the law of the subject was in a condition which would make the security greater and the fun less uproarious. He had, it seems, in the first instance, obtained an English copyright, which only requires first publication in England, and this copyright might naturally be supposed to extend to all the British possessions. Such, however, is by no means the case, for though by the laws of Canada the book cannot be reprinted in the Dominion, foreign reprints of it may be imported into Canada on payment of a royalty or duty. To protect his property against this a Canadian copyright is necessary, but a Canadian copyright cannot be obtained unless the author is domiciled in Canada.

Now, the meaning of domicile, though the word is of Latin origin, is extremely simple. It means living in a place; and we all know that Mark Twain does not live in Canada. But, to alter slightly the sentiment once expressed by an eminent judge, if a man may ever be pardoned for quibbling about anything, he may be for quibbling to save his property. The proprietor of a copyright is so surrounded with enemies eager to waylay him and rob him that he may fairly resort to any shift that the most ingenious technicality can devise. So Mark Twain appears to have thought, for on discovering that it was necessary for him to have a Canadian domicile to get a Canadian copyright, he immediately stated that he had what he called an "elective domicile" in Canada. The only kind of elective domicile which is known in this country is the domicile which voters sometimes suddenly choose immediately before election for the purpose of casting their ballots, with the full intention of returning to what the lawyers call their domicile of origin as soon as they have cast them. But in Canada there is said to be a funny kind of domicile, unknown to our law, consisting of "an address or place where it has been agreed that delivery will be accepted." The Department of Agriculture, however, which for some reason best known to the Canadian Government has charge of matters connected with literary property, decided that Mark Twain's elective domicile was all moonshine, and that if he wished to get a Canadian copyright he must actually live in Canada. Few authors wish to do this, and so we presume Mark Twain has come home a sadder and wiser man.

He has the satisfaction of knowing, that if he has not succeeded in the object of his trip, he has at least brought to the attention of the world a new and amusing feature of the copyright problem. Canada is a country which, as regards copyright, is a good deal in the position occupied by the United States fifty years ago—that is, it produces few authors but a good many publishers. What these publishers want is protection, not for authors, but for themselves; and, according to the despatch already quoted, the Canadian Publishers' Association "is now moving in the direction of petitioning the Imperial Government for absolute power for the Dominion Parliament over copyright laws." The British Government has given Mr. West power as Commissioner to negotiate with our Government at Washington as to the proposed international treaty, and he has been instructed also to confer with the Canadian Government, and obtain such assistance as will ensure the protection of the "interests of Canada" in the event of an international copyright treaty being arranged between Great Britain and the United States. The "interests of Canada" mean the interests of the Canadian publishers; and it is highly important, whatever view we may take of their interests, that, in the consideration of the proposed copyright treaty, the relation of Canada to the contracting parties should be taken into the account. We have stated what is generally understood to be the law as it now exists; but the extent of the authority of the Dominion over copyright has never been fully determined by the English courts, and the recent adventures of Mark Twain, who of course acted under legal

advice, show that, between the three sets of laws now in existence, it is very difficult to know what the position of any copyright is. A treaty between England and the United States which left the status of copyright in Canada undetermined might lead to complications of a serious character.

NEW YEAR'S DAY.

THE decline in the observance of New Year's Day by "Society" in New York has at length reached a point at which its traditional customs may be said to have no longer any obligatory force. Although there is, probably, just as great a number of people who receive calls, and of other people who make them, as ever, both making and receiving have, in the world which is supposed to enact, amend, and repeal social laws, become as entirely optional as on any other day in the year. There is no more exultation over a long New Year's list of callers; there is no more remorse in the breast of the unfortunate wretch who has not called at all. This change was, of course, in the first instance due, as so many great social changes are, to feminine influence. Social laws are generally under feminine protection; men who undertake to originate reforms do so at their peril. The custom of New Year's calls once part of the social order, nothing could relieve men from the duty of calling it imposed upon them, except some action on the part of women to indicate that they intended to give up receiving. Accordingly the first step was taken when it was suddenly discovered to be "good form" to leave the city altogether for the day, and hang out a basket for cards as a sort of symbol of the hospitable intentions which absence alone prevented from having free play. The popularization of the card-basket, however, as might have been seen from the first, had a deterrent effect upon callers, who perceived at once that there was a wide difference between going to see people who stayed at home for the express purpose of receiving you, and leaving a card upon people who go out of town for the almost avowed purpose of avoiding you. In the same way, the failure to find in the card-basket a number of cards at all corresponding to the old list of "callers" led to a perception of the fact, on the part of the receiving sex, that even that relic of the custom might be abandoned without any loss to pride, and so, at first by degrees, but finally with great suddenness, New Year's calls have, as we say, ceased to be a matter of binding obligation at all.

The explanation of the disappearance of this social incubus—for such it had got, for Society, to be—that at once suggests itself to every observer of the changes which have taken place in New York in the last twenty-five years, is the great size of the city. The number of every one's acquaintances is so great, and the distances to be traversed are so serious, that it had become nearly a physical impossibility to make the rounds at all. The only way in which it could be done was to begin at an hour of the morning when the receiving sex could on no theory be supposed to wish to see anybody, and to keep it up, by rapid driving, and restricting the period of each visit to a moment of time, sufficient only to establish the caller's identity, till a late hour of the evening. The idea on which the old New York New Year's Day was based was that of sociability, but the new system of instantaneous visits was really a burlesque on sociability, and in fact had grown to be a huge social sham. The only excuse for social shams, as all moralists know, is their convenience and utility, and when a custom has developed not only into a sham, but into a terribly onerous, inconvenient, and wearisome sham, it is surely doomed.

There are one or two influences besides this, however, which have had an important effect in determining the fate of New Year's Day. It is essential to the long-continued success of any social observance that it shall be restricted to "Society," and shall not be vulgarized by too great an extension and mimicry among those whom Society does not recognize as belonging to its own world. But New Year's calls have been, as any one can see from the newspapers, greatly vulgarized within the past generation. As the custom began to assume proportions in Society itself which threatened its ultimate extinction, a sort of passion for its observance seemed to spring up in the population of the city at large, which knows little of Society except by hearsay, or the accounts given of its doings in the press, or what can be seen of it in the streets. As a general rule, any very extensive imitation of the corporate proceedings of Society is forbidden by the amount of time and money required. Those who can afford time and money find it a much better plan to obtain admission to it than to imitate it. But here was something which required only one day in the year, and that a holiday, and a comparatively trifling outlay. To stay at home and "receive," requires nothing but that the receiver shall be a woman; to call, nothing but that the caller shall be a man. New Year's calls, therefore, could be placed on broad human grounds. They were open to all ranks, classes, and conditions, not only to the reserved and haughty millionaire and his wife and daughters, but to the genial and expansive "curb-stone" broker and his; to the socially irresponsible "worker" who fixes the results of elections, as well as to the thoughtful and distant statesman who profits by them; to the tailor as to the swell made up by the tailor; to the milliner no less than the employer of the milliner. The head-waiter, the driver of the "bob-tailed" horse-car, the boot-black, the lightning-rod man, the book peddler, and the "drummer"—all these and their wives and families saw in New Year's Day an opportunity for them to play, or seem to play, a part in the doings of Society. Now whatever else may be said of our best society, all observers are agreed that it is very undemocratic; and this spread of New Year's calls, far from pleasing it, as in accordance with the theory of our institutions it of course ought to have done, shocked its sensibilities. In Society, as in France, ridicule kills, and it does make the custom ridiculous to have the streets filled with "callers" who imagine that the proper dress to assume is a swallow-tailed coat and white kid gloves, and to have the columns of the papers filled with inquiries as to whether when four men hire a barouche for the purposes of the day they ought to send in their names on a joint card, or whether it is necessary for them to drink whatever is offered them in every house they go to.

Another perhaps more remote but probably powerful influence in producing the altered feeling of Society with regard to New Year's Day is that *anglomania* which, since the war, has done so much to change the social tone of New York. Society here has always been more or less imitative, and whereas down to about the time of the war it imitated Paris, it now imitates London. Like all other forms of mania, *anglomania* is irrational, but for that very reason all the more powerful. It does not lead to the importation or adaptation of English fashions and customs because they are good in themselves, or suited to the country, but simply because they are "English," and to be "English" is to-day to be in "good form." Now the old New Year's Day was not, perhaps, exactly French, but it was much more nearly French than it was English. It was sociable, it was democratic, and something or other remotely resembling it prevailed in Paris.

In those now so distant days when there was in the United States no coaching and no anise-seed bag hunts, no five o'clock teas, and no anxious inquiries as to the proper pronunciation of the *a* in such difficult combinations as "glass" or "pass," but when the New York swell had a French tailor, a French bootmaker, and cultivated French manners, New Year's Day seemed a part of his "not too French" Frenchiness. But the custom was obviously one which any one who wished to be regarded as "English" must look upon with suspicion and dislike. The mere idea of being on a given day bound to receive any one who considers himself an acquaintance—for that is what it came to—would necessarily be repulsive to an English lady, brought up to discriminate with sharp precision between those whom the receiver visits, bows to, shakes hands with, or cuts. The idea that it might be left to men to determine upon whom they might call would be shocking to every feeling that permeates English Society. Any attempt to introduce such a custom in London would produce a social pandemonium. Of course it is impossible now to discover who first struck a deliberate blow at New Year's, but we fancy, if the matter could be probed to its depths, it would be found that the revolution was set on foot by reformers who, after due reflection, had come to the conclusion that for Americans who desired before all things to be really and truly English, a custom so obviously unsuited to London must be given up in New York.

Correspondence.

REASONABLE DOUBT AS TO INSANITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your comments on the article of a correspondent published under the above heading in the last number (860) of the *Nation*, you omit to cite Mississippi as one of the States holding that the burden of proof, when the question of sanity is in issue in criminal trials. is on the State.

In the case of Cunningham *vs.* The State, 56 Miss., 276, Mr. Justice Chalmers, delivering the opinion of the court, says:

"We think the true rule is this: Every man is presumed to be sane, and in the absence of testimony engendering a reasonable doubt of sanity no evidence on the subject need be offered; but whenever the question of sanity is raised and put in issue by such facts, proven on either side, as engender such doubt, it devolves upon the State to remove it, and to establish the sanity of the prisoner to the satisfaction of the jury beyond all reasonable doubt arising out of all the evidence in the case."

The reasoning of the court on which the conclusion given is based seems to be unanswerable. The argument is thus stated by Judge Chalmers:

"Because he is a human being the accused is presumed to be sane. He must be sane in order to be guilty. The trial commences with the presumption that he is so. If nothing in the testimony suggests otherwise, there is no obligation to establish sanity; but the moment the proof warrants a reasonable doubt of it, no matter from which side it comes, that doubt must be removed. Which side must remove it? Manifestly that side which set out to show guilt, because there can be no guilt without sanity. The condition of sanity, which is ordinarily the attribute of all men, has been rendered doubtful as to the particular man, and, as his guilt depends upon his sanity, its existence must be shown in the same manner and to the same ex-

tent as any of the other elements which go to make up the crime. What logic or consistency can there be in saying that all the other elements [of crime] must be established beyond a reasonable doubt, but that this one—certainly as essential as any other—may be assumed on less satisfactory proof? True, the case started with the theory that it existed; but can this in any wise affect the condition in which it must be left at the close, if it has, during the progress of the trial, been rendered doubtful? How can a jury say, We have no doubt of the guilt of the prisoner, but we doubt whether he was sane? If a jury in a capital case should bring in such a verdict, would it not be judicial murder to inflict a sentence of death? And yet many such verdicts are practically inevitable under a theory of the law which holds that the burden of proving insanity rests upon the accused, and that he must be convicted unless he has clearly proved it beyond all reasonable doubt."

Yours respectfully, S. J.

JACKSON, MISS., Dec. 26, 1881.

[The only reply, it seems to us, that can be successfully made to this reasoning is, that it involves a confusion between the law relating to the burden of proof and the technical doctrine of "reasonable doubt." The burden of proof, which merely means in ordinary language that the plaintiff must make out his case, is the same in criminal trials as in civil causes. But in the former the state is required in England and America to go a little beyond this, and make out its case "beyond a reasonable doubt." Precisely what this means no judge has ever been able to explain to any jury; and the rule itself is capable of two widely different interpretations. It may mean either that the prisoner is entitled to have the judge tell the jury that to convict they must be satisfied of his *guilt* beyond a reasonable doubt, or that they must be satisfied beyond a reasonable doubt as to every particular fact which goes to make up the guilt—*e.g.*, sanity, identity, presence at the time of the commission of the crime. Some courts have taken the latter view, but we do not know that the reasons *pro* and *con* have ever been fully gone into by any court of high standing, with a full sense of the importance of the point involved. If "reasonable doubt" applies to every particular fact in the case, this condition of the law would sometimes lead to singular results. For instance, in the Costley case in Massachusetts there was a "reasonable doubt" as to which of three counties the murder had been committed in, owing to an uncertainty as to the county line, so that if the jury had given the prisoner the benefit of the doubt as to this fact, he could not have been convicted in any one of them. On the other hand, if a judge tells the jury merely that all reasonable doubts as to guilt must be removed, the effect of this must be merely to carry out what was undoubtedly the original intention of the rule—that the jury should be more cautious in criminal than in civil trials. The tendency of recent decisions, however, seems in the direction of applying the rule of reasonable doubt to every fact in the case. The matter may become one of serious importance in Guiteau's case on appeal.—ED. NATION.]

THE EXCAVATIONS AT ASSOS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I hear with almost consternation that the excavations of the American Institute of Archæology at Assos, Asia Minor, are not assured of their continuance and may even be suspended or abandoned this winter. In any other civilized country the Government would have come in aid at once of such an undertaking, especially when its results have already given earnest of so much importance and so much has been done by private means. It is quite within the bounds of probability that these excavations, dealing as they do with the entire range of classical time, and even prehistoric matter, may, if conducted seriously, as begun, and persistently, as they merit, be the most important contributions to archæology of the century, certainly far more important than those of Schliemann either at Hissarlik or Mycenæ. Every American who has the slightest interest in classic archæology, or pride in his country's reputation for liberal education, owes it to himself to contribute his mite; and some of those who spend so profusely for public purposes which the whole public can appreciate, would do well to water this enterprise with a little of their bounty. There is no undertaking now on foot under American direction, to my knowledge, half so likely to render honor to the country as this work of the Institute of Archæology, and it will be a disgrace to the nation if the pittance demanded for the continuance of the work is not at once given and even trebled. Either the French, German, or English Government under the same circumstances would have given pounds sterling where the Institute asks for dollars. The work should not be stopped for a day. The winter season is always the most fruitful in discoveries, and especially in the finding of small objects of value, as the rains wash them free from the soil; and to abandon the ground for a month is to leave it open to clandestine search by the experienced native excavators, who will profit by the work done, and may carry away objects of inestimable value, as everything from Assos is valuable, but especially so when exactly located.

The public spirit of the United States should put $50,000 at once into the treasury of the Institute to drive this work through with a despatch and thoroughness which would do credit to the nation. W. J. STILLMAN.

P. S.—I am a poor man, but I send Professor Norton for the excavations at Assos $25.

ATHENS, Greece, December 9, 1881.

THE TRUE MONROE DOCTRINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Hon. John A. Kasson has devoted an article, in the September number of the *North American Review*, to what he calls the "Monroe Declaration." He gives us the genesis of what is more usually called the "Monroe Doctrine," and, as far as he goes, with that correctness which might have been expected from a gentleman as intelligent and well informed as Mr. Kasson is known to be. But to a proper understanding of what was meant by President Monroe in his celebrated message of December, 1823, we have to take the strictly American view of the political condition of Europe at the time in question. In the "Holy Alliance" (which, by the way, had no practical importance, and was the offspring of a mystical whim of the Czar Alexander I.) our American statesmen could take only an academic interest. The allied powers spoken of by Mr. Monroe in his message—not the shadowy Holy Alliance—were Russia, Prussia, Austria, and France, who at their conference at Carlsbad and their congresses at Troppau, Laibach, and Verona, had, upon the urgent insistance of Prince Metternich, raised the legitimacy of hereditary monarchy to a fundamental principle of universal application, and had pledged themselves to support it by actual intervention in favor of every reigning dynasty of Europe. In consequence of their agreement, publicly proclaimed to the world, the popular risings in Piedmont and in Naples were suppressed by armed force, Austria acting as executioner; and so was the revolution in Spain against Ferdinand VII., France by her army performing the office of peacemaker.

The Spanish Colonies on this continent had been in open revolt against the mother country ever since 1812, and Spain seemed to be wholly unable to reconquer them. The United States had recognized their independence, and valuable commercial interests had sprung up between us and the Spanish American States, who had freed themselves from the colonial bondage which fettered their trade with the outside world. Besides these important material interests, it was but natural that the people of the United States should cordially sympathize with their American neighbors, and should ardently desire the republican system to be extended on this continent. The latter consideration had of course no weight with England, even while Mr. Canning was Secretary of the Foreign Office. Commercial interests, however, made England as keen in maintaining the republics of Mexico and of Central and South America as these interests did the United States. England's policy in that respect has never changed. When Mr. August Belmont, in July, 1861, in an interview with Lord Palmerston, who had the reputation of always taking the liberal side in any revolutionary movement outside of England, expressed himself somewhat astonished that England, which had so long combated slavery and had supported the anti-slavery party in the United States, should now rather incline to favor the slaveholders, he was answered by the noble lord: "We don't like slavery, but we want cotton, and don't like your Morrill tariff." It had become known to Canning that, after the Liberals in Spain had been subdued, the King's Government had made an attempt to obtain the help of the allied powers for the purpose of reconquering the Spanish colonies in America. He was afraid that France and Russia would enter into the scheme, and, if successful, would gain important advantages in commercial favors, perhaps even in territorial cessions. Hence his anxiety to enlist the United States in a protest against such intervention on the part of the allied powers. The fears of Canning, and also of our own statesmen, turned out afterward to have been unfounded. France particularly disavowed any intention to interfere. This disavowal, however, may have been caused, in part at least, by the stand which Mr. Monroe had taken, and which was known in diplomatic circles a considerable time before his declaration was made public.

Now, then, against what points was the Monroe Doctrine directed? Let it speak for itself:

"We owe it to candor, and to the amicable relations existing between the United States and the allied powers to declare, that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend *their system* to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. *With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power* we have not interfered, and shall not interfere; but with the Governments who have declared their independence and maintained it, and whose independence we have, on great consideration and just principles, acknowledged, we could not view an interposition for the purpose of oppressing them, or controlling in any other manner their destiny, by any European power, in any other light than as a manifestation of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States."

In another part of the same message, and with reference to a very different subject, the message declared that "the American continents should no longer be subjects for any new European colonial settlements." As to this, it is not necessary to say more than that it had special reference to our northwestern country on the Pacific Coast, which we claimed under the treaty with Spain of 1819, and part of which was claimed

by Russia. It was a bare claim by Russia, no colony having been established nor any sort of occupation taken by that power. This conflict was then pending, and ended in a settlement, as did also the later controversy with Great Britain on the same coast, by the Treaty of Washington, concluded in 1846. As the whole American continent and islands contiguous to it are now occupied either by independent states or by European powers, that part of the message has become obsolete and may be dismissed from consideration.

What, then, did the first branch mean, when it was promulgated, considered in the light of the surrounding circumstances? It meant this: Some of the governments on this continent have declared themselves independent, and successfully thus far sustained their independence. We have recognized their independence. We have reason to believe that the allied powers (Russia, Prussia, Austria, and France) contemplate an interference between Spain and those governments, according to the system of intervention which they have proclaimed in Europe, and just successfully carried out. Against this intervention we may feel bound to intervene, and we give you fair warning thereof. Nothing was said about the United States abandoning the neutrality which they had heretofore observed between Spain and her resisting colonies. If Spain would reconquer them, she might try; but the United States would not permit this to be done with the assistance of the allied powers who were bent on propagating absolute monarchical government over the whole world, and introducing their system of intervention into the New World.

As stated by Mr. Kasson, the draft of that passage of President Monroe's message was submitted to Thomas Jefferson, surely one of our most distinguished statesmen, particularly in foreign affairs. In his reply to Mr. Monroe, he expressed himself as follows:

"I could honestly, therefore, join in the declaration proposed, that we aim not at the acquisition of any of those Spanish-American possessions, that we will not stand in the way of any amicable arrangement between them and the mother country, that we will oppose, with all our means, *the forcible interposition of any other power* as auxiliary, stipendiary, or under any form or pretext, and most especially their transfer to any power by conquest, cession, or acquisition in any other way."

This is Mr. Jefferson's interpretation, and undoubtedly the only correct one, of the Monroe Doctrine. The latter part of his remarks has reference to the fear entertained that Spain, in order to reconquer her vast domains, might cede part of it, as a consideration for assistance, to France or Russia—powers which of course would have been far more formidable to us than declining Spain. This, also, was Mr. Canning's great fear, for one of the points which he was very anxious we should join England in publicly declaring, was, "That we could not see any portion of them [the Spanish-American colonies] transferred to any other power with indifference" (August 20, 1823). To leave no doubt upon the true construction of the Monroe Declaration, and to do away with all false impressions and erroneous inferences which had even then been drawn by some, the House of Representatives in 1825 passed the following resolutions:

"That the United States ought not to become parties with the Spanish-American republics, or either of them, to any joint declaration for the purpose of preventing the interference of any of the European powers with their independence or form of government, or to any compact for the purpose of preventing colonization upon the continents of America; *but that the people of the United States should be left free to act in any crisis in such a manner as their feelings of friendship toward these republics, and as their own honor and policy, may at the time dictate.*"

As late as 1848, in a debate about the acquisition of Yucatan, Mr. Calhoun, who had been in Mr. Monroe's Cabinet, and was one of the advisers of the Monroe Declaration, emphatically asserted in the Senate that "the United States was under no pledge to intervene against intervention, but was to act in each case as policy and justice required." (See note 36, p. 97, 'Wheaton's International Law,' Dana.) As before stated, the principle of intervention was never carried out, if ever entertained, by the allied powers, as regards Spain and its revolted colonies. Spain struggled along in a hopeless contest, recognizing the independence of those states gradually, and it was not until some time in 1870, I believe, after a last faint assertion of sovereignty in 1864 over Peru and Chili, that their independence was finally acknowledged by Spain.

The occasion for such a declaration as that contained in the message of President Monroe in 1823 will in all probabilty never arise again. The Monroe Doctrine, as understood by its authors and the statesmen of that time, has passed into the domain of history, furnishing one of its brightest pages for our people, and reflecting the highest credit on President Monroe, his Cabinet, and his advisers, who defied the greatest powers of Europe when supposed to be desirous to extend their system (of intervention for the suppression of liberty) to the American continents. It is obvious that in its true sense that part of the Monroe Declaration which refers to a combined intervention of European governments with American states is just as dead as the other branch of it in regard to colonization. And yet with all this easily accessible documentary evidence before our eyes, coupled with the fact that our Government as such, in its relation with foreign powers, has never since insisted on this doctrine, there having been no occasion for it, there is no subject more misunderstood than this very Monroe Declaration. Even Mr. Kasson, just returned from his mission to Austria, and having made a particular study of the subject—to judge from the opening remarks of his article—seems to share the same loose, vague, and ever-changing ideas in regard to it with the great majority of the American people.

"The Monroe Doctrine," he says, "is quoted as the supreme, indisputable, and irreversible judgment of our National Union. Among the very few maxims which serve to guide public opinion in our country this ranks as the chief. It has also taken fast hold on the popular mind. A President of the United States, justly appealing to it in an emergency, could not fail of the unanimous following of patriotic citizens, even in presence of a consequently impending war. It touches the instincts of national safety and of pride in our national instituti ons."

The Monroe Doctrine proper, however, as understood at the time it was made, and with its limitations as applicable to a particular crisis, could have no such stirring effects as Mr. Kasson ascribes to it. But what has been from time to time substituted for it, its misunderstood meaning, may often have excited the American people. Some have taken it to mean that America belongs to the Americans (whatever that may signify); others, that we have a right to extinguish all monarchical governments still found on this continent; others, that we have a right to annex all territories on the continent, republican or otherwise, that we have a mind to. It was invoked in 1836, when the French part of Canada had risen against the English Government; it was invoked to further the annexation of Texas; it was appealed to whenever a filibustering expedition started for Cuba. When France in 1838 made war on Mexico and attempted to besiege Vera Cruz, it lay at the bottom of the Ostend Manifesto. It was loudly called into requisition when France imported Maximilian and his ephemeral empire into Mexico; and, lastly, now, when a private company, under the auspices of M. Lesseps, has undertaken to dig a canal through the Isthmus of Panama—a corporation, by the way, which offered its stock to any American citizen who had a surplus to invest in a hazardous undertaking.

These appeals, however, were made by the press, by orators in and out of Congress, but never by any act of Congress or by our Government as such. True statesmen do not rule by doctrines, programmes, or platforms. With them the welfare of the people is the supreme law. They do not commit themselves by generalities. Every conflict that arises is judged by them according to the circumstances of the times. If our interests or our honor be threatened in the particular instance, then they protest, then they arm, then they go to war, independent of sentiments, of traditions, of programmes, of doctrines. The highest commercial interests, the permanency of our republican institutions, would have been seriously threatened had Spain, by the help of the allied powers, reduced her revolted provinces to subjection, or ceded them in part to other far more powerful nations. Here was an emergency, and Mr. Monroe met it manfully, but not on philosophical, abstract principles. If allied or single European powers should at this day try to conquer some of our sister republics, and plant monarchical institutions on American soil, so as to endanger our own safety, the American people would calmly weigh the matter, and, without any reference to former action, decide the case for itself, and no President would fail to carry out this decision. It would go to war just as if the Monroe Declaration had never been made.

The invasion of Mexico by the French in 1862, under pretence of enforcing a settlement of claims (most of which were fraudulent and held by the Emperor's intimate associates in crime), but in truth to subvert the Republican Government and to assist the Clerical-Conservative party in Mexico to establish a monarchy, furnished, perhaps, the most plausible reason for an application of the Monroe Doctrine. There was this difference, however, in the case: at the time of the Monroe message Spain was to be assisted in her conquest by the great powers of Europe, and the principle of intervention was to be applied to America, as was feared. In 1862 there was a powerful clerical and monarchical party in Mexico itself, not strong in number, but in wealth, rank, and intelligence. They acted, at least apparently, as the home Government, called a Congress of "Notables" together, proclaimed a monarchy, and called (1864) the Archduke Maximilian to the throne.

Mr. Seward recognized this distinction. Early in February, 1863, a letter of Louis Napoleon's, written in 1862 to General Forey, who, after the French had been at first repulsed from Puebla, had been appointed commander-in-chief of the French army, very unaccountably found its way into the French papers. In an interview which the American Minister in Spain had with Marshal Serrano, Minister of Foreign Affairs, after official business had been disposed of, an unofficial conversation took place, in which the latter expressed his very great surprise at the letter in which Louis Napoleon had foreshadowed his intention to establish a Government in Mexico, and would hereafter protect the Latin races on the American Continent from the dictation and encroachments of the Anglo-Saxons in the North. The American Minister shared this surprise, not so much at the contents of the letter itself, but that it ever should have been made public, and took occasion to say that his Government would not look upon this plan with indifference, but would consider it as highly danger-

ous to its interests, and would take proper action to prevent it. The American Minister, in his next despatch, called the attention of Mr. Seward to this remarkable letter, and reported also the conversation with General Serrano in regard to it. Mr. Seward, however, in his reply (February 28,1863) to this despatch, expressed his regret that the Minister should have used this language, remarking that the United States were strictly neutral in this affair, and he desired him to explain to General Serrano that what the Minister had said to him was only his private opinion, and not that of the Government he represented. As the Minister at once perceived that this despatch was intended for Paris and not for Madrid, he made no such explanation or apology, and Mr. Seward afterward approved of this omission. Sure enough, on the 29th of May, 1863, Mr. Dayton informed Mr. Seward that he had read to Mr. Drouyn de Lhuys a copy of the despatch of February 28 to our Minister at Madrid, and that Mr. Drouyn de Lhuys expressed himself very kindly, saying that he was much gratified by the contents (Message and Documents Department of State, 1863–1864, part ii., p. 741). Later on, when it was well understood that, after the French had taken possession of the City of Mexico and started a provisional government, negotiations had been set on foot to make Mexico a monarchy, and to call Maximilian to the throne, Mr. Motley, our Minister at Vienna, became very much alarmed, considered this conquest of the capital as "fraught with piteous woe to our country" (August 17, 1863), reminded Mr. Seward of the Monroe Doctrine, and asked the Austrian Minister of Foreign Affairs for explanations; but Mr. Seward most emphatically instructed him to make no representations to the Emperor of Austria, as chief of the House of Austria, regarding Maximilian's acceptance of the crown. To serve, as it were, as a guide for our other ministers, Mr. Seward sent a copy of this despatch to all our chief ministers in Europe. In his despatch (October 9, 1863) to Mr. Motley, Mr. Seward very elaborately repeated those instructions. It contains this remarkable passage:

"France has invaded Mexico, and war exists between the two countries. The United States hold, in regard to these two states and their conflict, the same principle that they hold in relation to all other nations and their mutual wars. *They have neither a right nor any disposition to intervene by force in the internal affairs of Mexico, whether to establish or maintain a republican or even a domestic government there, or to overthrow an imperial or a foreign one if Mexico shall choose to establish or accept it.*" (Despatch to Mr. Motley, Oct. 9, 1863.)

Mr. Seward distinctly denied even here the application of the Monroe Doctrine. It would be a very great mistake, however, to infer from this course of Mr. Seward that he for one moment forgot the true interests of our country. We were still in the midst of our troubles, and so he bided his time. His policy was that of opportunity, which, in fact, is the only true one for a statesman. He was determined from the start, if we could, to drive out the French, and to make an end to the empire of Maximilian. In spite of the urgency of the French Government, he declined, in the politest manner, to recognize the new Latin empire. But as soon as he ascertained that the Mexican expedition had become extremely odious in France itself, and we had triumphed over the rebellion, and hundreds of thousands of veterans of the victorious and vanquished armies were ready and anxious at once to spring to arms to restore a republican government in Mexico, he began reminding Louis Napoleon of his promises that the French should evacuate the country after the government of Maximilian was once established, not only once but again, and again, and so pressingly and persuasively invited the French to step out, using always the most courteous language, that France could no longer resist his friendly admonition, and took her leave, being handsomely complimented by Mr. Seward for so doing. The withdrawal of the French army was the end of the unfortunate Mexican empire.

The true Monroe Doctrine is the interest of our country; and what that interest is, and how it is to be protected, and whether it is to be asserted or not, is to be judged by the circumstances existing at the time such judgment is to be exercised, unfettered by any traditions, or programmes, or doctrines, or precedents. Practically, we have always so acted, and as long as we have statesmen at the helm of state, and not mere "doctrinaires" or political "aspirants," we shall continue so to act, whether our action squares with the Monroe or any other doctrine or not. No doctrine will excuse us when we act unjustly, and none will prevent us from asserting our rights, at any cost, when our interest or our honor is involved. GUSTAVE KOERNER.

BELLEVILLE, Ill., Dec. 20, 1881.

Notes.

MACMILLAN & Co. are about to publish a new translation of Herman Grimm's Tales, with illustrations by Walter Crane. They will directly bring out Nordenskiöld's 'Voyage of the *Vega*.'——Canon Luckock's 'Studies in the History of the Prayer-Book,' and the Rev. Andrew Jukes's 'The New Man and Life Eternal,' are announced by T. Whittaker.——Fords, Howard & Hulbert have in press for Sunday-school use a "comparative edition" of the old and new versions of the Gospel of Mark, edited by Dr. Roswell D. Hitchcock.——The first number of the fourth volume of the *American Journal of Mathematics* (for March, 1881) was issued just before the close of the year. The management of the *Journal* has taken its printing back to Baltimore again, the press of Isaac Friedenwald printing this number. The typography, if in any respect different from the Cambridge print, is improved by the change. It should not escape remembrance, however, that merely to print such mathematical papers as appear in the *Journal* is no easy matter, to say nothing of typographical elegance; and in this regard the *American Journal* seems to have been more fortunate than a number of its foreign contemporaries. We note the absence of the names of the former associate editors, as also that of the late managing editor, Dr. Story. ——Engravings of some of the bas-reliefs from the temple of Assos accompany a brief report on the result of the excavations, by the director, Mr. Joseph Thacher Clarke, in the *American Architect* for December 10.——We have been favored by Prof. Henry W. Haynes, of Boston, with a copy of his 'Discovery of Palæolithic Implements in Upper Egypt,' a paper extracted from the 'Memoirs' of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, and containing four pages of text and seven beautiful plates in the Albert-type method, illustrative of some of the more "select" finds made by the author in the valley of the Nile during the winter of 1877-8. Prof. Haynes asks whether the discovery of his "large quantity of flint inplements" may not be "fairly claimed to have settled the vexed question of the existence of the 'stone age' in Egypt." Reasons for thinking the question to have been previously settled were given in a controversy in Nos. 811, 813 of the *Nation*.——The Census Office has begun to issue Forestry Bulletins, of which the first instalment shows in beautifully colored maps the pine supply (chiefly) of Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Texas, and Minnesota. Tables of estimates, in feet of board measure, of the standing wood are supplied by Prof. C. S. Sargent. ——The proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, at the Boston meeting in August, 1880, have been published in two parts, numbering together nearly 800 pages. First on the list of the "Communications" is that remarkable, perhaps epoch-making, paper by Professor Graham Bell, "On the Production and Reproduction of Sound by Light." A single contribution by a woman, "Field-work for Amateurs," by Ellen Hardin Walworth, occurs in the Natural History section.——The American Oriental Society have published their Proceedings at New Haven in October, 1881. Professor C. H. Toy's comments on F. Delitzsch's discussion of the site of Eden are the most interesting for laymen. Two-thirds of the pamphlet is taken up with additions to the library from July, 1878, to date, of which the collection by the late Dr. Joseph P. Thompson constitutes by far the larger portion.——From the Long Island Historical Society we have a list of recent additions to its library, including the newly completed sets of the Calendars of English State Papers, and the Chronicles and Memorials of Great Britain and Ireland during the Middle Ages. Here, too, are the 125 volumes of the Camden Society's publications. The librarian, Mr. Hannah, gives hopes of an early beginning of a catalogue of the Society's 35,000 volumes.——Bound volumes of *Lippincott's Magazine* (xxviii.) and the *North American Review* (cxxxiii.) are on our table, both noticeable, aside from their intrinsic merit, for the indifference displayed in the tables of contents. —— J. W. Bouton sends the first number of the *Bibliographer*, published by Elliot Stock, London, in a form exactly corresponding to the *Antiquary*, but with a somewhat more attractive typography. The editor is Mr. Henry B. Wheatley, and Messrs. J. O. Halliwell-Phillips and William Blades are among the contributors at the start. This periodical would but half fulfil expectations if it did not attempt occasional illustrations, and these are promised, such as "fac-simile titles of rare books" (recalling Mr. Stevens's plan of cataloguing).——The most artistic likeness of the late President Garfield that we have seen is the artotype vignette mounted on a buff card, and published by Mr. John Snare, 701 Broadway.——The announcement is made that Friedrich von Hellwald ceases to be the editor of *Das Ausland* with the present year, and that he will be succeeded by Professor Ratzel, who proposes to restrict that periodical exclusively to the science of geography. Other news of importance is that the Augsburg *Allegemeine Zeitung* is to be published from the beginning of the present year in Munich.

— B. Westermann & Co. send us the *Almanach de Gotha* for 1882, which, but for its prevailing color, might be called a red-letter volume; for an unprecedented number of censuses have become available since its last issue, and will be found compactly bestowed under their respective headings. The change of rulers in Russia has led both to a considerable "rotation" in office and to some reforms, and has therefore compelled an entire overhauling of the article on that country. The *Almanach's* year closed just on the eve of Guiteau's fatal shot, and the following significant entry ends the *chronique* for this country: "May 16. On account of the President's adhering to Robertson's nomination for the New York collectorship, Senators Conkling and Pratt resign their seats." A very fair likeness of President Garfield is one of the *Almanach's* regular quartet, another being Alexander III.'s. The *Almanach* claps Tunis under France, in spite of administrative

protestations, and the Transvaal under Great Britain, in both cases accepting the logic of events, and welcomes Rumania for the first time as a full-blown kingdom. The editors will, during the present year and hereafter, issue a supplement containing a full list, even to the vice-consuls, of diplomatic and consular agents. ——The same firm sends us two new Tauchnitz volumes (8vo) edited by Dr. Oscar von Gebhardt, first custodian of the University Library at Halle, containing respectively the New Testament according to Tischendorf's latest revision—the eighth—compared with the text of Tregelles, and that of Westcott-Hort; and the Tischendorfian Greek side by side with Canstein's century-old revision of Luther's translation, the variants in both languages being noted. Of course, one who compares these with the text of the English Revised Version will find all the discarded texts retained, and some, but not all, of the old errors of the King James Version. In other words, the editing, which seems faultless in its own sphere, is historical and not critical.——From Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, we have a political map of France, in a new school series for the wall, edited by Richard Kiepert. It is issued in four sheets, and when mounted will measure about five feet by four. The physical features are not neglected, though their scientific expression in levels, etc., is reserved for a companion physical map of the same country. The lettering on the map before us for the smaller divisions and for places would be hardly legible at any great distance from a class. Otherwise the map is as pleasant to the eye as it is trustworthy. The series will embrace the whole of Europe, and on a uniform scale, except in the case of Russia and Scandinavia, of which the scale will be but one-third and two-thirds as large. The price in marks is, for the four-plate maps, about $1 25, and for the six-plate, about $1 90.

—We are glad to announce that the 'History of Greek Philosophy,' by Prof. H. Schwegler, for some time in process of translation, will probably appear early in the present year. Schwegler's 'General History of Philosophy,' in its two translations, has long been favorably known to English scholars as the most successful attempt yet made to condense into 200 octavo pages the entire current of human thought. Accurate as it is, however, it is as little readable as Freeman's 'Outlines of History,' and is of principal use to those already acquainted with its material. Schwegler's 'History of Greek Philosophy,' on the contrary, is the best book on the subject, even in Germany, to which a young student can be sent who wishes precision, moderate fulness, and the allurement of an agreeable style. It is not an outline like Mayor's, nor a brilliant series of sketches like Ferrier's, nor a course of sermons on philosophic themes like Archer Butler's, nor a repository of all learning like Zeller's. It is moderate in compass, sober, learned, engaging, a book to supply a need especially in college instruction. The translator is Mr. Henry Norman.

—Mr. Norman, who acted the part of *Creon* in the memorable performance of the "Œdipus" last summer, has written an 'Account of the Harvard Greek Play' (Boston: James R. Osgood and Co.). It may be "eminently proper," as Professor Goodwin says in his prefatory note, "that the first performance of a Greek tragedy in America should be commemorated in some permanent record"; but surely that record should have been intrusted to a more practised hand. If the book were a mere "college book," the enthusiastic young student might have been suffered to descant on the sensation that the play made and the enhanced price of admission tickets, but the professors who did so much for the play should have crowned their work by taking charge of the chapters on "Sophocles" and "Œdipus the King," and by a sharp revision of the strange jumble which makes up the bulk of the book under the title "The Performance," in which Sophocles the poet and Mr. Millet the costumer struggle for preëminence. The groups and portraits with which the little volume is illustrated, fifteen in number, are heliotype reproductions. The groups, which were made from photographs taken by the electric light, are—let us be frank—fearful to behold, and no matter how cunningly Mr. Millet arranged his "rich but deep-toned reds," his lavender tunics, his delicate blues and salmons, the imagination refuses to associate these admirable hues with the black figures and scowling faces of the photographs; and one cannot but quarrel with the light that has transformed the thoughtful if unheroic face of Mr. Riddle (plate i.) into the unmistakable Ah Sin of plate xii. and the Tecumseh of plate xiv. This is a positive wrong done to the meritorious actors of the piece; a wrong which is not fully redeemed by the sunlight portraits of the principal personages—some of them excellent. As for the great impulse given to Greek studies, if the outcome is to be a weak imitation of Harvard, the benefit is questionable. College presidents will shake their heads when they read that for five months there were three or four rehearsals a week, and that for the six weeks preceding the performance there was a rehearsal every day, to say nothing of the vast drain on the time and energies of the professorial managers. A smaller college than Harvard would simply be broken up by it for the entire session. Even Harvard has not got over it yet, as is shown by this book, although much force has not gone into the preparation of the account of the Greek play.

—The Archæological Institute of America have resolved not to await the accumulation of the fund needed to carry out on a permanent foundation their project of an American School of Classical Studies at Athens. They have accordingly made overtures to some of the principal colleges to coöperate by an offer (on the part of each) of one or more fellowships to its students "for a residence of not less than two years at the School, to be obtained as the reward for distinguished proficiency in classical studies during the undergraduate course." The director of the School it is proposed to choose for a term of one or two years from among the professors or teachers of Greek in the associated colleges, his salary to be continued by the faculty which gives him leave of absence. It remains to provide by annual appropriation for the necessary expenses of the school, which it is thought should not exceed $2,500. A gentleman connected with Harvard College has pledged $250 for a term of ten years (or less if a fund be meantime secured), and the friends and alumni of other colleges will, we cannot doubt, be willing to contribute in like measure. The chairman of the committee is Prof. John Williams White, Cambridge.

—That these fellowships may ere long be applied for by the gentler sex seems probable from the statistics for the past year of the Harvard "Annex," or "Private Collegiate Instruction for Women." In Greek there were four classes and twenty-one students; in Latin, four and seventeen, in mathematics, four and eleven, respectively. German had three classes and eleven students, history three and twelve. "All the courses in Greek were taken," and the tendency clearly was "toward the traditional classical curriculum and not toward science." The considerable number of courses uncalled for were almost entirely non-classical. Out of forty-seven students, sixteen were taking their second year. Of the whole number, Massachusetts furnished thirty-nine and New England forty-two. Nearly half the Massachusetts students came from Cambridge; and Boston and Cambridge together furnished one-half of the whole. Ten young ladies had studied at or graduated from other colleges, including Smith, Vassar, and Wellesley. The examinations, marked upon the same scale as for the young men, were very gratifying to the instructors. "Though the application of the young ladies has been assiduous, the condition of their health has been uniformly good"; and Dr. Sargent, director of the Hemenway Gymnasium, has, at his own expense, fitted up rooms (not connected with his own establishment) with appropriate apparatus, and gives those who frequent them the benefit of his advice. The Reference Library has grown by gift and purchase to considerable proportions. Scholarships in numbers to meet all the actual demands have been provided by friends of the enterprise, and the expenses have so far fallen within the estimates that the support of the course is assured for six years instead of four. "At the end of that time the managers will consider that their work has been accomplished," and the responsibility of its continuance "will be laid upon the public." They appear confident, and all the friends of the higher education will unite with them in hoping, that an adequately endowed institution will then arise.

—The two most entertaining articles in the *Atlantic* for January are Mr. Howells's "Police Report" and an anonymous writer's "Studies in the South." These studies have included a region little visited by strangers—the mountain land of illicit stills and crooked whiskey. We cannot describe very definitely the particular provinces of the moonshiners' country visited by our observer—who, by the way, writes in a manner that recalls the descriptions of Northern American life, published some years since in the same magazine, by Mr. J. B. Harrison—since he leaves the locality very vague, for reasons which will be apparent to any moonshiner or internal-revenue officer who may read what he says; but, wherever it was, the account given leaves no doubt in the reader's mind as to its truth and accuracy. The picture is perhaps a barren one, except in bringing vividly before the mind what, in the case of systematic outlawdom, is so generally forgotten by the civilized man—that the outlaws themselves regard their business as essentially legitimate if unlawful, and look on murder and violence, resorted to as a means of preventing interference with it, merely as a disagreeable necessity, covered by the natural right of self-defence. The proprietor of the mountain-still is in reality a small farmer, to whom his still is as much a part of his inalienable "plant" as a cider-press might be in other parts of the country. He has always made whiskey. His fathers and grandfathers made it before him. As an aged moonshiner, who was the source of much information to the writer, said: "It don't do nobody any harm. It's about all the way we have of makin' any money in this wooden country. It don't go into the general trade of the country enough to amount to anything"—a fact over which the reader who has been unpatriotic enough to put the virtues of untaxed whiskey to the test of experiment, may well pause to breathe a sigh of regret. The liquor is made by these simple mountaineers out of their own corn, and the actual collection of the tax upon it would probably result in their migration *en masse*. The opening of the country by railroads to new industries is already beginning to hem them in, and make their life more difficult. A very graphic and pathetic description of the inroads soon to be made by civilization is given by the old man already quoted, whose conversation has a genuinely conservative tone:

"But this hyur country's all a goin' to change. It's a goin' to be most everlastin'ly *improved*, ye see. *I* sha'n't never be improved; I'm too old. But the old ways is a comin' to an end. They's men a buyin' up thousan's of acres of this land. They'll be railroads built, direc'ly, hither an' yan, more 'n 'll do anybody any good. They'll cut off the woods for fuel an' lumber, an' they'll be mines an' quarries up hyur, they say. An' they'll be mean, dirty little towns laid out, all about. Then, instid o' people drinkin' a little healthy whiskey, as we've always done, they'll be forty times as much miser'ble p'ison stuff sold an' drunk, an' whoever drinks it 'll begin to steal an' lie. I reckon they'll be some mighty fine houses built som'eres along this river, an' they'll put big scientific locks on to their doors, an' thieves 'll come up from Cincinnarter an' Chat'noog', an' break into 'em. They ain't never ben a lock on to a door in these mountains. But they's a goin' to be the all-firedest improvements about hyur, an' I s'pose our people 'll l'arn to steal too; haf to, to keep up an' live. An' they'll be some o' them city women hyur, I reckon, from them big places, with their fine feathers, an' their dresses a draggin' on to the ground, an' they'll be the devil to pay among our young men. That's what they call *civ'lyzation*, ain't it, stranger? I tell ye, this country 'll soon be improvin' like hell, but I sha'n't live to see much of it, I reckon."

The deep-rooted conservatism of the moonshiners, as exhibited in this speech, may perhaps partly explain the linguistic confusion into which they have fallen with regard to their public enemy—the informer. This odious creature is known among them as the "reformer," and they are entirely unaware that this is not his usually accepted designation. The malignant tenacity with which he sticks to their trail is accounted for by the fact that "the reformer gits half."

—*Lippincott's* has an article on "Railway Stations," a subject which would bear a good deal of writing, to say nothing of pictorial treatment. The condition of the railway station in any modern and progressive country is, as the writer, Mr. Edward C. Bruce, points out, an indication of the stage which civilization has reached. During the last twenty or twenty-five years some progress has been made in the older parts of the United States in this respect; but we fear that the old-fashioned American station —a source of pain to the eye and weariness to the flesh—is still to be regarded as a type. The unpainted, square wooden shed, with its surrounding platform, the secondary receptacle of so much of the rain and snow which falls upon its shelving roof; the close, setteed waiting-room, with its huge, reddening stove, its ragged and uncared-for approaches; its taciturn station-master, who, apparently regarding his duties as a mere voluntary contribution to the solution of the transportation problem, confines them as far as possible to a few brief moments at the periods of the arrival and departure of trains; the ever-recurring gang of village loafers and boys—cannot this sort of country station yet be found without diligent research? Its amelioration depended upon the railroad corporations themselves, and there is no doubt that it is being ameliorated. The Boston & Maine railroad, besides giving its station-masters money for the purchase of seeds and plants for horticultural purposes, gives annual prizes to those whose stations are kept in the best manner. Wherever it becomes for the interest of the company to have its agents live permanently in the stations, the work is of course easier. In the West very few railroads appear to have seen as yet that attractive railroad stations may be counted as among the minor and by no means unimportant attractions to emigrants. The emigrant, though he is frequently treated as if he was little better than a quadruped, is really governed in his migrations by complex considerations, into which a general appearance of neatness and comfort and picturesqueness enter to a degree greater than many monopolists suppose. There is not much else in the way of prose in *Lippincott's*. Mrs. Howells contributes a pretty little adaptation or imitation of "Abou ben Adhem," which, as Christmas poetry, stands quite alone for its simplicity of sentiment and expression.

—The topics discussed in the *North American* for January are: "The Moral Responsibility of the Insane," by a quintet of medical symposiasts; "The New Political Machine," by William Martin Dickson; "Shall Women Practice Medicine?" by Dr. Mary Putnam Jacobi; "The Geneva Award and the Insurance Companies," by George B. Coale; and "A Chapter of Confederate History," by F. G. Ruffin. We have read with care the articles on insanity, and cannot see that they advance the subject much. Indeed, as to Dr. Elwell and Dr. Beard, however important and weighty their opinions as experts in a given case may be, their facility of literary expression so runs away with them as to make their symposiastic utterances of comparatively little value to any one. "Truth," says Dr. Elwell, "always runs in parallel lines, which crime, in its zigzag course, strikes and crosses at all angles"—a pretty image, but difficult to connect, out of Bedlam, with the following, which is given as its logical consequence: "An act of crime, therefore, while always unnatural, and contrary to ordinary human action, is not necessarily an insane act." What has this to do with the parallels of veracity, or the zigzags of crime? Again: "No words in our language have yet been able to define 'mind,' sane or insane; and it has no synonym but 'mystery.'" This is not literally true, of course; for if it were we could substitute "mystery" for "mind" wherever it occurs in the symposium, and this would make parts of it more difficult to understand than they are now. Metaphor is the bane of scientific discussion, and accuracy of statement is hardly to be expected from a writer who is so fond of it as Dr. Elwell. Accordingly, when he comes to discuss the legal aspect of insanity, he hazards assertions that will be likely to make the legal reader wish that a lawyer or two had been admitted to this intellectual banquet. The question of insanity, he declares, "may be said to be entirely open to the peculiar views of the presiding judge and the witnesses in each case." Dr. Beard rather funnily begins his symposium as follows: "In traversing a thick forest we are often struck in the face and eyes by a branch which, in passing, we have bent forward, and, smarting with the pain, we automatically and angrily raise our club and strike the branch, as though it were at fault for what has happened." But it is needless to attempt to pursue him in his winding course. There is one radical difficulty with the whole batch of papers: that each writer "sympozes" (necessity must soon lead to the coining of this verb) by himself, without any apparent effort to follow in the lines suggested by his predecessor. The idea of a symposium, and the entertainment of it to a reader, consists in its being a public controversy conducted according to the laws of honorable literary warfare by skilful disputants. The audience is supposed to watch the blows and thrusts and parries with a keen interest, and to amuse itself by seeing which of the combatants comes off with the crown of victory and which is worsted. When the symposium was first imported into this country by the energetic editor of the *North American*, this characteristic feature was consistently preserved, and the engagement of the world-renowned "Jerry" Black and "Bob" Ingersoll seemed likely at one time even to improve the symposium as it has existed in England, and to give it a novel, racy, American flavor which promised to be very refreshing to the jaded reader of non-illustrated monthlies. Of course there was danger in the symposium, as there must be wherever human passions become excited in controversy; but then there was always the editor at hand to prevent any excesses and to prescribe and enforce the rules of the contest. The wild performances of "Jerry" and "Bob" did undoubtedly bring a momentary discredit upon the symposium; but their misbehavior should not allow the editor to forget that the original function of the symposium must be preserved. The first writer must be replied to by the second, and the second by the third, and so on, so that the whole may be a real discussion, and not mere random disconnected essays. He need not be afraid of a recurrence of the horrid scenes between "Jerry" and "Bob," because there is no other "Jerry" and no other "Bob" in the world. Mr. Dickson's article on "The New Political Machine" is a discussion of civil-service reform which leads to the startling conclusion that no real improvement is possible without rotation in office. Mr. Dickson does not think well of the argument derived from English experience, because "a pyramid whose base is a vast official organization, civil and military, with life-tenure, has naturally the throne as its apex," while "a similar base here, with a President for four years, is a truncated cone." There is more metaphor in the *North American* this month than in any other magazine or review.

—The *Fortnightly* for December opens with an article by D. C. Lathbury on "Atheists in Parliament," apropos of the Bradlaugh case, which will come up anew at the next session, as the action taken by the last Parliament has no binding effect beyond that session. The writer weighs the results of the different courses that may be taken, and thinks that if a bill should be introduced for the relief of atheists, it ought to pass. If Parliament should admit Mr. Bradlaugh without debate, the moral sentiment of the country would be offended. Mr. W. Gifford Palgrave gives an account of Kioto, Japan, and describes, not the ware of the city, but mainly the Shinto religion, which he rates very high, and ascribes to it nearly all the virtues of the Japanese character. He goes so far as to say that "Japanese nationality and Shinto are in truth one thing; born together, they will perish, if perish they must, together; the death-note as the birth-note of Shinto and Japan is one." As nations sometimes change their religion, and considering also the inroads that Buddhism has made upon Japan, this rhetoric seems rather exaggerated, however true the praise of Shinto may be. The author himself says immediately that the wrong done Japan by Chinese Buddhism has not been without some compensating advantages. On the other hand, Shinto is still vigorous: it is a mistake to say that it has been completely superseded by Buddhism. "Thriftless Thrift," by Hugh S. Tremenheare, shows that the Savings-Bank Department of the Post-office has failed to reach the class of poorest depositors by fixing too high the limit of smallest deposit—*i. e.*, at twenty pounds. The limit should be fixed at five pounds, if Government would suppress the numerous burial societies, friendly societies, etc., in which the poor man invests for the sake of obtaining at death a decent burial. These societies are very expensively managed, and are also very unsafe. It is estimated that £36,594,000 were invested in these different institutions in March, 1881. The article illustrates a curious phase of English social life. A. Frisby says Conservatism has increased in the large constituencies since the Reform Bill of 1868, and he fears a continuing increase; but the gain seems to be slight. Dr. William Pole describes the *Bergsturz* (fall of the mountain) at Elm, Swit-

zerland, last summer. G. J. Romanes writes a short digest of the 'Origin of Species,' entitled "Scientific Evidence of Organic Evolution," and, with Professor Huxley, puts the case strongly, if not with some heat. The latter says: "Choose your hypothesis; I have chosen mine, and I will not run the risk of insulting any sane man by asking him which he chooses." And Mr. Romanes says he should regard "any man as weak-minded who, after studying the many lines of evidence all converging on the central truth, that evolution has been the law of organic nature, should fail to perceive the certainty of that truth."

— The November number of the Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society contains a short paper by Francis Galton, read before the British Association, "On the Construction of Isochronic Passage-Charts." The accompanying chart is colored variously to designate the length of time required to reach the different parts of the world from London "by the quickest through-routes, and using such further conveyances as are available without unreasonable cost." All of Europe, for instance, the northern coast of Africa, the Levant, the northern half of the Red Sea, Iceland, the east coast of Greenland, Newfoundland, and Nova Scotia, being within ten days' journey, are colored green. A strip of Asia lying between longitude 60° and 75° and including the islands of Spitzbergen and Nova Zembla (or Novaia Zemlia), Asia Minor, parts of Persia and Arabia, the west coast of India, the northwestern coast of Africa, together with a strip adjacent to the Mediterranean and Red Seas, the larger part of the United States, the Dominion and the West Indies, are yellow, to signify that they are from ten to twenty days distant from London. Eastern Arabia, a strip of Asia from Ceylon to the Arctic Ocean, Cape Colony, and portions of the interior and eastern coast of Africa, Western North America, including Behring's Straits and Smith's Sound, Central America, and the northern and eastern coast of South America, are in pink, being from twenty to thirty days' journey. Blue, or thirty to forty days' distance, is to be found on a considerable part of Siberia, the East Indies, the southern coast of China and western of Australia, the northern island of New Zealand, the Guinea coast and a strip nearly surrounding the interior of Africa, a part of British America and the west coast of South America, together with the territory adjacent to the Atlantic coast. The rest of the world is colored brown, as indicating more than forty days' journey, and includes the Chinese Empire, part of Siberia, nearly all Australia, Central Africa, the interior of Greenland, the northern coast of North America, and the interior of South America. The chart has been constructed with great labor from data furnished by the time-tables of the principal ocean steamship companies, information given by the "Postal Guide of the average time taken by the post to reach various places," and records of voyages. Mr. Galton believes that this "new principle" might be adopted in constructing maps for the convenience of travellers. Excursions of five or ten days might be planned by its means with tolerable accuracy and comparatively little trouble. It would be interesting to compare this chart with one prepared in the same manner to show the distance from London of the same places fifty years ago. Nothing would illustrate so vividly and at a glance the progress which has been made in the last half century in bringing men together.

—The Czar Alexander II. and President Garfield furnish the tragical element in the necrology of the year 1881, which in this respect is not likely soon to be equalled. The Imperial idea lost two eminent defenders in Beaconsfield and Drouyn de Lhuys, bossism its inventor, Fernando Wood. The Opposition has "gone over to the majority" in the persons of Émile de Girardin, Friedrich Hecker, Ruffini, Karl Heinzen, and Stephen Foster. Rio Branco, author of the Brazilian Emancipation Act of 1871; Count Giovanni Arrivabene, philanthropist and political economist; and Jules Armand Dufaure, make a small but select class of statesmen by themselves, with whom it is not illogical to connect J. G. Bluntschli and Wm. Beach Lawrence. The greatest name blotted out in literature was Carlyle. But other notable historians, like Duvergier de Hauranne, John Hill Burton, and J. G. Palfrey; the great lexicographer Littré; the philologist Benfey; the philosopher Lotze; the poets Dingelstedt, Cossa, and Lanier; James Spedding, the biographer of Bacon; Dean Stanley; Paul de Saint-Victor; William R. Greg; Mrs. S. C. Hall; with the publishers and booksellers Frederic Muller of Amsterdam, Joseph Sabin, and James T. Fields, have left large vacancies in the same ranks. Explorers like Weyprecht and Gessi Pasha; archæologists like Mariette Pasha, Ferdinand Keller, the pioneer in the Swiss lake-dwelling revelations, Benjamin Fillon, Samuel Sharpe, John F. M'Lennan, and Lewis H. Morgan; John Gould, the ornithologist; H. Sainte-Claire Deville, the chemist; Professor George Rolleston, the anthropologist; and F. A. Nobert, the maker of test-plates for microscopes, are some of the losses to science. Art enumerates Hugues Merle, Verboeckhoven, and Gustav Richter, painters; Samuel Palmer, etcher and water-colorist; and George Edmund Street, architect. Add, also, Henri Vieuxtemps, the violinist, and Sothern, the actor. Journalism can point to Francis A. Durivage, Dr. J. G. Holland, and Charles Hudson, the last its historian for this country. From the pulpit we miss Bishop E. O. Haven and Leonard Bacon, and from the professor's chair, J. Lewis Diman; from the list of educators, George B. Emerson. The men of action who went to their repose in 1881 were Admiral La Roncière le Noury; General Von der Tann; Generals Robert C. Patterson, Burnside, Crooke, Upton, and John C. Pemberton, of our civil war; and Colonel Thomas A. Scott, efficient both in peace and in war. Here, too, may be remembered William Ross Wallace, author of "The Sword of Bunker Hill" and of other popular lyrics, and Alfred B. Street, the poet of our lakes, forests, and aborigines. General Jo Lane, Henry Stanbery, and Matthew H. Carpenter stand for distinct phases in our political development.

—In the last two numbers of Prof. Dr. Friedrich Müller's 'Outlines of Linguistic Science,' just published in Vienna, grammatic sketches are given of thirty-eight languages and groups of dialects spoken by American Indians. All the methods and results of modern linguistic science are brought to bear on the subject, and the terms of all the languages have been reduced by the author to one phonetic system—that of Lepsius, also called the standard or the missionary alphabet. In view of the great difficulties to be surmounted, the author of this comprehensive work, which is nearly completed and will then embrace the best-known languages of the globe, has achieved a great advance when compared with the previous linguistic cyclopædias of Balbi and Maury, and with Adelung-Vater's 'Mithridates.' His principal difficulty was the critical examination of many dozens of old grammars, some incomplete, some hardly intelligible, and composed after the most antiquated methods. These old grammars generally pay no attention to one of the main features of a language—we mean, to phonetics. One of the linguistic fields in which Dr. Müller is thoroughly at home is that of the Malay-Melanesian-Polynesian languages, sketched in a previous number of the 'Outlines.' Here he shows that of the three groups of this family the Malayan, the nearest to the Asiatic continent, is also the most developed group, and has preserved the most ancient grammatic forms. The Eskimo and Ale-ut languages he unites into one class with four linguistic stocks of northeastern Asia, and calls it that of the "hyperborean races." As to the American languages, Dr. Müller refrains from giving any general characteristics applicable to them all. He is perfectly right in not doing so, for such characteristics do not exist, and it is time to banish the notion from all the books on the subject. Müller concurs with the late Prof. Buschmann's discovery of the affinity of the Shoshóni languages (Uta, Pa-Uta, Comanche, Moqui, Shoshóni proper) with those of the Nahuatl stock spoken in the Mexican States; in fact, those who still doubt this fundamental connection show that they have not read Buschmann, or have failed to understand his researches on the subject. The grammatic terms *animate* and *inanimate*, applied by Müller and others to certain forms of the verb and noun, are strictly applicable to certain American languages only, and by no means to all; in some, for instance, the names of birds and smaller animals follow the inanimate inflection, although they represent animate beings. In rendering a certain sound of the Maskóki dialects and of the Oregonian languages, Müller is wrong in using Pickering's *tχl*, for this sound is a linguo-dental, represented as *s* with a point underneath in Lepsius's standard alphabet. Müller's 'Outlines' and L. Adam's 'Sixteen Languages' exhibit the great progress made by Europeans in the study of the American tongues, and no student in the same field can dispense with reading these two representative treatises.

—Although the "arctic wave" predicted for the 28th of December did not make its appearance, the managers of Steinway Hall had made every preparation to receive it. The heat in the hall was so excessive, and so much of it must have been absorbed by the audience, that when they scattered after the concert the radiant heat would have sufficed to warm the whole city even in the midst of an arctic wave. Steinway Hall is a sufficiently aggravating place, owing to the shamefully inadequate "facilities" for exit, and it is not necessary to convert it into a Turkish bath besides. That it was possible, under such depressing circumstances, to give so fine a performance of the "Messiah" as the Oratorio Society, under the direction of Dr. Damrosch, gave, and that the audience had sufficient energy left to indulge in frequent and enthusiastic applause, must be largely ascribed to the esteem in which Handel's popular oratorio is held by the singers and the audience which assembled to hear it, and which, by the way, resembled in physiognomy a congregation much more than an ordinary concert audience. The annual performance of the "Messiah," in truth, must be regarded rather more in the light of a religious ceremony than a concert, so that one might almost question the propriety of criticising the manner in which the work was done. We may briefly say, however, that with the exception of some details, the chorus and orchestra did excellent work, and that the soloists were quite equal to their tasks. Miss Drasdil and Mr. Remmertz are so well known as accomplished oratorio singers that any praise of their voices or methods would be superfluous. Mr. A. L. King, the tenor, displayed a voice of fair quality, but lacking in expression and shading. Miss Hattie Louise Simms seemed a little nervous, which prevented her from doing herself and some of the sustained notes full justice. She has, however, an agreeable, pure, and well-trained voice, and an uncommonly distinct enunciation, which would qualify her for

the assumption of more dramatic rôles than are to be found in Handel's oratorios. Her efforts, like those of the other singers, were rewarded with cordial applause. It was noticeable that many of the seats were vacated before the end of the performance; and this leads us to add a few words regarding the propriety of constantly repeating the "Messiah," a work whose merits are greatly overrated in England and America in comparison with Handel's other oratorios and the incomparably grander works of Bach. There are some admirable arias in the "Messiah" and several superb choruses. But most of the choruses are massive rather than grand, and impose more by their sonority than the impressiveness of their musical ideas. The interminable roulades which adorn the music are, of course, a concession to the taste of the time in which they were written; but to a modern ear they are not only tedious, but often supremely ridiculous, as where, in the chorus "For unto us a child is born," the word born is spread over fifty-seven notes. No wonder that Handel did not succeed in opera and had to turn to oratorio. These remarks are not offered in a frivolous spirit, but from a selfish motive. They are intended as a corrective of the one-sided Handel worship at the expense of greater masters of sacred music. Handel is more superficial and at first sight more melodious than Bach, and hence his greater popularity among English-speaking people. If the "Messiah" in Christmas week is to be regarded as a religious ceremony, sanctioned by custom and popular approval, the Oratorio Society does well to repeat it every year or oftener. But if their work is to be judged from a purely musical point of view, they would deserve more credit for familiarizing the public with some of the glorious choral works of Bach, whose extraordinary wealth of ideas, richness of harmony and modulation, and skilful interweaving of melodious parts are a source of wonder and delight to the select few who have been initiated into their beauties.

JOWETT'S THUCYDIDES.—I.

Thucydides. Translated into English, with Introduction, Marginal Analysis, Notes, and Indices, by B. Jowett, M.A., Master of Balliol College, Regius Professor of Greek in the University of Oxford, etc. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.

"THUCYCIDES, an Athenian, wrote the War of Peloponnesians and the Athenians, as they warred against each other, beginning to write as soon as the War was on foot, with expectation it should prove a great one, and most worthy the relation of all that had been before it; conjecturing so much both from this, that they flourished on both sides in all manner of provision, and also because he saw the rest of Greece siding with the one or the other Faction; some then presently, and some intending so to do. For this was certainly the greatest Commotion that ever happened amongst the Grecians, reaching also to part of the Barbarians, and, a man may say, to most nations. For the Actions that preceded this, and those again that are yet more ancient, though the truth of them, through length of time, cannot by any means clearly be discovered; yet for any Argument that (looking into Times far past) I have yet light on to persuade me, I do not think they have been very great, either for matter of War or otherwise."

This is the language in which Hobbes translates the first chapter of Thucydides. Place side by side with it the rendering of the same passage by Professor Jowett:

"Thucydides, an Athenian, wrote the history of the war in which the Peloponnesians and the Athenians fought against one another. He began to write when they first took up arms, believing that it would be great and memorable above any previous war. For he argued that both states were then at the full height of their military power, and he saw the rest of the Hellenes either siding or intending to side with one or other of them. No movement ever stirred Hellas more deeply than this; it was shared by many of the Barbarians, and might be said even to affect the world at large. The character of the events which preceded, whether immediately or in more remote antiquity, owing to the lapse of time, cannot be made out with certainty. But, judging from the evidence which I am able to trust after most careful inquiry, I should imagine that former ages were not great either in their wars or in anything else."

Intelligent readers will find it well worth their while to study with care these two translations of the same original, for such a comparison brings clearly into light a matter which often escapes the attention of critics—namely, that the translator of a classical masterpiece such as the history of Thucydides must of necessity make choice between two ideals of translation: he may, on the one hand, hold that the main object to be attained is such a reproduction of the manner and language of the original author as may give to a person ignorant of Greek the same impression of Thucydides' mode of writing, of his mannerisms—in short, of his style—as is derived by a scholar from reading Thucydides in Greek. This is the object, whether aimed at consciously or not, which is to a singular extent attained by Hobbes. In the very passage quoted it were possible to point out some dubious renderings of the original, but it would be unfair to deny that the stiffness, the intricacy, even a certain confusion of language rather than of thought—for example, in the words "most worthy of relation of all that had been before it"—which perplex and bother the reader of Hobbes's English, are undoubtedly to be found in the Greek of Thucydides, and must assuredly perplex and bother the student who comes to them for the first time.

A translator may, on the other hand, hold that the true end of his work is to reproduce not so much the style as the thoughts and meaning of the original author. On such a view of translation, the end of the English translator of Thucydides is most fully reached when he has put before readers ignorant of Greek a clear, perspicuous, accurate—we may add readable—version of Thucydides such as the Athenian writer might, were he revived to life and endowed with perfect command of the English language, lay before the educated public of England or of America. If this be the true object of translation, Prof. Jowett has as nearly attained it as it can in the nature of things be attained. The passage before us gives every thought which Thucydides wished to put before his contemporaries, and, what is equally important, it does not convey any idea in addition to the thoughts which he intended to express. It further conveys the meaning of the Athenian historian in English as easy to be understood by Englishmen of the nineteenth century as was the Greek of Thucydides by the Athenians of his day. What the English of the Regius Professor of Greek does not exactly reproduce is the effect which the style of the Greek author undoubtedly makes on the mind of Englishmen who have to force out his meaning from the original Greek. We can quite believe that readers acquainted only with Prof. Jowett's version might describe Thucydides as a writer of an easy, flowing, lucid style. It is hard to believe that these terms would be applied to him, say, by students going in for examination at Oxford, and trembling lest they should be "put on" at the account of the Corcyrean Revolution.

We are most anxious to bring out the essential difference between Prof. Jowett's translation and the kind of translation of which Hobbes's work may stand as a type, both because the one apparently-plausible reproach which can be brought against a book which is a specimen of the very highest literary art, is the failure to reproduce the mannerism of Thucydides, and still more because we are convinced that the imputed defect is, if the true end and aim of translation be considered, one of the greatest merits of a work which one may fairly say is almost above praise. That this is so will, we suspect, be admitted by any one who will candidly consider what are the reasons which make it worth while in modern times for great scholars to consume years of labor in rendering the masterpieces of antiquity into modern English. What justifies, and more than justifies, the toil expended by scholars such as Prof. Jowett and other eminent men on the work of translation, is not the satisfaction given to idle ingenuity by turning the words of one language into the equivalent expressions of another, nor is it in modern times the necessity of making known through vernacular translations the contents of Greek or Latin books. Hundreds of persons can spell out for themselves with the help of a dictionary the sentences of Thucydides; thousands can make themselves acquainted with every fact of the Peloponnesian War by reading Grote or Thirlwall. Scholars might escape from the labors of translation if the only object of their work were to make known facts which are unknown; for any educated person can now, by the purchase of histories, manuals, or abridgments, learn for himself, at no great cost of trouble or expense, all the mere facts of the contest between Athens and Sparta. The justification and reward of scholastic toil in the effort to render ancient classics into English are the immense—the unspeakable—benefit conferred upon the so-called educated classes, of making them really and truly acquainted with the great literary monuments of the ancient world. It is one thing to know about Thucydides; it is quite another thing to know Thucydides himself. Now, if the aim of a translator be to make a classical author as truly accessible to English readers as, say, Carlyle, Gibbon, Motley, or Macaulay, this aim will of necessity regulate his whole conception of the right method of translation. In the case of certain authors, notably of all poets, a translator of genius will feel rather than argue that the reproduction of manner and style must of necessity be a primary consideration. The same remark applies, with certain reservations, to authors like Tacitus, in whose works one must fairly admit manner plays quite as great a part as the substance of their thoughts. A diffuse translation of Tacitus would not be Tacitus at all. In the case, on the other hand, of writers such as Thucydides, whose great thoughts and whose mode of thinking formed the very essence of their work, a translator who understands what he is about will assuredly feel that the first aim of translation is to render the thoughts and meaning of the original author, so that they may both be understood and read by the English public.

Moreover, the translator who makes the rendering of style subordinate to the lucid reproduction of meaning does, in the case of a writer like Thucydides, only sacrifice the letter for the sake of the spirit of accurate reproduction. Thucydides was not a mannerist; there is not the least reason for supposing that he aimed at writing in a way which seems strange, startling, or affected to his readers. In the later periods of Greek literature, as in modern times, the neglect or defiance of the rules of grammar would inevitably be a proof of a writer's deliberate affectation of peculiarity of style. But the apparent grammatical solecisms of Thucydides are not, in any true sense, violations of grammatical rules. A law which does not exist cannot be broken.

"The language of Thucydides presents a curious and interesting problem, because it be-

longs to a period when the uses of words and constructions were not yet fixed, and an original writer had much greater freedom in varying them than was possible in the Alexandrian times. . . . He who considers that Thucydides was a great genius writing in an ante-grammatical age, when logic was just beginning to be cultivated, who had thoughts far beyond his contemporaries, and who had great difficulty in the arrangement and expression of them, who is anxious but not always able to escape tautology, will not be surprised at his personifications, at his confusion of negatives and affirmatives, of consequence and antecedents, at his imperfect antitheses and involved parentheses, at his employment of the participle to express abstract ideas in the making, at his substitution of one construction for another, at his repetition of a word or unmeaning alteration of it for the sake of variety, at his over-logical form, at his forgetfulness of the beginning of a sentence before he arrives at the end of it. The solecisms or barbarisms of which he is supposed to be guilty are the natural phenomena of a language in a time of transition, and, though not always, as Poppo maintains, common to other Greek writers, yet having some analogy by which they may be defended. They are also to be ascribed to a strong individuality, which subtilizes, which rationalizes, which concentrates, which crowds the use of words, which thinks more than it can express."

The student who ponders upon this admirable description of the style of Thucydides will easily perceive that the pedantic attempt to reproduce all the peculiarities of the manner of Thucydides would have been in effect to sacrifice the substantial truthfulness of translation to the translator's credit for verbal ingenuity. Such a reproduction would have turned a writer who lived at an early stage of literary progress into a writer aiming at the deliberate affectation of style belonging to ages of mature literary development, or rather of impending literary decline.

Nor is a reference to the success of Hobbes in the imitation of the Thucydidean manner any plea for the use in modern times of a similar kind of imitation. Hobbes wrote in an age when English literature itself had not acquired an easy, clear style in the treatment of matters of thought or speculation. His 'History of Thucydides' was not to the readers of 1634 a book as unlike the style of the day as a translation of the like character would be to the readers of 1881. To put the matter plainly, each age must, within certain limits, translate classical writings not only into its own language, but into its own manner. No translation which is unreadable is really a good rendering of an author who has been read by generation after generation, and who will be read as long as the literature of the world endures. To have kept this constantly before his mind is one of the greatest merits of Prof. Jowett as a translator. He has felt that a fine translation of a classical masterpiece must itself be a work of high art, which ought to charm the English public in the same way in which they are charmed by the works of great modern writers. This end his translation achieves. To thousands, not only of those unacquainted with Greek, but of men supposed to have a fair acquaintance with the classical languages, Mr. Jowett has for the first time really opened Thucydides. They can now read and reread the funeral oration of Pericles, or the siege of Syracuse, as they can read Macaulay's description of the siege of Derry, or Carlyle's picture of the death of Louis the Fifteenth. They can now for the first time learn for themselves all that can be learned of the great crisis of Greek history, without the need of imbibing together with the statements of Thucydides the often misleading speculations or misguiding illustrations of even men as eminent as Arnold, Thirlwall, or Grote, Mr. Jowett has brought the educated classes of England and America face to face with the thoughts of the greatest historical genius of the ancient world. We may say something in another number on the lessons which Englishmen and Americans may learn from their Athenian teacher. It is enough for the moment if we press on every man and woman who, unacquainted with Greek, cares to understand Greek history, the wisdom of profiting to the utmost by the noble present which has been made to the whole English-speaking world by the labor, the learning, and the literary genius of the Regius Professor of Greek.

GOTTSCHALK'S TOUR IN THE UNITED STATES.

Notes of a Pianist. By Louis Moreau Gottschalk. Preceded by a biographical sketch with contemporaneous criticisms. Edited by his sister Clara Gottschalk. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 1881.

HEINE called himself the first poet of the nineteenth century, as having been the first born in it. For a similar reason, Gottschalk assumed the name of the first American pianist. Before him, he says, piano concerts were heard only when a famous artist came from Europe and attracted an audience by the celebrity of his name and the curiosity to see the lion. At the time when he himself first returned from Europe (1853) "the public listened with indifference; to interest it, it became necessary to strike it with astonishment; grand movements, *tours de force*, and noise had alone the privilege in piano music, not of pleasing, but of making it patient with it." But Gottschalk was not the man to be daunted by this state of affairs. He accommodated himself, to a certain extent, to the demands of the public, and if in so doing he partly sacrificed his artistic principles, he deserves credit, on the other hand, for the work of a pioneer who was frequently obliged to toil under circumstances as discouraging as those which beset the early settler, who has to convert a virgin forest into a wheat-field. In playing to an audience of Western roughs he was wise enough to ignore the classics and limit his programme to popular tunes or his own show-pieces, such as his 'Siége de Saragosse,' in which "there is a passage where Gottschalk in a most ingenious manner imitates a military parade, accompanied by the beating of the drum." But that Gottschalk was also capable of rendering compositions of a higher order in an artistic manner will be remembered by many who heard him play in our larger cities, and is also attested by the judgment passed on him by noted critics during his sojourn in France and other foreign countries. Berlioz, in the *Journal des Débats*, called him an accomplished musician, in possession of "all the different elements of the sovereign power of the pianist." "He has a perfect grace in his manner of expressing sweet melodies and of scattering the light passages from the top of the keyboard. As to prestesse, fugue, éclat, brio, originality, his playing strikes from the first, dazzles, astonishes; and the infantine simplicity of his smiling caprices, the charming ease with which he renders simple things, seem to belong to a second individuality, distinct from that which characterizes his thundering energies." Escudier, writing of his characteristic compositions, "Le Bananier," "Le Bamboula," "La Savane," and "Ossian," says that Gottschalk resembles no one, and is a pianist who has the prime merit of copying no other composer. Théophile Gautier admires him for the possession of that rare faculty, a distinct individuality, which he traces to the fact that "after having formed his talent by solid studies, he left it to wander carelessly in the fragrant savannas of his country, from which he has brought back to us the colors and perfumes" that equal in charm "the chants of the Muezzin and the reveries under the palms which Félicien David and Ernest Reyer have noted with their souvenirs of the East."

These criticisms were passed on Gottschalk when, at the age of twenty-two, he gave a series of concerts in France and Switzerland. He was born at New Orleans in 1829, and showed a strong inclination for music at the early age of seven. In 1842 his father sent him to Paris to continue his musical studies. His master in composition was Mr. Maleden, who also numbered Saint-Saëns among his pupils. It is of psychological interest to learn that at this period of his life he had a most remarkable memory for music, which enabled him to recollect hundreds of pages after a few days' study, while in literature, on the contrary, his memory was so defective that he had to invent a system of musical mnemotechny which he applied to history and geography. At the age of sixteen he gave his first public concert in Paris, on which occasion it is said that Chopin, in the artists' room, put his hand on the boy's head and said: "Donnez-moi la main, mon enfant; je vous prédis que vous serez le roi des pianistes." After his successful French and Swiss concerts, Gottschalk made a tour through Spain, where his reception was at first somewhat cool because the Queen was reported to have said that she would never patronize an American artist; on which account the nobility were reserved toward him. Soon, however, the tide turned, and the pianist was invited to play before the King and his family at a private soirée. The extraordinary favors shown him on this occasion excited the envy and hatred of the court pianist, who on a subsequent occasion endeavored to avenge himself by slamming a carriage door on his rival's fingers. The pain was so severe that Gottschalk fainted, and amputation of his little finger was at first considered necessary. Fortunately he objected to this, and the finger, recovering, subsequently became more powerful than it had been. After leaving Madrid, he visited other Spanish cities, where his triumphs were not diminished by the fact that the Queen had written to the authorities that he should be received with the greatest distinction. His glory culminated in the receipt of a letter, accompanied by a magnificent sword, from the famous bull-fighter Don José Redendo, in return for an invitation to one of his concerts.

After reaching this sublime height of terrestrial glory an ordinary mortal would have rested on his laurels. Not so Gottschalk. Early in 1853 he left Europe for America, which at that period was anything but a paradise for musicians, in spite of the extraordinary success of a few favored artists. His experiences in this country, from New York to San Francisco and from Panama to Rio Janeiro, where he died in 1869, are contained in the 'Notes' now under consideration. They cover a period of fifteen years, those relating to the years 1862-1863 being in the form of a diary. The letters written to his family, which will probably be published at some future day, will supply the lacuna found in the last year of his life. Miss Gottschalk declares that although numerous letters have been addressed to Gottschalk's friends in Rio, to his physician and his landlord, his family up to the present day know absolutely nothing about his last moments nor about the true cause of his death, although it is known that he had an attack of yellow fever four months before his death. Great trouble was also experienced in securing possession of his personal effects, his manuscripts and literary remains. After four years' delay, the trunk containing them was at last secured, but the papers it contained were so soiled and torn that Miss Gottschalk at first despaired of being able to arrange them and carry out her brother's "cherished

scheme of publishing his travels." It is fortunate that she rallied from her despair, for otherwise we should have been deprived of a book which is not only of interest on account of its simple but vivid descriptions of events in various countries, and its revelations of the tastes and characteristics of an original musician, but which will some day be of inestimable value as showing more clearly perhaps than any other record the attitude of various rude and semi-civilized communities toward music and virtuosity.

A desire for literary fame was not the only motive which induced Gottschalk to fix his impressions on paper. The horrible monotony of concerts, as he calls it, the invariable repetition of the same pieces, the daily round of railroad cars, isolation in the midst of the crowd, forced him, in order to avoid becoming brutalized and being converted into an automaton, to adopt the habit of making of his note-book a sort of mute confidant to whom he could entrust all his joys and sorrows. How much he needed such a confidant becomes apparent when we read of the reception accorded him in some of our extreme Western towns, which contrasted so vividly with his European experiences. The newspapers seemed to oppose his "invasions" frequently, and recommended only the patronizing of local concerts, "because the money then does not leave the locality." Being ill on one occasion for three days in a town in Nevada, and finding himself completely isolated and deserted, he gives vent to his feelings in these words:

"I defy your finding in the whole of Europe a village where an artist of reputation would find himself as isolated as I have been here. If, in place of playing the piano, of having composed two or three hundred pieces, of having given seven or eight thousand concerts, of having given to the poor one hundred or one hundred and fifty thousand dollars, of having been knighted twice, I had sold successfully for ten years quarters of salted hog, . . . my poor, isolated chamber would have been invaded by adorers and admirers."

He explains the worship of wealth in this country as due to a sort of gratitude to any man who has fixed in the country the capital which augments its prosperity. Even in San Francisco, the newspaper editors seemed to him ignorant of the elementary laws of politeness, inasmuch as of all whom he had invited to a supper at his hotel, after having paid them a personal visit, only two came, the others not even sending a note of excuse. The fact that at that period only the circus flourished in San Francisco, while concerts never succeeded—Ole Bull, Strakosch, and others having "left in confusion"—leads him to make some admirable remarks on the attitude of primitive communities toward his art:

"Music, of all the arts, is the last to implant itself, and only takes deep root in old civilized societies. It is too abstract, it appertains too much to the domain of thought and feeling, to flourish where the physical forces are in full activity. It is an art for idlers and dreamers. Neither the one nor the other is found among men who have to build houses to shelter themselves and who have to seek their food. The plastic arts are the first, after spoken poetry, which suggest themselves to the minds of primitive peoples."

It must not be inferred from this that Gottschalk's efforts were always and invariably unappreciated in the great West. On his departure from California, the admiration of his friends found expression in a fine gold medal with his initials set in diamonds, and other signs of appreciation were not wanting. In most of the smaller towns, however, he could not conceal from himself the fact that the usual audiences of one hundred or one hundred and fifty who paid their dollar, not knowing exactly what sort of a "show" or "panorama" they were going to see, were generally disappointed, and vowed to wreak their vengeance by ignoring the next pianist who might come along. Still, he could not help "remarking the propriety of conduct of these audiences, who, however wearisome our music must appear to them, submit to it without protest." Perhaps the majority of those who listened to him were as ignorant of music as the Indian of whom he tells an amusing story on page 369. This Indian had heard Gottschalk play "Hail, Columbia," and after he had left the room, examined the piano, which, to his astonishment, responded to his own touch. When Gottschalk returned he sat down at the piano, and with all the force of his arms began to beat the keys, calling out triumphantly, "You see, I never tried before, and I make more noise than he." At Zanesville he was greatly annoyed on one occasion by a charming young girl and her mamma, who occupied a front seat and passed the whole of the concert in watching his feet. Being ignorant of the use of the pedals, they apparently saw in his movements only a kind of queer trembling and odd and rudimentary steps in dancing which afforded them an inexhaustible source of amusement. We might cite many more of these characteristic anecdotes, but those here given will suffice to show that the 'Notes of a Pianist' contains much that is amusing as well as instructive. Gottschalk was able to converse fluently in five or six languages, but his notes and letters were written in French, the present volume being a translation by R. E. Peterson. His style is occasionally unpolished, but in general it has the merits of simplicity and directness. His descriptions betray close observation and an eye for the picturesque, while a poetic vein is revealed by such lines as these written near Dayton, Nevada:

"The mountains are brought so near that, seen from the height where we are, through this blue vapor, they seem to be the waves of an ocean which, by a magical effect, have become petrified in the midst of a tempest. The breeze, which blows softly, brings to us the thousand distant sounds from the deep valleys and high peaks. A bird, concealed at the bottom of the precipice, gives forth its monotonous song, composed of three notes, which it repeats without interruption."

LALOR'S ENCYCLOPÆDIA OF POLITICAL SCIENCE.

Encyclopædia of Political Science, Political Economy, and of the Political History of the United States. Edited by John J. Lalor. Vol. I. A–Dut. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.

THE editor of this work is known to the public as the translator of Von Holst's 'Political History of the United States' and of Roscher's 'Political Economy.' In the pursuit of his vocation as the introducer of important works in a foreign language to the English-speaking public he appears to have conceived the idea of compiling a cyclopædia of political science from the 'Staatswörterbuch' of Bluntschli and Brater, and the 'Dictionnaire Général de la Politique' of Maurice Block. This would have been a welcome addition to our storehouse of ready reference, seeing that we have no work in English corresponding to these except one volume of an unfinished 'Dictionary of Political Economy,' by H. D. Macleod. If this was Mr. Lalor's first intention, he has improved upon it by adding a large number of original articles by American, English, and Canadian writers, and by extending the scope of the work so as to include American political history within its range.

The body or groundwork of the first volume consists of articles translated from the two foreign works already mentioned, and from the 'Dictionnaire de l'Économie Politique' of Guillaumin and Coquelin. The original work embraces a large number of articles on American political history, by one writer (Mr. Alexander Johnston of Norwalk, Conn.), and articles on legal, political, economic, statistical, social, and administrative topics by persons of distinction or of special training. The high excellence and value of the works of Bluntschli and Block are so widely recognized as not to call for fresh commendation, and it only needs to be said that Mr. Lalor has made very judicious selections for the purpose of translation. The original matter is for the most part of equally high merit. It is not too much to say that the American contributors suffer nothing by comparison with the foreign writers whose articles are placed in juxtaposition with them. It will occur to the student that a much larger proportion of the work might have been equally well done at home, and that the whole would have been fresher and more entertaining in consequence. Nevertheless, we cannot withhold our warm commendation for the industry and discrimination of the editor and the enterprise of the publishers. The cyclopædia of which they have given us the first volume is a timely and valuable aid to political education. As a work of reference upon the subjects of which it treats it will prove especially serviceable to students, editors, and public speakers.

For the purpose of indicating the range of subjects treated, we shall confine ourselves to the original articles. Mr. Johnston, to whom has been confided the treatment of American political history, furnishes the articles on Abolitionists, *Alabama* Claims, Alien and Sedition Laws, American Party, Annexations, Bank Controversy, Compromises, Confederate States, Peace Conference, Constitution, Hartford Convention, Democratic-Republican Party, and Dred Scott Case, besides a large number of brief biographical notices of American statesmen. These, by the way, are so limited in the information which they contain that they might as well have been omitted altogether. A cyclopædia of political science need not be at the same time a biographical dictionary, but, if it essays that rôle, ought to furnish something more than the dates of birth, accession to office, and death or retirement of the persons whose names are introduced. Mr. David A. Wells furnishes two articles in his best style, one on the American Merchant Marine, and the other on Distilled Spirits as Subjects of Taxation. Mr. John Jay Knox, the Comptroller of the Currency, presents the subject of Banking in the United States with a thoroughness which leaves nothing to be desired. The subject of Banks and Banking is treated at great length by no less than seven writers. Mr. Edward Atkinson deals with the general functions of banks; Mr. John P. Townsend gives a history of the rise and growth of savings banks, with a considerable treatise on the principles of their administration, and Professor E. J. James, of Normal University, Ill., discusses banks of issue, his article being essentially an abridgment of the one in Bluntschli on that subject, with applications to the practice and requirements of the United States. It is worthy of notice that the writer gives his judgment in favor of the "banking principle," as applied to circulating notes, as distinguished from the "currency principle," upon which the Bank of England notes are based. The banking principle looks to bank capital and good business methods for the security and usefulness of circulating notes, while the currency principle looks to Government security. The discussion of this subject in Mr. James's article is very thorough. The subject of Bankruptcy is well presented by Judge Lowell, of Massachusetts.

Judge Cooley, of Michigan, furnishes articles

on the Bar and the Law of Corporations, and Mr. E. S. Isham has a paper on Corporations as Economic Forces. Judge Jameson, of Illinois, whose work on the Constitutional Convention is well known, writes an article on that subject. Mr. Dorman B. Eaton contributes articles on Civil-Service Reform, Civil Administration, and Confirmation by the Senate; Mr. F. W. Whitridge writes upon Political Assessments and the Caucus System, and Mr. Simon Sterne on Administration of American Cities. Professor Cliffe Leslie furnishes two interesting articles, one on Cost of Production and the other on Definitions in Political Economy; Mr. Horace White discusses Commercial Crises; Mr. Horatio Burchard, Coinage; Mr. H. D. Lloyd, the Clearing-House System; and Mr. Robert P. Porter, the subject of Public Debts. Mr. A. R. Spofford, the Librarian of Congress, furnishes articles on Academies, Budget, and Congress. The subject of Blockade is discussed by Professor Woolsey. Chinese Immigration is treated by Mr. Henry George in a moderate tone, from the standpoint of a Californian, and China itself is presented at considerable length by Professor W. E. Griffis, who also has an article on Corea. Original articles, moreover, are furnished on Aliens, Apportionment, Bill of Rights, Court Martial, Dominion of Canada, and a number of minor topics.

While the selection of subjects is generally well conceived, we find a few articles (some translated from foreign works) which are not worth the small space they fill, such as Abstention, Abuses in Politics, Acclamation, Barricade, Copperhead, Corporal's Guard. It is also a defect of the work that topics of foreign history are not always brought down to the present time. The article on Bolivia, for instance, does not mention the recent war with Chili, and the article on Chili merely mentions the war, but does not tell us what were its causes. The editor has probably labored under some disadvantages through insufficient personal acquaintance with professional men in the East, for although the major part of the original writing is furnished from this meridian, there still remains a large body of political science to draw from, which we shall hope to see represented in the two succeeding volumes. It would be wiser for the editor, and more remunerative to the publishers in the end, to make up the remaining volumes of original matter entirely, for which there is abundance of material within their reach.

RECENT NOVELS.

Dr. Breen's Practice. A Novel. By William D. Howells. Boston: James R. Osgood & Company. 1881.

The Giant Raft. Part 1. Eight Hundred Leagues on the Amazon. By Jules Verne. Translated by W. J. Gordon. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1881.

A Laodicean; or, The Castle of the De Stancys. A Tale of To-day. By Thomas Hardy. [Franklin Square Library.] New York: Harper & Bros. Also, Henry Holt & Co.

Kith and Kin. By Jessie Fothergill. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

Severa. From the German of E. Hartner. Translated by Mrs. A. L. Wister. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

'Dr. Breen's Practice' is a novel of New England life, in which Mr. Howells shows his usual skill and humor, and more than an ordinary amount of ingenuity as well. The plot is founded on an idea which has, so far as we know, not been utilized in fiction before. Dr. Grace Breen is a young New England girl, who represents what Mr. Howells seems to consider the modern form of Puritanism, this ancient faith taking in her a moral rather than a religious form, and making her conscience sensitive as regards all her relations with her fellow-creatures to a degree unknown in parts of the world unaffected by Puritan traditions. The scene of the story is laid in a seaside "resort" known as "Jocelyn's," where may be found the usual New England summer boarding-house, with its visitors from all quarters. Grace Breen having had some years before an unfortunate love affair, in which she had been badly treated by her lover, has adopted the practice of medicine, much as other women enter convents or go out as missionaries—though Mr. Howells intimates that this is putting the case in rather an exaggerated way; but at any rate, she has chosen this work with the intention of giving her life to it and supporting herself by it. Its study has cost her sensitive nerves a good deal of suffering, and many of its details are almost insuperably repugnant to her. She has studied medicine in New York, and appears at the opening of the novel as a graduate of a homœopathic medical college. It should be stated, however, that this unfeminine professional self-devotion has been far from unsexing the devotee, who is, notwithstanding her occupation, simply a charming girl, by no means disqualified by her first love affair from having a second one. With her, at "Jocelyn's," is also staying Mrs. George Maynard, a Western woman, who had been befriended at school by Grace, and whose relations with her husband are, at the opening of the story, involved in some mystery. According to her own account, she has been so ill-treated by him that a divorce is absolutely necessary, and perhaps independently of this she looks upon divorce rather more in the light of a natural consequence of marriage than her friend Grace does.

Mr. Maynard is on a ranch in Wyoming, and matters being in this situation, there appears at "Jocelyn's" a young friend of both husband and wife, a Mr. Walter Libby, who immediately falls in love with Grace, while Grace imagines him to be desirous of setting on foot a flirtation with Mrs. Maynard. Libby proposes a sail to Mrs. Maynard, chiefly for the purpose of getting Grace to go also, she neither wishing to go herself nor to have her friend go. Her unwillingness to consent to the expedition leads her to tell the young man that Mrs. Maynard, who is an invalid and who has put herself under Grace's care, ought not to go, because the sea air will do her no good. This subterfuge she does not resort to without a twinge of her Puritan conscience. Libby, who is far more anxious to please her than to take his friend's wife out at all, immediately goes off and returns with the suggestion that his skipper thinks that the wind may become pretty fresh before they get back. Grace, perceiving the drift of this, and refusing to take part in the prevention of the scheme, now insists that Mrs. Maynard shall sail, and that she will take the risk of any harm from bad weather. It will be seen from this that the extraordinary delicacy of her conscience is somewhat tinged with the peculiarities of her sex, and that it is distinctly an illogical conscience. The wind, singularly enough, does become pretty fresh. Mrs. Maynard and Libby are wrecked and Mrs. Maynard barely rescued from drowning.

This result of Grace's insisting upon the sail makes her peculiarly contrite and self-reproachful, and the bitterness of her remorse is increased by the fact that Mrs. Maynard becomes more and more ill. The confidence which the invalid felt in her woman physician so long as her ailments were trifling disappears when they become serious, and Dr. Breen begins to feel that although she is competent to treat the case, the patient herself has not sufficient trust in her to make it advisable that she should continue alone in it. Mrs. Maynard, in fact, strongly intimates the feeling which most women have about doctors of their own sex, and this of course causes new and more serious twinges of conscience in Grace's tender heart. She finally determines that she will call in a certain Dr. Mulbridge from a neighboring town for a consultation. Dr. Mulbridge represents that peculiar New England type—a well-educated but rough and uncouth village physician, cynical with a sordid cynicism hardly known out of New England, practical, intelligent, ambitious, and selfish. He is a man of great force of will, and no sooner sees Grace Breen than he determines to make her his wife. Their first interview, however, is of a professional character, for learning that she represents the homœopathic schism, he informs her that as a regular practitioner he cannot possibly consult with her. As a physician, it is somewhat surprising that the heroine should not have known this in advance, but she did not, and his refusal is one humiliation the more. The necessity of some other physician being called in determines her in the end to turn over Mrs. Maynard to Dr. Mulbridge and to sink herself to the humble level of nurse. In the end, after first rejecting Libby she accepts him, or rather she makes him come back by a very distinct avowal of the fact that she had mistaken her feeling for him, while Dr. Mulbridge, who proposes marriage to her about the same time, is sent about his business; and the reader feels that he ought to be. George Maynard is summoned back from the West and becomes reconciled to his wife, whose illness effects a change in her character for the better. Grace at length marries Libby, and finds a field for self-sacrifice and altruistic efforts in the care of the children among her husband's operatives.

Jules Verne, to judge from his present story, has exhausted his resources in the way of fiction, and fallen back on geography and natural history. He has shown a tendency in this direction for some time, but in none of his previous books has so large a proportion of space been occupied by description and information of an encyclopædic kind. The story contained in the 'Giant Raft' is extremely slight. Torres, an adventurer and a bad man, has come into possession in some way of papers very damaging to the reputation of one Joam Jarral, a good man. The papers, in fact, contain conclusive proof of the commission by him of a murder, of which in reality he is entirely innocent. Torres tracks him down for the purpose of making what he can out of his proofs, and when the critical moment arrives insists on Jarral's giving his daughter in marriage in return for his silence. This daughter is engaged to be married to the hero of the tale, and the whole party are going down the Amazon on a raft built by Jarral. The object of the voyage is that the marriage of the daughter and her lover may come off as soon as possible, and the first part of the story closes with the arrest of the innocent Jarral, at the instigation of Torres, the one person who is able to prove his innocence of the charge having just died of apoplexy. It is impossible, even with the most grateful recollection of the amusement derived from Jules Verne's earlier stories, to say that the 'Giant Raft' will be found entertaining. If all the facts contained in it with regard to the flora and fauna of the valley of the Amazon, its physical conformation, and the customs of its inhabitants are true, the book might be used for purposes of reference or as a travellers' guide; but we believe M. Jules Verne has never cultivated that accuracy in matters of science which would tend to make his novels works of authority, and we can only regret his apparent involuntary lapse from his real vocation as a writer of ingenious if improbable fiction.

Mr. Hardy's novel opens with a curious scene

in a Baptist chapel in an English village, of which George Somerset, a young architect, is an accidental witness. On a platform at the end of the chapel an ascetic-looking middle-aged minister stands reading a chapter. Between the minister and the congregation, assembled evidently for some other than ordinary purpose, is an open space in the floor in which is sunk a tank full of water, reflecting the lights (for it is evening) overhead. The people, quietly seated, are evidently waiting for some event to take place. A brougham drives up to the side door, and a lady in half mourning alights, followed by a companion carrying wraps. They enter the vestry room of the chapel, and the door is shut. The service goes on until at a certain moment the door between the vestry and the chapel is opened, and the lady of the brougham comes out clothed in baptismal robes of white. Somerset cannot see her face, but observes she is rather tall than otherwise, and is a girl in the heyday of youth and beauty. She stands upon the brink of the pool and the minister descends the steps at its edge. The candidate for ecclesiastical honors, however, does not follow him; instead of doing so she remains at the brink. He stretches out his hand, but still she shows reluctance, till finally, in a voice audible to all near by, he says, "You will descend?" She approaches the edge, looks into the water, but gently turns away. Somerset then for the first time sees her face, which, like most heroines' faces in modern novels, is described as being, though imperfect, very attractive. It is one which makes the spectator think "that the best in womankind no less than the best in psalm tunes had gone over to the Dissenters." She does not, however, look like a Dissenter, for there is something in her face suggesting that she has had experience of things far outside the circumscribed horizon of dissent. In fact, she might be a thoroughly secular girl, accidentally placed in entirely uncongenial religious surroundings. She has, it seems, agreed to be baptized according to the forms of the church, at her father's dying request, but at the last moment she repents, and, notwithstanding the expostulations of the minister, declines to comply. The minister turns to the congregation, and declares that the baptism is postponed, upon which she withdraws from the church. The lady is Miss Paula Power, daughter of the great railroad contractor of that name, and inheritor of the castle of the De Stancys, around which Mr. Hardy's tale centres.

Mr. Hardy is an ingenious novelist, and by this opening scene, and by applying the term "Laodicean" to his heroine, he has managed to convey to the mind of the reader a subtle doubt with regard to her character which pervades the book almost to the end. Somerset falls in love with her and in the end marries her, but the obstacles thrown in the way of this termination are very numerous. The ancient house of De Stancy is represented by Sir William De Stancy, his daughter Charlotte, who is the intimate friend of the heroine, and his son, Captain De Stancy. Miss Power has unlimited wealth, and an æsthetic taste which her Baptist surroundings have never yet permitted her to gratify. She determines to restore Stancy Castle, and, forming the acquaintance of Somerset, wishes to make him her architect. There is, however, another professional gentleman in the field named Havill, a man of inferior education and taste, but who has stood in confidential relations with Miss Power's father. Out of a feeling of professional delicacy, Somerset suggests that Havill and himself shall compete for the work; that both shall draw designs for the restoration, which shall be submitted to some competent authority, and that the successful competitor shall carry off the prize. To this Miss Power consents, but meanwhile Somerset is installed at the castle for the purpose of making drawings and studies. The villain of the piece, a young man named Dare, now appears on the scene, and for purposes of his own enters into an unholy alliance with Havill in order to beat Somerset in the competition. With this end in view, Dare surreptitiously makes copies of Somerset's sketches, and the result of this is that both plans are pronounced equal in merit. Miss Power of course, under these circumstances, selects Somerset as her architect.

Meanwhile the plot thickens; for it appears that Dare is the illegitimate son of Captain De Stancy, and has formed the design of arranging a marriage between his father and Miss Power, his father being an extremely susceptible person who has only to be exposed to the influence of female beauty to lose his heart and head. The wicked Dare induces the Captain, a weak, amiable man, completely in his son's power, to make a critical examination of Miss Power through an opening of the wall of a gymnasium, where she is in the habit of indulging in somewhat picturesque athletic exercises. There is every reason in the world for regarding an alliance between the fallen De Stancys and the heiress of the deceased contractor as an excellent match, and there is something in the idea which is agreeable to Miss Power herself, as her lack of family rather rankles in her mind. To carry out his design Dare sets on foot all sorts of machinations against Somerset, and succeeds with devilish ingenuity in making Miss Power believe that he is not only a gambler and a drunkard, but that he has gone to the length of having a photograph taken representing him in a disgusting state of intoxication, the fact being that Dare, understanding the secrets of photography, has made a caricature photograph of the unfortunate man for the purpose of furthering his dastardly plot. Disgusted with her lover, Miss Power (who does not at all dislike De Stancy) agrees to marry him, and the day is fixed for the wedding. The marriage does not come off, however, for on the day appointed for it Dare's depravity comes to Miss Power's knowledge, and while in the very act of preparing for the ceremony she learns that she has been grossly deceived. Not knowing the relation between Dare and De Stancy, she insists on the former's immediate arrest, upon which De Stancy, to save his son, is obliged to confess the relationship between them. The marriage is broken off. Miss Power's feeling for Somerset has now reached a point far removed from the Laodicean mean of lukewarmness, and she determines to right the wrong she has done by hunting him up and confessing her error. Her pursuit of him is attended with some difficulties, but reconciliation, it is hardly necessary to say, is in the end complete. At the last moment, the old castle, which has been the scene of much of the story, and has seemed to exist as a sort of gloomy fate overhanging the fortunes of the lovers, is burned to the ground by the incendiary hand of Dare, leaving Somerset and his wife to begin their new life freed from the mouldy associations of the past.

Jessie Fothergill has tried a higher flight in 'Kith and Kin' than in any of her previous works. The duty of filial devotion, and the merit of total self-sacrifice to save a mother's honor, form a noble subject; but to work it out adequately requires a larger knowledge of the world, a clearer judgment of the value of motives and results than the author possesses. So that the total effect of the book is something like that of a grand theme in music rendered by thin voices. Judith Conisbrough refuses the reparation which her cousin Bernard Aglionby is eager to make to her family for the loss of the fortune which they have expected from their grandfather. She refuses because she knows that the will was an old man's tardy repentance for neglect of Bernard, the only son of his only son, disinherited but afterward bitterly mourned. She believes, too, that her mother had prevented a reconciliation with the young widow, Bernard's mother, by a double and deliberate deception. So Judith bears poverty, everything, rather than receive one penny from her cousin, and later refuses his love, as does her sister that of her suitor, lest they shall expose their mother's sin or bring the disgrace of it upon the men they love. Years pass, till just before death, already warned of fatal malady, the mother confesses to Bernard her falsehood, but excuses herself as deceived and angered by the old man himself. The confession sweeps away all obstacles, and the book closes with the happiness of all the four. But such a conclusion presents difficulties. If Mrs. Conisbrough's course of action, after all, was not dishonorable, then the long misery endured by the daughters was futile. Their scruples about marriage were only overwrought sensitiveness. It might be said they did not know the whole story. So much the more, then, should they have shown their loyalty to their mother by believing in her, not by doubting her, and the reader still feels his sympathy wasted. On the other hand, if the sin were indeed so dreadful, so shameful, as the daughters' agony would make it appear, what manner of men are these who pass it over so lightly? There is another discrepancy between conception and execution in the plot within the plot—the story of Bernard's first love. His faithfulness to Lizzie Vane, to whom he had been betrothed in his earlier humble life as a city clerk, until her preference is shown for a man more her equal, is well given. But Lizzie Vane herself, who is meant to be very pretty and only very silly, is made so vulgarly inane that the mere sight of her lowers one's respect for Bernard. Too often the portraiture of character is marred by a pettiness of spirit in details or comparisons. Bernard's first sight of his inheritance, his first sense of possession, is strangely belittled: "The view before him struck with a strange thrill upon him—a thrill half pleasure, half pain. . . . To him it was more—it was a revelation. . . . It was as wonderful to him, and certainly quite as agreeable, as her first ball to a girl of seventeen who has been brought up in strict seclusion."

'Severa' is a new though not very original version of the old story of the guardian who marries his ward. This time she is the daughter of his first love, who deserted him for an actor. There is a very beautiful young widow who would work mischief if she could. But why are such women made such *obvious* schemers? It is too much to expect admiration for a hero who can be even for a day the victim of such transparent wiles. The merit of Mrs. Wister's translations is so well known that it is a surprise to find such mistakes as, the "enormity" of a debt; "defiant" for mistrustful. "One fell in the fight for freedom," means anywhere and any time, whereas the "War of Deliverance" is as definitely accepted a phrase in English for the struggle against Napoleon in 1813–15, as "Freiheitskampf" is in German.

An Essay on the History of English Church Architecture, prior to the Separation of England from the Roman Obedience. By George Gilbert Scott, F. S. A. With numerous illustrations. New York: Scribner & Welford. 1881.

THIS important and scholarly work, by a son of the late Sir Gilbert Scott, is an attempt to show how the Christian architecture of England, from

the earliest times to the end of the fifteenth century, is a continuous and orderly evolution, having its spirit in the history of Christianity itself, and its form in the internal and external conditions of society. The author treats the subject as an essential part of the great fact of Christianity, and, unlike other historians in this branch of inquiry, is not content to begin his story abruptly with the Saxon Domination, but shows the natural effect of traditions from the earliest forms of the Church in Asia Minor and ancient Rome. These relations are traced with curious and patient research, and the later and more glorious developments of the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries are illustrated with an animation of description, a boldness and ingenuity of speculation, and a fertility of knowledge rare to meet with in works of this character. Much of the book necessarily traverses well-worn paths; but no student, however versed in the literature of the subject, can fail to notice in the presentation even of the most familiar facts a freshness of method at once interesting and instructive. The discursus upon ecclesiology and its effect upon the distribution of churches is perhaps the most valuable part of the book. On the whole, we commend it as the most noticeable contribution yet made by an Englishman to this important branch of archæology. The style of it is lucid, and not without good literary form; but even in this brief notice we cannot avoid condemning the singular affectation of Gallicism in the use of small initial letters in such phrases, as "the irish churches," "the saxon period," "the roman domination," etc.

My Boy and I; or, On the Road to Slumberland. By Mary D. Brine. New York: George W. Harlan. 1881.

THE incongruities of this volume are too annoying to be passed by without a word. A number of poems, all on the fertile theme of a mother's love for her baby boy, have been printed in sepia with black-letter type, on loose leaves of tinted paper. Several pages of "process" reproductions of curiously chaotic inscriptions and sketches, mingling carelessly imitated antique letters with fragments from a sketch-book and a tangle of Blake-like lines, have been sandwiched between these poems. The whole, not forgetting a song with music, has been bound to its flexible covers of Russia leather by hanks of floss silk. The studied rudeness of the exterior decoration, combining the ecclesiastical and the Japanese; the obtrusiveness of the quaintly accidental and the weird element in the illustrations; the discord between type and text; the lavish luxury of material and workmanship, prove that the intention of the volume is to cater to a hyperæsthetic taste which demands novelty with dyspeptic impatience. Whatever merit there may be in the poems is swamped by the unsympathetic medium through which they are presented to the reader. The book will have success as a seasonable novelty. As an artistic production it is not likely to add to the reputation of Louis C. Tiffany & Company, Associated Artists, who are responsible for its arrangement.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

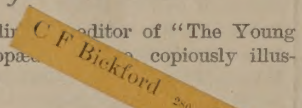
Bainbridge, W. F. Around the World Tour of Christian Missions. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $2.
Bainbridge, Lucy S. Round the World Letters. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.
Eaton, D. B. Civil Service in Great Britain. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.
Gebhardt, O. von. Novum Testamentum: græce recensionis Tischendorfianæ ultimæ textum. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Hoyt, J. T. Mechanics' Liens: How Acquired and Enforced. New York: P. F. McBrean.
Hoyt, J. K., and Ward, Anna L. The Cyclopædia of Practical Quotations. New York: I. K. Funk & Co.
Lippincott's Magazine, vol. xxviii., 1881. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $2.
Nimmo, J., jr. Report on the Internal Commerce of the United States. Submitted July 1, 1881. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Nisbet, E. The Science of the Day and Genesis. New York: W. B. Smith & Co.

Greece and Rome.

Their Life and Art. By Jacob Von Falke, Director of the Imperial Museum of Berlin. 4to, superbly illustrated, $15.

Young Folks' History of the War for the Union.

By John Champlin [illegible], editor of "The Young Folks' Cyclopæ[illegible]" copiously illustrated, $2 75.



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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 12, 1882.

The Week.

No Speaker of the House of Representatives has ever succeeded in pleasing everybody in the formation of the standing committees. But Mr. Keifer has certainly been more successful than any one of his predecessors that we can remember in decidedly displeasing a large majority of the House over which he presides. While the grumbling of personal disappointment is always heard after the announcement of the committees, there has never been more pointed and more well-founded criticism of a Speaker's action than there is now. The fact is that Mr. Keifer, in making up the committees, has regarded neither the peculiar fitness of certain members for certain duties, nor the courtesies of the House, nor those valuable and time-honored traditions according to which a regular promotion of the older members on the committees takes place. While omitting to make several assignments demanded by every consideration of propriety as well as public interest, he has made others of a decidedly improper character. The composition of the Ways and Means Committee, and of the committees on the Navy and on Naval Expenditures, are of that kind; likewise the treatment of Mr. Kasson, and of some prominent members of the minority, who, in a long course of public service, had acquired certain specific knowledge and experience which would have been of great value in the discussion in the committees of some of the most important questions coming before Congress. Not only the members of the House of Representatives are dissatisfied with the Speaker's work, but the people at large have reason to be so too.

It is no wonder, therefore, that the general discontent should have found a voice in an open protest on the floor of the House, and whatever may be thought of the personal merits or demerits of Mr. Orth, his complaint of unfair treatment will be generally regarded as well founded, and his proposition that henceforth the composition of the committees shall be effected by the House of Representatives itself, instead of being left to the arbitrary discretion of the Speaker, will receive very serious consideration. There never has been any valid reason why so immense a power as the formation of the committees, and thereby an almost decisive influence upon the legislative action of the House, should be entrusted to one man instead of being exercised by the House itself. At first sight it might be thought that the House is too unwieldy a body to accomplish so delicate a task; but in point of fact it is done in the Senate, and the machinery employed there for its accomplishment would work with equal smoothness in a larger body. This machinery is very simple. The members of the majority meet in caucus and appoint a small committee in which all the different shades of the majority are properly represented. That committee is charged with the duty of preparing a list of the standing committees of the Senate. While preparing this list the committee is accessible to the advice of individual members. It may also consult the minority as to their wishes. When the list is prepared it is reported to the full caucus, and then either accepted as it stands or amended as the caucus may see fit. On the whole, the Committees of the Senate, so formed, give general satisfaction, and there seems to be no reason why the system in which they are made up should not work as well in a body of three hundred as of seventy or eighty members.

The Mormon literature, if we may call it so, grows in volume every day, and will apparently have reached huge proportions by the time Congress comes to deal with polygamy. The *Christian Union* publishes a vigorous unfinished article on the subject from the pen of the late Dr. Bacon, of New Haven, but he did not get further in the way of suggestion than recommending the substitution of absolute for popular government of the Territory of Utah. An illustration at the close seemed to indicate that he meant to argue in favor of treating polygamy as adultery simply, and making adultery a penal offence; and the *Christian Union*, in pointing this out, asks for the treatment of adultery as a crime by all State legislation—the absence of which it considers a serious defect in "our Anglo-Saxon legislation." It overlooks the fact that adultery is treated as a crime in some States—Massachusetts for instance; but even there prosecutions for it are very rare, although the offence is probably frequent enough. The reason is that it is extremely difficult of proof, even when the husband or wife is eager to prove it, almost impossible when both are determined, as they would be in Utah, to cover it up. It may now be said that thus far public opinion does not go further than asking for the absolute or nearly absolute government of the Territory by United States officers. This is undoubtedly a necessary beginning of any national action against Mormonism, but we are now ready for some account, from those who are familiar with the condition of the Territory and with Mormon habits, of the precise mode in which polygamous households should be broken up, supposing that monogamists have obtained from Congress all the legislation they desire. On this point few except those who live in the Territory can speak with authority. On one matter—and this the most important of all—the feelings of the Mormon women about "the peculiar institution," the rest of the country is still strangely ignorant.

The plan of solving the Mormon problem by dividing the Territory of Utah between the adjoining State and Territories, brought out in the *Herald* despatches on Friday morning, would be a very good one if the result would necessarily be to leave the annexed Mormons in a minority in each community. The division of the Territory, however, while it would wipe out Utah, would by no means wipe out the Mormons, or deprive them of their right of locomotion; and even if they were at the outset in a minority in each annexing community, there would be nothing to prevent their moving into any one of them in sufficient numbers to swamp the Gentiles completely, and thus start the "Mormon problem" over again in a new place. Wyoming, for instance, has a population of only 20,000 (partly Mormon already), while there are over 100,000 Mormons in Utah. The Territory of Wyoming is to a small extent adapted to agriculture, and, in fact, it is for this reason that the Mormons have emigrated into it already. The geographical details of the scheme as they appear in the *Herald* are, by the way, a trifle "mixed." Montana is mentioned as one of the Territories which is to have a part of Utah, but as the nearest part of Montana is a hundred and twenty miles away, and the Territories of Wyoming and Idaho intervene, no such bad luck can happen to that innocent monogamous community.

The letter of the late Postmaster-General James to the President, showing that it was impossible without further legislation to exclude from competition for postal contracts men who had already imposed bogus bonds upon the Government, was sent to Congress on the 6th of January. The letting of a number of contracts was fixed for the 7th. We learn from the New York *Times*, that on the very day that some of the dealers in these straw bonds were arrested, they "were very busy completing bids for Star service to be filed in the Post-office Department before 3 o'clock in the afternoon." The fraudulent proceedings in making Government contracts, and the impossibility not only of putting a stop to them but even of preventing their continuous repetition by the same men, have long been familiar. Now that the practices have been made so conspicuously ridiculous in these Star-route cases, perhaps the system will be overhauled. Mr. James's letter reached Congress too late to protect the Government in the letting of January 7; but with its facts before them, and in view of Saturday's performances, Senators and Representatives ought not to allow another letting to take place without giving the department power to exclude notorious swindlers from competition.

It is now said, apparently with authority, that the reply of the British Government to Mr. Blaine's second despatch on the subject of the Panama Canal will be that it does not approve the modifications suggested in the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. The negotiations thus far may therefore be summarized as follows: The United States—We propose to take care of the Panama Canal ourselves. Great Britain—You can't, because you have agreed already to let us take care of it with you. The United States—You refer to the Clayton-Bulwer agreement; we will modify it. Great Britain—We won't do anything of the kind. This last reply must be explained by the

unfortunate tone of Mr. Blaine's despatch, his minatory references to the irresistible power of the United States, and the undiplomatic character of his arguments. A conciliatory despatch would have opened the way to further correspondence; but Mr. Blaine left nothing open to England except to say yes or no. There is no way to get rid of the obligations of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty now except to declare the convention entirely obsolete and withdraw from it, on the ground that the treaty contemplated the immediate digging of the canal, that thirty years have elapsed without anything being done, that the relations of the United States to the subject have entirely changed, and that all negotiations to secure a general guarantee of neutrality have broken down.

The House Committee on Foreign Affairs has, it is said, begun an investigation into the diplomatic negotiations with regard to the Peruvian troubles, and there is a general desire that the State Department shall produce the whole correspondence. Friends of Mr. Blaine believe that it will show that Mr. Hurlbut not only transgressed instructions, but that he entered into various speculations of an improper character. On the other hand, Mr. Hurlbut's friends "claim" that he did nothing but obey instructions, and that the trouble was that Mr. Blaine first ordered him to support the demands of the Peruvian Company, and later to do nothing at all about the matter. The Peruvian Company, too, thinks that it was badly treated and left in the lurch. According to the *Herald* despatches, "there is no doubt that somebody in authority" attempted to coerce Chili and persuade Peru into a recognition of the Cochet and Landreau claims; that this was done at a time when Peru was prostrated and impoverished, and when the Peruvians were ready to recognize any claims, however monstrous or groundless, if in return they could be assured of the intervention of the United States in their favor against Chili; and that this country was made to play an extremely despicable part in South America, figuring as the agent of claims which Peru had repeatedly rejected as worthless, and which there is no pretence that she would have acknowledged except as payment for our getting Chili off her back." If any such person exists except in the imagination of the various parties to the present somewhat complicated controversy, he ought to be identified and exposed.

The humors of Western life are numerous and varied, and they appear to grow more so. A few weeks since an insolvent banker was held for ten days in the custody of a mob in Kansas, with the penalty of death hanging over him, in order to compel him to make a complete surrender of his assets, and the details of the negotiations between him and his captors were telegraphed to all parts of the Union and read with much interest by the public, and particularly, doubtless, by the Governor of the State. Last week the citizens of Kentucky assembled in thousands along the banks of the Ohio River to witness the very diverting spectacle of the sheriff and his posse, with prisoners in custody, flying on board one steamer from a mob pursuing in another. The chase, like most stern chases, was a long one, covering ninety miles in all, and the occasion seems to have been highly enjoyed by the crowd, who were summoned by telegraph to see the boats go by. The prisoners were guilty of a very atrocious crime, and the mob came into the town of Ashland ostensibly to see that they had a fair trial, and were much disgusted when they found that the local judges and the sheriff had no confidence in their desire for orderly and just procedure. In passing any national bankruptcy law the Kansas system merits attention. The defect in all bankruptcy legislation is that the penalties and processes provided by it to procure the surrender of the bankrupt's estate are insufficient. There can hardly be a doubt, that if the creditors were permitted to take him into custody and examine him with a rope round his neck, dividends would be much increased.

Elderly Southerners who are in the habit of groaning over the disappearance of the good old times when an insult always led to a fight, must be greatly disgusted with the pacific manner in which the trouble between Mr. Blackburn and General Burbridge seems likely to end. There does not appear to be the remotest chance of a duel, and this is not for lack of language calculated to lead to one, either. In his letter of December 27, Mr. Blackburn said that he had never spoken unkindly of any United States officer, "unless his acts put him beyond the pale of civilized warfare, in the twilight of barbarism, or worse, in the domains of actual crime." In reply to this General Burbridge has written to say that he is not such an officer at all, and that he can prove it by documentary evidence; and that while in Kentucky the only connection he had with the twilight of barbarism or the domains of crime was to punish any outlaws found at large in them. General Burbridge also thinks that Mr. Blackburn ought to have had something to say with regard to "the attempted introduction of clothing infected with the yellow fever into the Northern cities during the war." We venture to predict that Mr. Blackburn will regard this as wholly irrelevant. He has a voice of great carrying power, which he uses to good effect in the House of Representatives, but he seems a peaceable man.

The *Tribune* repeats with much positiveness the story that the Judge-Advocate-General proposes to set aside the finding of the court-martial in the Whittaker case, on the ground that the evidence does not sustain it. It is quite proper, considering the way in which ordinary court-martials are made up, that the President, or Commander-in-Chief, should have the power of overruling their decisions. But the court-martial which tried Whittaker was not an ordinary court-martial. It was a carefully selected one, composed of officers believed to be free from bias either about West Point or colored people, and unusually competent to conduct a judicial inquiry; and the object of so selecting it was to satisfy the public that, whatever disposition was made of the case, it would be one worthy of confidence. If the Judge-Advocate-General, who did not hear the evidence (which included Whittaker's own story), should now set aside the decision, it would show that in his opinion he was competent to try the case in the beginning, and that his judgment, formed in Washington, would have satisfied the public, and that the money spent on the court-martial was wasted—all of which, we venture to say, would be a great mistake. A touch of the comic is given to the story by the assertion that he "deals plainly and fearlessly with the causes which led to the ostracism of Whittaker at the Military Academy," and "has not refrained from criticism of General Schofield's report." But then these things do not affect in any degree the authority of the court-martial. None of its members were at West Point when Whittaker was ostracized, and they were chosen as persons not likely to share General Schofield's opinions. The investigation has left some of the enemies of the Military Academy in a somewhat ridiculous position, but General Swaim should not help them to escape from it by anything which seems to bring judicial proceedings into contempt.

A case of much interest to journalists and proprietors of newspapers was decided last month in San Francisco. It was a libel suit brought by the proprietor of the *Evening Bulletin* and *Morning Call*, "both dailies," against Michael De Young, proprietor of the *Chronicle* The plaintiff alleged that the *Chronicle* charged him with selling the influence of the *Bulletin* and *Call* to the Central Pacific Railroad; that for the sum of about $30,000 the attitude of these papers changed from severe censure of the company to praise and support of it. Most journalists in this part of the country would regard this as a pretty serious charge. The defendant's counsel took a different view of it, and demurred to the complaint on the ground that the statement was not libellous. The Judge in rendering his decision stated the question presented to the Court to be, "Is it morally or legally wrong for a person to advocate a project, matter, or claim for pecuniary or valuable consideration? If it is, then the action is libellous; otherwise it is not." He disposed of it as follows:

"Talent is as much the capital of the advocate, the lawyer, and the editor as merchandise is of the merchant; he has as much right to sell his talents as the merchant his merchandise. The lawyer, the minister, the parliamentary advocate, the lecturer, the author, sells his talent, and he is not the less respected for so doing. The greater his learning, industry, eloquence, and the esteem in which he is held, the greater his pecuniary compensation. It seems to me that it is no more libellous to accuse one of selling for gain the support and advocacy of his newspaper than it would be to accuse the merchant of selling for gain his merchandise. The demurrer is sustained."

Judge Allen will probably be reversed on appeal, as his view of the matter is a novelty in jurisprudence. That commonly taken is that there is a difference between the sale of journalistic "talent" and legal services or merchandise. There is no objection to a lawyer's retainer, because he appears in court to advocate claims by fair argument, and does not make a pretence of doing anything else. A more exact parallel than that suggested by

Judge Allen would be the sale by the judge, in deciding the case, of his "talent" to one side or the other. A newspaper professes to hold a judicial position with regard to such matters as railroads, and to give unbiased discussion and criticism to the public. Consequently, if it disposes of its talent in the way alleged to have been done by the *Bulletin* and *Call*, it imposes upon the public and commits a fraud. To say that a man is an impostor is libellous, whatever "talent" he may have for sale. Otherwise there would be no reason for half the newspaper "controversy" that we see among our brethren around us. To say of a newspaper that "Jay Gould owns it" or "controls it," far from creating any feeling, would be as indifferent a matter as to say that Jay Gould had bought a hat or retained counsel. And to call a newspaper "venal" would rather be a compliment than a reproach. Judge Allen's decision will hardly stand.

The January disbursements of interest and dividends, including the interest on the public debt, have already lowered the rates on loans 1@2 per cent., and augmented the reserves of the banks. The market for foreign exchange, which was depressed to the point at which gold could be imported, has, with the return of easy money here, advanced so that there is no longer a prospect of gold imports. The trade exchanges between this and foreign countries have now for several months been running in a way which leaves little room for expecting that gold imports will again be renewed on a significant scale. The lesson of the exchanges is rather to prepare for gold exports when the next important foreign movement of specie takes place. The latest returns of the foreign commerce of the whole United States are up to December 1. For the four months preceding that date the merchandise imports exceeded those of the corresponding time of the year before by $22,460,000, while the exports were $13,000,000 less; and this reversal of the course which foreign trade has taken since the resumption of specie payments has been as marked at points from which returns could be obtained in the last month as during the four months preceding December 1. At the Stock Exchange there has been an advance in the prices of railroad stocks, mainly because renewed efforts have been made to bring about a settlement of the railroad war. These efforts have not prevented the roads from again reducing rates, so that freight is now taken from Chicago to the seaboard at lower rates than ever. Nevertheless, they have encouraged buying of stocks, because they promise to lead to favorable results, and because the latest reduction in rates is thought to be temporary. The chief movers toward a settlement are foreign bankers, whom some of the railroad managers can hardly afford to oppose, since they represent foreign investment holders of the securities of these companies, as well as a large domestic clientèle.

When Senator Morrill stated so confidently that immigration into this country depended upon the continuance of the protective system, and would cease if that system was relaxed, we doubt if he had glanced over a table giving the immigration for ten years back. It forms one of the most curious and interesting chapters in the history of immigration into this country from European nations (year ending June 30):

1872	351,265	1877	105,092
1873	396,380	1878	100,832
1874	261,232	1879	133,070
1875	181,635	1880	347,747
1876	120,103	1881	550,000

For the year ending June 30, 1881, the total immigration from all parts of the world was 669,431, and we estimate that of this number at least 550,000 came from Europe. Now, according to the Senator's theory, protection must have become very efficient in 1879, 1880, and 1881, and have been relaxed in the previous years; whereas the contrary is the real state of the case. During the depression that followed 1873 the tariff was a heavier burden to carry than it is now, when trade is good and manufacturers are calling for more protection. We know that the Senator does not believe in taking examples from the experience of European nations, but has he noticed the results that followed Bismarck's protective schemes? Emigration increased more than three hundred per cent. in one year. But if emigration and immigration are greatly influenced by protection, why should it work so differently in the two countries?

It seems to be determined by the Gladstone Ministry that they will not begin the work of the coming session of Parliament without having secured the "clôture," or the American previous question, in some shape. One of the Parnellites, O'Donnell, has announced already in the most cynical manner that his group is going to act with the Conservatives, by which he presumably means, not the moderates, led by Sir Stafford Northcote, but the irreconcilables, led by Lord Randolph Churchill and Mr. James Lowther. This means, of course, that they will again try obstruction, on the general ground that everything is fair against Gladstone. The Ministry will, therefore, be compelled to provide harness for them at the very outset, or, in other words, to arm the majority with the power of cutting off debate and bringing on a final vote at any moment, without the restrictions imposed on the application of the existing urgency rules, which requires a two-thirds vote in a house of 300. The temper of the younger English Tories has become curiously like that of the French Bonapartists. They have got to hating the Ministry so vigorously that they almost despise the institutions which it administers. There is a striking resemblance between the Churchill billingsgate and that of Paul de Cassagnac and Cunéo d'Ornano.

The avowed adhesion of Lord Derby to the Liberal party, after three years of what we may call novitiate, cannot but be considered a strong reinforcement for the Gladstone Ministry. What gives his profession of faith most of its importance just now is that he has chosen to make it at the moment when the Liberal policy in Ireland is attacked with great vehemence as hostile to property, if not to social order, and the working of the Land Act in Ireland has been cited with a certain amount of plausibility in support of these charges. The Liberals have made free use of the continuance of Lord Hartington in the Cabinet as an answer to these attacks. He is the heir of a dukedom and of vast estates, and a man of cold and cautious temper, without a particle of sentimentality or fervor of any kind in his composition, and it is characteristic of the English political mind that his presence in the Ministry should deprive the Tory accounts of the dangers of Radical rule of much of their force. His example, however, is not likely to be of nearly as much value as Lord Derby's conversion. Lord Derby is himself a great landed proprietor. He not only has not abandoned Liberalism, but has come over to it. Moreover, he is a man of even colder temper than Lord Hartington, and ascribes even less political force to sentiment. He has for many years almost made a profession of caution, and has, indeed, pushed it to the verge of hopelessness. He might be pronounced with perfect accuracy the safest politician in England—meaning by that the least sanguine, the most incredulous as to the efficacy of anything new, or as to the usefulness of any species of emotion. His occasional addresses at working-class meetings on such subjects as coöperation, savings, and the land question, could hardly be surpassed as expositions of the philosophy of common sense and worldly prudence, and of the absurdity of getting excited, or, in other words, of the motives which must sway the ordinary Tory mind. There are not many ordinary Tories, however deficient in humor, but must feel it a little ridiculous to be afraid of Gladstone or Chamberlain on social grounds, when the head of the house of Stanley acknowledges that he trusts them.

About Ireland, however—and this perhaps adds to his value as a convert—Lord Derby is not hopeful. He does not believe the Land Act, or any other act, will reconcile Ireland to English rule, but believes it to be good legislation nevertheless. He dislikes all investments which promise quick returns, and he does not think anything can be invested in Ireland in the way of conciliation or reform which will produce quick returns. He would put down the Irish nationalist movement simply by proving its hopelessness, and he would prove its hopelessness in the characteristic English way, by opposing to it immovable, overwhelming, and continuous force. It is probably here that his influence is likely to be injurious. He cites the dealings of the United States with the Confederates as an example of what may be done in suppressing discontent by the unflinching use of superior physical power. But the illustration is not of much value. The Southern rebels, whatever their faults, were men of the same faith and race as their Northern conquerors, and they had that inestimable quality which forms so large a part of the Anglo-Saxon political sense—of readiness to accept the inevitable. The Irish, on the other hand, like all the sentimental races, have shown a capacity for enduring hate, on which the English masterfulness—to which Lord Derby seems still to trust—has for centuries spent itself in vain, and which apparently is as constant as English power is likely to be. This must be overcome, it is plain, by something better than big battalions.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

CONGRESS resumed work on Thursday. The session of both houses on this day was short, and the attendance in the House of Representatives was small. The only interesting feature of the proceedings was the protest of Mr. Orth, of Indiana, against the action of the Speaker in assigning him to certain committees. There has been an unusual amount of dissatisfaction among the members of the House in regard to Mr. Keifer's assignments to the committees, and Mr. Orth's protest met with considerable sympathy. Mr. Orth announced that it was his purpose at an early day to propose a change in the method of selecting committees. He said he considered the present system "emphatically a one-man power, and such power is always dangerous and in conflict with republican government." Mr. Orth then went on to state his own personal grievance. He said in substance that with two exceptions he had represented his constituents in the House for a longer period—twelve years—than any other Republican member; that during that period he had been chairman of some and member of other very important committees; that he considered his assignment by Mr. Keifer to the second place on the Committees on Foreign Affairs and Rules as an injustice to himself and his constituents, and that he respectfully asked the House to excuse him from service as a member of the Committee on Rules.

The debate on Mr. Sherman's Refunding Bill began in the Senate on Monday. Mr. Sherman spoke in support of it, and Messrs. McPherson and Bayard in opposition. Mr. Bayard thought that if the rate of interest on the new bonds were no higher than three per cent., when harder times came any fluctuation might put them below par, which would be a stain on the national credit. In the House the subject of a commercial treaty with Mexico was brought up, and Mr. Whitthorne, of Tennessee, offered a resolution authorizing the President to open negotiations with the Mexican Government upon the subject of such a treaty.

The appointment of ex-Senator Howe as Postmaster-General necessitates the appointment of another delegate to the International Monetary Conference which meets in Paris in April next. This is said to have been one of the principal topics of conversation at the Cabinet meeting on Tuesday.

The President has nominated Mr. Samuel C. Parks, of New Mexico, and Mr. Joseph Bell, of New York, to be Associate Justices of the Supreme Courts of Wyoming and New Mexico respectively.

Justice Gray took his seat on the Supreme Bench for the first time on Monday.

It is understood that Judge Marcus Morton, of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts, has been offered, and has accepted, the Chief Justiceship of that court in the place of Judge Gray.

Postmaster-General James surrendered his department to Mr. Howe on Friday. Mr. James has been in office not quite ten months, and during that time has thoroughly reorganized the department. True business principles have been applied everywhere, and the efficiency of the whole department greatly increased. The net reduction in the cost of the Star and Steamboat service from March 1 to December 31 amounted to $1,439,163. The best illustration of the success of Mr. James's administration, however, is that it is expected that for the quarter ending December 31 the department will have been self-sustaining. The calculations showing the relation of expenses to receipts will not be made for some weeks, but it is believed that they will show that the department now pays its own way.

The witnesses in the Dorsey Star-route case have been summoned to appear before the Grand Jury, in Washington, on the 21st of January.

Reports received at the Post-office Department at Washington indicate that the smallpox is still spreading throughout the country. A letter was received from a postmaster in Pennsylvania, saying that a doctor who is treating a number of cases in the town, persists in calling at the office for his mail matter, and that many of the citizens have informed the Postmaster that they will refuse to receive their mails if these visits are allowed. The Postmaster has been informed that he has no authority to prevent persons from calling for their mails, and that, therefore, the matter must be settled between the citizens and the doctor.

Drs. Cabell and Turner, the president and secretary of the National Board of Health, had a conference with the President on Wednesday, the 4th, in reference to the best methods of providing against an epidemic of smallpox. They presented an address, recommending that all immigrants not recently vaccinated be compelled to undergo that operation, and that quarantine regulations be strictly enforced. The President said that he would consider the matter, and would probably make it the subject of a special message to Congress.

It is said that a strong pressure is being brought to bear upon the President by prominent Republicans and journals of the South, to have Mr. Hunt retained as Secretary of the Navy, the claim being made that he is a "representative Southern Republican in the broadest sense of the word."

In the Guiteau case on Wednesday Mr. Scoville filed an affidavit requesting permission to call nine more witnesses, stating what he expected to prove by their testimony. The Court decided against him in this matter, but permitted him to call witnesses to show that on the day of the shooting Guiteau had claimed to be inspired by God. Mr. J. J. Brooks, chief of the Secret Service division of the Treasury Department, was called to the witness-stand for this purpose, but he swore that Guiteau had not made any such claim to him. A letter, written by the assassin's father in 1875, in which he pronounced his son a fit subject for the lunatic asylum, was read. This finally closed the testimony for the defence. Mr. Davidge then submitted the law points on which the prosecution desired the Court to rule. They were in brief as follows:

First. If the accused, at the time of committing the act, knew the difference between right and wrong in respect to that act, he is responsible.

Second. If the accused knew what he was doing, and that what he was doing was contrary to the law of the land, it is no defence that when he committed the act he really believed that he was carrying out an inspiration of divine origin.

Third. Insanity would constitute a defence if by reason of disease the accused, at the time of committing the act, did not know what he was doing, or did not know that it was contrary to law.

Fourth. The prisoner's claim that his free agency was destroyed, could afford no excuse if he knew what he was doing, and that it was contrary to law.

The court then adjourned until Saturday to give the defence time to prepare their points. In these the defence take the ground that where sanity is in question the prosecution must prove sanity beyond a doubt, and failing this the prisoner must be acquitted. Saturday was occupied by both sides in arguing upon the legal points, and the jury were granted leave to be absent from the court-room. Guiteau's interruptions on this day were extremely provoking. On Monday the arguments on the law points were continued, Mr. Scoville concluding for the defence. Mr. Scoville and Judge Porter engaged in one or two rather sharp altercations on Saturday and Monday and were mildly rebuked by Judge Cox.

On Tuesday Judge Porter concluded the argument for the prosecution on the law points. His argument was highly rhetorical, and contained many scathing remarks in regard to Guiteau and his counsel Mr. Scoville. Judge Cox then rendered his decisions on the law points. They bore in the main against the defence. The court then adjourned until Thursday, when the argument to the jury will begin.

At the annual meeting of the Boston Memorial Association, on Wednesday, the executive committee was instructed to collect subscriptions for a statue of President Garfield, to cost not less than $10,000.

General Fitz-John Porter, who was sentenced by a court-martial in 1863 to be "cashiered and forever disqualified from holding any office of trust or profit under the Government of the United States," has appealed to President Arthur for a rehearing of his case. He accompanies his appeal with a letter from General Grant in which the latter says that he has reviewed the testimony in General Porter's case, and has come to the conclusion that he has done "a gallant and efficient soldier a very great injustice in thought and sometimes in speech." General Grant states in "justification for his injustice" to General Porter that he read his defence in connection with a sketch of the field on which the offences were said to have been committed, which he has since ascertained to have been totally incorrect, as showing the position of the two armies. In conclusion, General Grant asks that the "whole matter be laid before the Attorney-General for his examination and opinion." In addition to this, General Porter has sent to President Arthur a letter from General Terry, in which the latter says that for years he has done General Porter "wrong in thought and sometimes wrong in speech."

A "Territorial-division convention" assembled at Fargo, Dakota, on Wednesday, the 4th, to agitate the division of the Territory at the forty-sixth degree of north latitude, the admission of the southern half as a State, and the northern half as a Territory. There was a large attendance of representatives from the counties, and resolutions were adopted calling for the division "without delay." A number of delegates were appointed to visit Washington and press the matter.

The Republican caucus nominated at Des Moines, Iowa, on Tuesday, James H. Wilson as Senator from that State for the long term, and James W. McDill for the short term. Secretary Kirkwood declined to be a candidate.

A private meeting of citizens was held in Philadelphia on Thursday to start a movement to reorganize the departments of the city government. Their plans are not yet ready to be disclosed to the public, but Mr. Colesbury, the secretary of the organization, said that responsibility, with proper checks and counterchecks, fewer departments, more economy, and greater efficiency, were some of the reforms aimed at

The "deadlock" in the New York Legislature still continues.

Governors Lowry, of Mississippi, and Foster, of Ohio, were inaugurated on Monday.

A remarkable occurrence took place in Kentucky on Thursday. The three principals in the murder of the Gibbons family at Ashland in that State were put on board a steamer on the Ohio River, which was to convey them to Maysville in order to escape a mob that had assembled at Ashland, presumably with the intention of taking the law into their own hands and lynching the murderers. The mob thereupon seized another steamer and started in pursuit. The chase was an exciting one for a time, but finally the boat conveying the prisoners was met by a detachment of militia, who escorted them in safety to Maysville. Great crowds assembled along the banks of the river to watch the chase, and the excitement is reported to have been intense. The mob afterward held an indignation meeting, at which it was asserted that their object was

to see that the murderers had a fair trial—an assertion which afforded some amusement to outsiders.

On Saturday news was received of the death at Rome of Richard H. Dana, the well-known lawyer and writer. He was born at Cambridge, Mass., in 1815, and early achieved literary distinction by his 'Two Years Before the Mast,' a work describing his voyage as a common sailor to California. In 1868 Mr. Dana ran for Congress in Massachusetts against General B. F. Butler, but was defeated. In 1876 General Grant nominated him as Minister to England, but the Senate refused to ratify the nomination.

On Saturday Edwin W. Stoughton, ex-Minister to Russia, died in New York. Mr. Stoughton was born at Windsor, Vermont, in 1818. He achieved considerable distinction as a lawyer, and for a time was prominent in politics as a warm personal friend and adherent of General Grant. He was appointed Minister to Russia by President Hayes in the fall of 1877. Other deaths of the week have been those of William Harrison Ainsworth, an English writer of fiction; John Cotton Smith, a well-known American clergyman and theologian; John William Draper, an American scientist of distinction, and Clement Comer Clay, who was United States Senator from Alabama before the war and afterward a Confederate Senator. Mr. Clay was one of the most ardent champions in the Senate of the doctrine of State Rights.

FOREIGN.

An imperial rescript, dated January 4, countersigned by Prince Bismarck, has been addressed to the Prussian Ministry. The rescript defines the relations of the Emperor and the Ministers, and reminds the latter that they are the servants of the King and not representatives of Parliament. The Emperor states that it is therefore his will "that in Prussia and also in the legislative bodies of the Empire no doubt shall be allowed to attach to my constitutional right or that of my successors to direct personally the policy of the Government." He goes on to say that he does not wish to restrict the freedom of elections, but that "the functionaries entrusted with the execution of my official acts are bound to support the policy of my Government even at elections," and that he shall expect all officials to hold aloof, at elections, from all agitation against his Government. The rescript is a curt enunciation of Prince Bismarck's ideas of constitutional government in Germany, and is said to have excited a deeper and more universal sensation in the Empire than any event since the parliamentary conflict twenty years ago. The German press is very cautious in commenting upon the decree, but it is very generally disapproved of, and is believed to be the forerunner of a shortly impending crisis. It is said that the rescript will be debated in the Prussian Diet.

It is announced that the Emperor William of Germany has decided to proclaim the Crown Prince Frederick William regent on the 22d of next March, which is the occasion of the Emperor's eighty-fifth birthday.

In a debate in the Reichstag on Monday, on the development of the factory laws, Prince Bismarck said that the Emperor desired to settle the workmen's question during his lifetime; whereupon Herr Richter vehemently attacked Prince Bismarck, reproaching him with dragging the name of the Emperor into the debate whenever a doubtful question was before the House. Bismarck left the Chamber while Herr Richter was speaking.

Prince Bismarck has sent a "courteous but very explicit" note to the Italian Government, stating that, in his opinion, the Pope's independence cannot be regarded as a question for Italian home politics, but should be considered an international question. Prince Bismarck adds that it is his intention to promote a meeting of a congress of the powers for the purpose of making the guarantees of the independence of the Holy See stronger and more effectual than they are at present, and that Russia, Austria, Germany, England, and Spain favor the holding of the congress as soon as possible.

The Cardinal Archbishop of Rouen has published a letter describing the position of the Pope. He urges the Italians to choose another capital and leave Rome to the Pope in order to avert the necessity of his departure from that city.

It is stated that all arrangements for the departure of the Pope for Malta, in case he deems it impossible for him to remain in Rome, have been completed.

The Prussian Diet has been summoned to meet on January 14. The Government's Ecclesiastical Bill empowers the Prussian Government to provide for a conciliatory administration of the May laws.

The provisions of the Naturalization Treaty with America have been finally extended in their operation all over Germany.

The English and French Consul-Generals at Cairo received from their respective Governments, on Friday, a collective note "explaining in unmistakable terms" that England and France, who placed the Khedive on the throne, are determined to maintain his authority against any attempts to create disorder. The note is said to be directed mainly against Turkish interference in Egypt.

The Egyptian Chamber of Notables are reported to have been elaborating standing orders in which it is proposed to establish ministerial responsibility to the House, except in regard to international obligations. Sherif Pasha delivered a speech dwelling upon the necessity of observing these obligations, which is said to have been "loudly cheered."

A despatch was received from Alexandria on Monday which stated that serious complications had arisen between the Chambers and the European Control in regard to financial measures. Sherif Pasha, the Prime Minister, is supported by the army, and another crisis is deemed probable.

It is said that the results of a recent Turkish mission to Berlin and Vienna have been that the Porte is convinced that although Germany and Austria will not actively aid Turkish policy, they have resolved to maintain the *status quo* in the East. The relations between Austria and the Porte are said to have been greatly improved.

On Thursday evening the Earl of Derby, speaking at the banquet of the Liverpool Reform Club, avowed himself a thorough Liberal. He favored the employment of force in Ireland, and pointing, as an example, to the way in which the United States had dealt with secession, said he did not see why England should show less determination, or have less good fortune in her treatment of the Irish difficulties. Lord Derby's open avowal of his conversion to Liberalism has excited much interest, and is considered a great triumph for the Liberals.

Mr. John Bright and Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, President of the Board of Trade, spoke at Birmingham on Wednesday. Mr. Bright justified coercive measures in Ireland on the ground of their absolute necessity, and pointed out that much of the Irish discontent now arose from misconception or ignorance of English liberality. Mr. Chamberlain said that the Government would find means to enable the Land Courts to deal with the cases which were coming before them. He ridiculed the landlords' demand for compensation, and thought the tenants ought rather to be compensated for the excessive rents extracted from them for many years.

The week has been comparatively quiet in Ireland. The number of "suspects" now in prison is said to be 463. Earl Cowper, the Lord Lieutenant, has refused the request of the Dublin corporation, that he grant permission to Messrs. Parnell and Dillon to attend at the City Hall to receive the freedom of the city conferred on them by the corporation. The followers of Mr. Parnell have decided to call a general meeting of the Irish party in London a week before the opening of Parliament. The Property Defence movement has languished somewhat in England on account of a suspicion of partisan aims in connection with it; but a meeting was held at the Mansion House in London on Friday, at which Mr. Samuel Morley, a Liberal, made a strong appeal against allowing party feeling to have any influence in the matter. He said that if £50,000 could be secured "the work would be finished in half a year."

At a Cabinet council held on Saturday it is said to have been unanimously decided that the state of Ireland rendered it necessary to take additional precautions to bring to justice those persons engaged in supplying arms to the people. The latest form of lawlessness is said to be the organization of "Land-League hunts." Much game has been destroyed, and many preserves damaged in this way. There is an effort being made to obtain Mr. Parnell's release before the opening of Parliament, and the Government is reported to have the matter under consideration.

Messrs. Parnell and Dillon have addressed a letter to the town clerk of Dublin returning thanks to the corporation for the honor conferred on them by presenting them with the freedom of the city. It is stated that the corporation will now ask permission to present the freedom of the city to Messrs. Parnell and Dillon within the prison.

It is understood that the British Cabinet has refused to recognize, as inconsistent with international law in general and the Clayton-Bulwer treaty in particular, the claims of the United States to exercise entire control over the Panama Canal.

Mr. Reclus, head agent of the Panama Canal Company, arrived in Panama on the 28th ultimo, accompanied by two of the most distinguished engineers of the French Polytechnic School. They will at once begin the serious work of excavation, for which preparations are said to be well advanced.

The French Senatorial elections were held on Sunday. Sixty-four Republicans and fifteen Conservatives were elected, the Republicans gaining twenty-two seats.

On the same day, while a procession of 300 persons was proceeding to the Père-la-Chaise Cemetery, to commemorate the anniversary of the death of M. Blanqui, some of those in line became "objectionably demonstrative." The police interfered, and a mêlée ensued, in which twenty or more persons were wounded and about the same number arrested.

It is stated that notwithstanding the favorable result of the French Senatorial elections, the Government will persevere with the revision of the Constitution. The changes intended with regard to the election of Senators will increase the representation of the large towns, and deprive the Senate of the right of rejecting money bills. The Government will also propose the general-ticket system for the election of members of the Chamber of Deputies.

Mr. Morton, United States Minister to France, gave a state dinner to M. Gambetta and his colleagues on Thursday, at which all the ministers of the Cabinet were present, with the exception of the Ministers of Public Works, War, and Justice.

The revenue received from direct and indirect taxes in France for the year 1881 has exceeded the estimate by 217,000,000 francs.

The editors of eleven Republican newspapers in Madrid have signed a declaration in favor of continuous efforts to establish a Democratic Government. The organs of Señor Castelar have abstained from participating in the movement.

TUESDAY, January 10, 1882.

VIRGINIAN REPUDIATION.

GOVERNOR CAMERON of Virginia has sent in his message to the Mahone Legislature, his chief topic being, as might be expected, the State finances. He whittles down the principal of the debt by dividing the burden with West Virginia, and then takes up the question of interest. He thinks the State ought not to pay more than three per cent., first, because the rate of taxation cannot be increased, and three per cent. is all that can be provided for with certainty; secondly, because "the proposed interest is as great as the average rate paid by the debtor class of the world on public securities at the present day." The financial propositions of the Mahoneites are never very clear, and this is one of the least clear. What is "the debtor class of the world"? And why should it "pay interest on" public securities? It has presumably enough to do to pay the interest on its private securities. Public securities are promises to pay issued by States and nations, and the interest on them is paid by the taxpayers through the Government, and these taxpayers may be members of the debtor class or they may not. No matter to which class they belong, every civilized, proud, and prosperous State holds it to be of the last importance to pay its debts, not in the manner most convenient to itself, but in the manner in which its authorized representatives promised to pay them. The moral obligations of a State about money are, in short, more imperative than those of individuals because they are not legal obligations. A State cannot be made to pay, and therefore a cheating State is always a more repulsive object than a cheating man. When a State is bent on cheating, however, decency requires that none of its high officers should try to justify it by subterfuges and evasions. Governors and other prominent public functionaries should indeed be prohibited, in the act providing for the fraud, from entering on any explanation or defence of it. They should simply announce it, and then leave the newspapers to put a good face on it. Governor Cameron's nonsense about the rate of interest paid by the debtor class on public securities is an example of what comes of attempts at official apology for breaches of public faith.

If he means by "the debtor class" the various states of the world which have debts, what he says about the interest is simply untrue. There is only one state in the world—Great Britain—which pays as low as three per cent. on any portion of its public debt, except by cheating. Several states pay nothing, and he must have made up his average by taking the whole public debts of the world and applying thereto the amount of interest paid by honest governments. But by this process we think he might have made "the average" lower. One per cent., we think, is about as much as is paid on all the existing public debts, taken as a whole. If this process were carried into operation in the treatment of private contracts, the result would be very diverting. A debtor who should come to his creditor and ask for a heavy reduction in the amount of his principal or interest, on the ground that the bankruptcies and defaults which had taken place in the town during the previous year had lowered the average of what was due by the whole debtor class of the place, would be either a sorry wag or an impudent rogue.

The fact is, that Governor Cameron demands the right for Virginia to pay a rate of interest as low as that paid by the State whose credit stands highest in the world, on the strange ground that what one government has earned by faithful fulfilment of the letter of its obligations may also be claimed by any other government which prefers evading them. This would be more surprising than it is if General Mahone had not expounded to the Union League Club in this city the truly comic doctrine that the rate of interest was always regulated by the means of the debtor, or, in other words, the poorer a State was, the easier the terms on which it could borrow money. Charity obliges us to suppose that General Mahone was on this occasion really as ignorant as he seemed; but his disciples must not abuse the public credulity and imitate him too freely.

One of the Riddleberger bills now before the Virginia Legislature is of itself sufficient to place in its true light before the world the Mahone scheme of repudiation. The coupons of the State bonds issued in 1871 and 1879 were made receivable in payment of the public taxes. An attempt to take away such receivability was foiled by the decisions both of the State and Federal Supreme Courts. The State is, in short, bound to receive them by every law, human and divine. To get rid of this obligation, Riddleberger has devised a scheme which it is hardly too strong to call a "confidence operation." He has concocted and inserted in the preamble of his bill a story that numerous "spurious bonds" and coupons are in circulation; that therefore, when any coupons are offered in payment of taxes, it is necessary to ascertain their genuineness. He then proposes to enact that the tax collector shall accept no coupons in payment of taxes; that he shall accept any coupons only for the purpose of examination, and that the tax shall, in the meantime, be collected in money on pain of distraint. The genuineness of the coupons is then to be ascertained by a regular jury trial in the county court, with its usual expense and delay. If ascertained, they are to be received in payment of the taxes, and the money originally paid refunded, but without any allowance for costs or vexation. The measure is, of course, based on the expectation that in most cases the taxpayer will not take the trouble or will not have the means to begin a suit, and will thus seem to acquiesce in the pretence of the preamble, and in the fraudulent process for which it prepares. It is safe to say that a State in which such schemes are gravely entertained by leading politicians in its Legislature, ought to raise the salaries of its criminal judges, in order to compensate them for the embarrassment they must feel in trying its "confidence men."

The Mahone-Riddleberger system of finance is made to appear all the more remarkable, as an object of Republican support, by the official report of the State Treasurer. From this it seems that the total amount of the State debt, including what the repudiators think both bearable and unbearable, is $29,614,793. The interest on this, including both what the repudiators say they cannot pay, and what other people think they can and ought to pay, is $1,523,516. Of this $1,117,724 is payable in coupons receivable for taxes, and $96,695 is to be deducted for bonds held by colleges; so that all the State would have to pay in cash to save its good name would be $309,096, besides the interest on $3,565,331 of arrears. The Treasurer reports that the public revenue for the year ending September 30, 1881, was $2,632,345, and the expenditures were $2,152,028, leaving in the Treasury an unexpended and unappropriated balance of $480,317. The Auditor also says in his report:

> "I had the pleasure of exhibiting a gratifying degree of improvement and ease in our financial condition in my first report [that for last year]. It is exceedingly gratifying now to be able to report the continuance of this improvement, and to show that our financial condition is better now than it was at the close of the last fiscal year."

It must also be said that there were several items in the disbursements of last year which cannot be called regular and will not recur. In fact, a strict construction of the term "regular expenses" would make the probable surplus applicable to the payment of interest next year $1,566,023, or $57,692 more than would be sufficient to satisfy all honest claims, and save the State credit. That the revenue will hereafter steadily grow there is little doubt. Virginia, like the other Southern States, has entered on a career of material prosperity which nothing but the knavery of her politicians can check.

In view of these facts, the Republican support given to the repudiators assumes a much more serious aspect than it would have done were the ability of the State to pay its honest debts open to any question. As the world goes, taxpayers who refuse to submit to actual privation in order to meet the demands of public creditors may find excuses enough both in morals and policy to save their character and self-respect. But taxpayers who refuse to pay over to the State's creditors money which lies in the treasury unappropriated, and is the surplus of a rising revenue in a time of general peace and prosperity, can hardly avoid the conviction that they are cheating, and that outsiders who encourage them in their repudiation are their accessories. In Virginia, too, the colored voters get their political morality largely from Northern sources, and it is very unfortunate that the first striking lesson they receive from that quarter should be the lesson that debtors who cannot be made to pay need not pay unless they please.

We presume there is no question that the Mahone "movement," as it is called, has the merit of overthrowing the Bourbons, and of being likely to spread through the South. But what makes the overthrow of the Bourbons of such supreme importance as to justify encouragement of the grossest form of political immorality, it is hard to see. Even in time of open war, a man is not held justifiable in defrauding his foreign creditors in order to give the money to his country. The creditors of Virginia are not alien enemies; and why they should be robbed in order to split the Democratic vote at the South, it would probably puzzle the most

astute Republican casuist to explain. The present attitude of the Mahoneites is, in fact, very like that of the well-to-do Irish farmers who refuse to pay their rent because Parnell is in jail—an ingenious but somewhat comic mode of giving a fraud on one's creditors the air of resistance to political tyranny. A holder of Virginia bonds or coupons receivable for taxes is, as such, in no way responsible for the weaknesses or follies of the old hide-bound Virginia politicians who "mumble the dry bones of the past," and "turn their backs to the morning sun"; nevertheless, it is now proposed to fine him heavily in order to spread the ideas of the new time.

THE UNITED STATES AND MEXICO.

Resolutions have been introduced in the House by Mr. Whitthorne, of Tennessee, providing for the negotiation of a treaty with Mexico, "with a view to secure protection to the capital, labor, and enterprise which may be invested and employed by the citizens of the United States in the opening and maintaining, under grants already or which may be obtained from said republic, such railway and other commercial lines of communication between the Pacific coast and the boundary line of the United States in and through said republic," etc.

This reads very oddly, and if the Mexicans were sensitive they might consider it very insulting. In all our intercourse with Mexico she is treated not only as an independent but as a civilized state, on an equality with the United States in everything but population and riches. We treat her courts as respectable legal tribunals, and her Government as possessing ample force to execute their decrees and afford sufficient protection to life and property. We have never thought it necessary to insist, as in Turkey, and Egypt, and China, and Japan, and other barbarous or semi-barbarous states, on the exemption of American citizens from the jurisdiction of the Mexican courts, and on the trial of American causes arising in Mexico before our own judicial officers.

The Whitthorne resolutions, however, distinctly point to a departure from this policy, and the relegation of Mexico, in so far as our dealings with her are concerned, to the position of an inferior and semi-barbarous power like Turkey or Morocco. Every government owes protection to "the capital, labor, and enterprise" invested under its own grants, concessions, or charters. In fact, a grant or charter is a promise of protection. A grant which did not promise protection would be very like employment in which a man got no wages and paid his own board, or that celebrated grant under which a man worked his passage in the canal-boat by driving the horses on the tow-path. Those American citizens who have already invested, or have asked the permission of the Mexican Government to invest, their capital in Mexican mines, railroads, or plantations, have by so doing acknowledged the ability of that Government to afford them adequate protection. According to the best accounts, there is no part of Mexico in which life and property are less secure than they are in some parts of the United States—New Mexico and Arizona, for instance, in which large bodies of European capital are being invested every year. We should take it very ill, however, if France or England or Germany were to propose a treaty binding us to protect that capital. The answer would be that such a treaty would be derogatory to us; that there was as much protection for investments in this country as in any other in regions in which the population was sparse and communication difficult; that those who had made investments knew well the social and political conditions under which they had to be made, and presumably took whatever risks there were in consideration of the high rate of profits they expected; that in any case, however, the United States were not going to negotiate with any foreign power as to the manner in which they would execute their own laws, or as to the kind of laws they would enact; and that the mere proposal of such a negotiation was distinctly unfriendly.

It is quite possible, if not probable, that Mexico will say this or something very like it in answer to any overtures which may be made under the Whitthorne resolutions. The result of such a treaty as is proposed in them would be, if it answered the purpose of its projectors, to give us the right not only to insist on the protection of our citizens in their lawful undertakings on Mexican soil, which we possess already under the law of nations, but to point out the precise means by which such protection should be afforded, or to assist in affording it ourselves. In short, no arrangement of the kind could be made which would not give us the power to prescribe the manner in which the Mexicans should carry on their Government, and the moment this interference began, Mexican independence would begin to crumble. Mexico would be rapidly overrun by the class of speculators who flourished here under the Grant régime, but now find American public opinion and the American courts too strong for them. They would obtain larger and larger "grants" every day, either by corruption or humbug, or a judicious mixture of both, and, knowing that they had the American Government behind them as a means of coercion, would use their power to extort fresh concessions or enlarge old ones; and we should before long find ourselves saddled with the responsibility of protecting life and property all over Mexico.

It is the obvious interest of the American people at present to strengthen and support every South American government which shows vitality and staying power, and particularly the two republics of Chili and Mexico, which probably show more promise in all the arts than any of the others. Nothing is so important to us as a commercial people as to have neighbors whom peace and industry make good customers, without putting us to the expense or responsibility of governing them. We shall have enough to do for fifty years at least in assimilating the population we have already got, and which Europe has still to send us, and in developing the resources of the territory we already occupy, without saddling ourselves with the management of large bodies of Catholic Latins. Our difficulties with the Mormons furnish warning enough against becoming responsible for the good behavior and happiness of communities which do not coalesce readily with American society as now organized, or which do not take readily to our civilization. We must therefore be wise in time, and let our speculators who go either to Mexico, or Peru, or Chili, or any other South American state plainly understand that they must not look to us for any guarantee beyond what they get from the government to which they owe their grants. Their remedy for the defects of that government they must be presumed to find in the largeness of their profits. Most of them will console themselves in this way. Others will derive comfort from the reflection that weak governments are nearly always easily cheated.

POLITICAL REACTION IN GERMANY.

The "rescript" addressed by the German Emperor to the Prussian Ministry, which was published at length in the Sunday papers, contains two distinct propositions: 1. That, according to his understanding of the Prussian Constitution, the King personally directs the Government and policy of Prussia; that the Ministers are responsible only to him, and that as to this point the King wants it to be understood "that in Prussia, and also in the legislative bodies of the empire, no doubt will be allowed to attach to his constitutional right or that of his successors." And 2, that, as the Ministers and other officials of the state have taken the oath of loyalty to the King, they are in duty bound to support the policy of the King's Government and to use their official power and influence to that effect at the elections. The first proposition is nothing new in Germany. It is, in fact, the constitutional theory insisted upon in Prussia by the Crown ever since the existence of the present Constitution. It is, as the rescript expresses it, "the monarchical tradition of the country." While this is true, the direct assertion by the King or his spokesmen of the principle involved has always grated harshly upon the feelings of a majority of the Prussian people, and it is always understood as an exhibition of defiant arrogation of power. The second proposition, declaring it the duty of all officials to support the King's policy at the elections, expresses a theory which also has been entertained before in Government circles, without, however, being proclaimed with quite as much cynical directness by the sovereign himself, and also without being generally enforced. That it is now meant to be enforced with the utmost rigor, the tone of the rescript leaves scarcely a doubt. The two propositions together make up probably the most absolutistic proclamation of policy in Germany since 1848. In any country governed on constitutional principles in the English sense, it would be called simply monstrous; it would be equivalent to a *coup d'état*.

The rescript was countersigned by Prince Bismarck, and it may safely be assumed that he wrote it. Why he should have chosen this moment for so significant a step, no election being pending, and what special object he expects to accomplish by it, is a matter of speculation. The protests from the Liberal side in the Reichstag against the dragging of the

Emperor's name into the debates, which was freely resorted to by the spokesmen of the Government, and against the illegal meddling of Government officials with the elections, which the Government tried to defend, may have been the immediate occasion for the Chancellor to emphasize the position he had taken by giving it the form of a personal declaration of the Emperor. But he must have had more important objects in view. Did he want to terrify the Opposition in the Reichstag and the Prussian Chambers, and to win a majority by a policy of intimidation? He can scarcely expect an Opposition that feels the sympathy of the people at its back to be frightened into submission by an act calculated to strengthen that sympathy. Did he mean to intimidate the people with the prospect of an acrimonious conflict, in order thus to influence future elections? He can scarcely have forgotten that when a similar policy was tried before in 1863 the result was a large increase of the Liberal vote at the succeeding elections. Even the Clericals will be alarmed by the defiant tone of the rescript. Situated as they are, they understand the value of constitutional privileges too well to acquiesce willingly in the arrogations of absolute power, and thus the alliance between themselves and the Conservatives may be shaken as to the most vital points by this very act. If the Chancellor had such ends in view, his expectations are, therefore, likely to be disappointed.

There is one phrase in the manifesto, about "the rights of my [the King's] successors to direct personally the policy of the Government," which might be taken to indicate that the rescript was intended to forestall the future policy of the Crown Prince. The Emperor being old, and growing more infirm, the accession of the Crown Prince to the throne cannot be far off. Indeed, it is reported, as we write, that the Emperor is going to proclaim the Crown Prince regent on the 22d of March. The old Emperor was the product of a time in which, in Prussia at least, the divine power of kings had almost the sanctity of a religious dogma. He did not find constitutional government in the English sense congenial to him, because it was entirely outside of his comprehension. The Crown Prince has grown up under an entirely different kind of influences. The discussion of constitutional questions was the order of the day during his early manhood, and his English marriage gave him unusual opportunities to familiarize himself with the working of British institutions. We do not attach absolute confidence to the proverbial liberalism of crown princes, but in this case it would be wonderful if the effect of modern ideas of government were not felt. The Crown Prince would prove a far less sensible man than he is thought to be if he did not abandon some of the extreme pretensions of royalty, although he may, while regent during his father's life, maintain them in point of form. It can scarcely be conceived that he should respect the rescript as the fixed programme of his conduct for his whole reign. The immediate effect of the rescript is likely to be the revival of anti-monarchical tendencies in Germany which had almost completely died out; and only a speedy change of government and the adoption of a policy in accord with the current ideas of the times can prevent them from gaining ground among a people naturally peaceable and conservative.

OSCAR WILDE.

Mr. Oscar Wilde delivered on Monday at Chickering Hall a lecture, on "The English Renaissance," which might fairly be called a success. In the present days of easily-manufactured notoriety, a young man who has managed to establish a doubt in the minds of the public as to whether he is a profound thinker or an utter fool may be said to be on the high road to a very good substitute for fame, and this is what Mr. Wilde had previous to his lecture succeeded in doing. The difficulty with his future career is likely to be that his lecture solves the doubt, and that he will be unable to keep alive any curiosity on the subject. When we say that he solves the doubt, we mean, of course, that he is a profound thinker; not by any means, to parody a phrase of his own, a thinker of unthought thoughts, but of thoughts thought, and expressed too, for that matter, a great many times before, though not thought or expressed so profoundly as by Mr. Wilde, nor in his own manner. To say that the æsthete is a disciple of Ruskin gives a meagre idea of the chameleon-like power of imitative reproduction which he displays. His hospitable mind has opened its doors to Ruskin, Millais, Holman Hunt, Dante Rossetti, Swinburne, Baudelaire, Gauthier, William Morris, Burne Jones, Keats, Wordsworth, Shelley, Walt Whitman, Goethe, and Gilbert and Sullivan. It may seem at first that it would be difficult for even a deep young man to find a common basis for an æsthetic movement in all these; but Mr. Wilde is not only deep enough for this, but far too deep to explain what the common basis is, or what he has to do with it himself. Under these circumstances, and at the risk of violating Mr. Wilde's fundamental maxim of criticism—that the function of the critic is to hold his peace at all times and in all places—we will venture to offer a suggestion or two in explanation of the somewhat mysterious phenomenon presented by Mr. Wilde's lecture tour.

When Mr. Ruskin and the pre-Raphaelites set about reforming public taste in England, they were forced to enter upon something very like a crusade. Almost every canon of art-criticism that existed had to be demolished and its opposite established in its place. Springing up in a community strongly impregnated with moral and religious ideas, it is no wonder that the teachings of the school should have taken a religious tone. Appeals to the love of beauty alone would hardly have aroused the dull British Philistine from his contented, vulgar lethargy. To touch him at all it was necessary to stir his conscience, and the forerunners of the æsthetic movement—who, by the way, were all sincere men and loved art themselves with a semi-religious fervor—became the founders of a proselyting church, a sort of artistic Rock of Ages in the weltering waste of British Philistinism. They brought the pure milk of the word to the heathen, showed him his errors, touched his soul, awoke him to the new life, lifted him out of the mire of sin in which he lay wallowing, and showed him the true path. The unconverted heathen mocked and raged, as the heathen always do, and set up more false gods in the shape of bad pictures, and ridiculed the true faith in the columns of their heathen organ, *Punch*. They could not butcher the apostles, or give them to wild beasts to devour, but they inflicted on them all the social persecution that the mild manners of modern times permit, by making them have a thoroughly "bad time." This persecution had its natural effect in strongly stimulating the zeal and devotion of the sect; and no one who has given any attention to its writings or teachings can have failed to notice the sacerdotal tone assumed by it—a tone of which there is a faint echo in Mr. Wilde's platitudes and paradoxes, and even in his dimly religious voice.

Everybody knows now how the church spread; how little by little old Philistines were converted and newborn Philistines were baptized into the new faith. The rage of the heathen disappeared, and on every side the galleries of the old religion were cleared of their Philistine rubbish, and swept and garnished to make room for what was purely true and precious in art.

The success of any church in converting the heathen of course puts it in a different attitude toward society from that which it occupies in the days of its adversity. The Philistine, who, though a man of sin, has a good deal of sense, always keeps his eye on the children of light, and is always willing to take his cue from them when he finds it necessary to do so, and when he does do this he does it handsomely. The Philistine is, after all, of the same flesh and blood as the rest of us, though so hopelessly sunk in the mire. After a time he too joined the Church, and so far as fashionable society in England is concerned, it may be said to have been converted for ten years. The connection between the decorative or æsthetic movement, which Mr. Wilde, with delightful impudence, is undertaking to father in this country, and the old pre-Raphaelite crusade is easy enough to trace. It, too, has been completely successful, and is in full possession of the walls, floors, ceilings, and furniture of the "best society" in England, and to a great and increasing extent of the United States. Mr. Wilde, therefore, instead of being, as he represents himself, a missionary preaching art to the heathen in the wilderness, at the sacrifice of fortune, fame, and everything that the Philistine holds most dear, stands to art more in the relation of the fashionable preacher of a "swell" congregation to religion. To compare profane things to sacred, Mr. Wilde is the Charles Honeyman of the religion of which Ruskin was the St. Paul. When Ruskin preached, society was Philistine, but it now forms the congregation. We all know the spirit in which we listen to a fashionable preacher—how we like to hear him denounce sin, and expose the vanity and frivolity of worldly pursuits, the money-loving and commercial spirit of the age, and how true we feel it to be that collections ought to be taken up for the conversion of others. There is the same vagueness too about the articles of Mr. Wilde's faith that there is about those of the Reverend Charles. The æsthetic principles which he announced on Monday at Chickering Hall were a strange jumble, the chief merit of which lay in the serene superiority of the lecturer to the confusion which he produced in the minds of his audience, and which we notice has led one reporter of it to imagine that he said that English æstheticism sprang from the union of Hellenism with the romantic spirit, "as from the marriage of Faust and Helen of Troy sprang the beautiful Lady Euphonia."

Mr. Wilde, again, represented himself as being determined to carry on the warfare of art against Philistinism to the bitter end, but really he brings peace rather than a sword. Art, when first introduced among the Philistines, did lead to an internecine struggle. It introduced discord into every family, set father against son, and mother against daughter. It inspired passions in the simple-minded, barbarous Anglo-Saxon which nothing else but religion and the

study of language had ever produced. But it is easy to see from the reception we have given to Mr. Wilde that he is not an iconoclast, or in any danger of suffering the fate of a martyr. He is, as we have said, spreading the true faith in art, much as a fashionable preacher spreads the true faith in the Gospel. He and his congregation are really all of one mind, but he has the gift of expression, the sweet eloquence which the successful preacher must always have, and he thoroughly appreciates the value of extravagance in attracting attention. He is glad to have even his congregation laugh at him, if they will only join in his prayer to the Steel of Toledo and the Silk of Genoa, or acknowledge the supreme importance of the "gaudy leonine beauty" of the sunflower, and the "precious loveliness" of the lily.

It makes little difference whether Maudle is the caricature of Mr. Wilde or Mr. Wilde a realization of Maudle. It is the doubt which gives reality to both. There is nothing that shows Mr. Wilde in his true light so completely as his great appreciation of Bunthorne. Bunthorne is an impostor, an "æsthetic sham," and his existence every night tends to make the whole æsthetic movement ridiculous. Now, it is very true that all new movements in art or poetry have had their parodists and satirists. But it never occurred to any reformer before Mr. Wilde that it would be a good thing to encourage parody and satire as a means of keeping the ball going. The same manager "runs" the lecture tour of the æsthete and the operatic company which heaps ridicule upon him. You hear the true gospel at Chickering Hall, and join the mocking laughter of the heathen at the absurdity of it at the Standard Theatre. We must say that, to our mind, Mr. Gilbert has the best of the joke. Real reformers have usually hated, as only just men can hate, those who sneer at reform. It was left to Mr. Wilde to discover the commercial value of ridicule in the good cause. Mr. Wilde is a poet, a preacher, and a man of the world. As a man of the world, he knows that the true way to attract attention to poetry is to shock people's sense of decency, and the true way for a preacher to become fashionable is to make the Word pleasant and soothing to fashionable people, and that a very good substitute for fame is the notoriety attracted by silliness. Mr. Wilde is an essentially foreign product, and can hardly succeed in this country. What he has to say is not new, and his extravagance is not extravagant enough to amuse the average American audience. His knee-breeches and long hair are good as far as they go; but Bunthorne has really spoiled the public for Wilde.

A CHINESE TRANSLATION OF THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

A VERY interesting document has just been prepared by a member of the Chinese Legation at Washington, and forwarded by His Excellency Chen Lan Pin to the Foreign Office at Peking as one of the official returns of his Legation. This is no less than a complete translation of the Constitution of the United States into Chinese, accompanied by an elaborate commentary, both by Mr. Tsai Sih Yung, one of the young attachés of the Legation. Mr. Tsai Sih Yung is not over thirty-three years of age, and has been in America for about three years. While in China he took his bachelor's degree in the public examinations at Canton, and is thus a Chinese of the Chinese—one of the literati. He comes of a distinguished family, whose preserved memorial tablets cover a space of more than a thousand years. Mr. Galton might obtain a new argument for the heredity of genius from the fact that one of Mr. Tsai's ancestors three generations back was Prime Minister of China. This, it need hardly be said, is an unusual honor for a pure Chinese under a Tartar dynasty, and we believe there has been but one other such case.

After gaining his bachelor's degree Mr. Tsai abandoned the high road to promotion open to all the literati, and gave up the career of a scholar pure and simple. He entered the Chinese college of Dr. Martin at Peking, and devoted two years to the study of English. In 1878 he came to America, and while in Washington he formed a friendship with one of the astronomers at the Naval Observatory there, which has led to some results. It was suggested that the time of his official residence in Washington could not be better spent than in acquiring a knowledge of the Constitution of the country to which his Minister was accredited, and accordingly the greater part of a year was devoted by these two gentlemen to a study of the Constitution. Beginning with simple text-books, like Hart's 'Manual,' the ground was gone over several times, and finally Kent and Story were studied and mastered.

After a section was thoroughly understood it was reduced to writing, and any doubts were settled by a reference to professional lawyers who had given special attention to this branch. In this way the translation itself gradually grew. The commentary is the fruit of much conversation, of visits to the Houses of Congress, to the Supreme Court, etc., and specially of an assiduous study by Mr. Tsai of the various functions of the departments of our Government, based on reading, conversation, and personal visits. In the amount of time and labor spent it has been a serious and a delightful task, and too much credit cannot be given to the patience and acuteness with which Mr. Tsai has followed up each question until he reached a solution not only satisfactory to himself but to others.

It is to be remembered that in translating and commenting on principles so foreign to all Chinese ideas as those contained in our Constitution, a familiarity with our entire habit of thinking as a political body is to be first attained. "Liberty" is easy to be found in the dictionary. The associations which cling about the word to an Englishman or to an American need to be well studied to become familiar, or even comprehensible, to a mind trained in Eastern methods of thought. "Duty"—with what difficulty does the Oriental master the inner meaning of Wordsworth's immortal ode! And yet he needs to comprehend it to do his work well. These examples may serve to direct attention to some of the obvious difficulties in the way of making a complete translation. The words, "We, the people," introduce a glaring novelty to an Eastern mind. The whole function of the judiciary is at first a hopeless puzzle. The forms of Congressional procedure, the ordering of the yeas and nays, the counting of a Presidential vote—each phase involves new difficulties. These have been as thoroughly and successfully mastered as was possible in the time, and it is noteworthy that the broad, philosophical principles presented but little difficulty to the acute and scholarly mind trained in a philosophy of another genius. The chief obstacles were found in the details of administration or procedure. There is probably no Oriental now living who possesses so extended and accurate a knowledge of our Constitution as Mr. Tsai, and this knowledge cannot fail to be of capital importance to him in his chosen career.

Of the technical arduousness of translation from the English idiom into one so difficult as the official language of China, this is not the place to speak. It will be best, if not solely, appreciated by those few Chinese scholars who are able to write the official language correctly. When we say that a lifelong residence in China and a profound study of the language do not give this ability, we are not exaggerating. The title-page of the best-known and most valuable work on China, written by one of our first Chinese scholars, contains an inscription in Chinese characters which at once betrays its foreign authorship. In general, those Chinese who are sufficiently advanced in their own literature to write a *Chinese* style suitable for such a document have spent far too many of the years of their lives in its attainment to permit of their acquisition of an alien idiom. The translation in question has had the great advantage of an examination by the learned Dr. Williams, of Yale College, who found but two trifling errors in the first draught. These have been corrected, and after repeated revisions the document has been forwarded to Peking under the seal of the Embassy. It cannot fail to be of importance. If for no other reason, its value in giving exact notions of our forms of government to the ruling powers of Chinese diplomacy can hardly be overestimated.

We understand that this labor of love has brought to Mr. Tsai the high title of *Tajen*—a third (highest) degree scholar—and we must congratulate him on the carrying out of an original idea in what seems to be an entirely satisfactory manner.

THE MANSION HOUSE FUND.

LONDON, Dec. 24, 1881.

IF one were asked to give an account of the topic which has been uppermost in the public mind this autumn and winter, one would have to reply, parodying the words of the late Emperor of the French, "Ireland, always Ireland." But I do not propose to trouble your readers with any general remarks on this absorbing subject, for there is no new phase to report, nor is any change likely to take place in the policy of the Government. From Mr. Herbert Gladstone, who has been spending some time in the country and has had the best means of observation, we had last week a most discriminating résumé of the state of affairs, which confirms what I think is the opinion of the most reasonable men—viz., that no immediate cure is within the reach of statesmanship, and that we must trust to time and patience to set things right. This conclusion will be very distasteful to the impatient fire-eaters of the London press and Conservative party; but the truth seems to be that what is going on in Ireland is neither more nor less than revolution—a blind uprising, which in its irritation and unreason can only be likened to the revolt of the French peasantry against the *ancien régime*. In speaking of the truth, however, in matters Irish, one must always bear in mind Whately's remark that, whereas in other countries truth is said to lie at the bottom of a well, in Ireland she lies at the bottom of a bog, and, instead of coming up clear and bright, comes up muddy and hardly recognizable. So it may be that our observers are all at fault, and that the solution may be nearer at hand than one expects.

A new turn has lately been given to the question by the determination of the Lord Mayor to invite subscriptions toward a fund for the defence of property in Ireland. The position of the Lord Mayor of London is so peculiar and exceptional that a few words upon it may not be amiss. Individually, the Lord Mayor is generally a business man, of no position in society, who succeeds for a brief year to the chief post in a sort of close corporation, and is comparatively unknown outside the sphere of the City, both before and after his year of office. If he thus, individually,

brings nothing to the office beyond the qualities of business capacity and sound judgment which he may possess, neither does the class from which he springs. City honors do not suggest honors of the highest order; an odor of feasting and turtle seems naturally to attach itself to the name of alderman, and samples of "plain living and high thinking" would generally be looked for somewhere outside the order. But in spite of this the Corporation has a great history and position; it stands at the head of all the municipal corporations in the kingdom, and if it is a privileged body whose privileges will not escape revision in this reforming age, it has rendered from time to time important public services. As is the body, so is its head. Knowing no politics during his year of office, and with prestige and traditions that inspire respect, the Lord Mayor has an unrivalled position for heading a movement into which party considerations do not enter. In matters of charity, for instance, he is able, by opening a subscription list at the Mansion House, to stamp a cause in a way which is sure to secure for it a large amount of popular support. Doubtless the present occupant of the office believed that the occasion for such an appeal presented itself in Ireland; but the ill luck which attends those who meddle in such thorny matters as matters Irish has not escaped him; and the fund which he has opened has become the subject of a keen controversy.

In the first place, it was seized upon by the malcontents of the Conservative party and Irish landlord class—all those who have never forgiven the Land Act, and are clamoring for compensation for their reduced rents—and interpreted as a means of supplementing the laches of the Government, and doing by voluntary agency what the authorities had left undone. The late Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, in a letter published this morning, takes precisely this view—whether to the advantage of the fund is doubtful. Secondly, the expediency of importing English money into the agrarian quarrels between classes in Ireland may well be doubted; at any rate, it would have been infinitely better that such gifts should have been made directly to already existing organizations in Ireland, such as the Property Defence Association, than that they should have been asked for with the ostentatious opening of a central fund, directed mainly against one of the parties to the quarrel. Then comes the further question, How is the money to be spent? In defending property and freedom of contract, says the Lord Mayor, and trust us as to the use made of it. But this is precisely what, in the present divided state of opinion on Irish matters, the public will not do. What guarantee is there that the fund may not be used in facilitating evictions? and if you say, Trust us that the evictions shall be just ones, is there any general agreement, one might ask, as to what evictions are just and what unjust? The known opinions of the majority of those on the Commission give no such guarantee of impartiality, but rather suggest a bias in favor of the suffering landlords against the suffering tenants. That there are many persons brought to ruin by non-receipt of rent is unfortunately too true, and naturally much sympathy is felt in their behalf; but the landlord class generally have taken up the position of "Intransigeants"; they repudiate the Land Act altogether, and cry out for compensation, not seeing that, had there been no Land Act at all, so far from getting 75 per cent. of their rents (rents which have come before the Commissioners have been reduced about 25 per cent.), they would not have received a penny, while their highest wisdom would have been to accept the decision of the Commissioners, and reduce their rents accordingly. They have shown so impracticable a temper that sympathy for them among our Liberals has been greatly chilled. Hence the Mansion House fund is the subject of much controversy, and hangs fire.

Two matters connected with our electoral system are also just now attracting a good deal of attention. One of them is a curious illustration of the mode in which acts of Parliament, even on the most important subjects, are framed. Your readers are aware that the suffrage here is not universal; in the boroughs it is a household suffrage, based theoretically upon the payment of rates, coupled with a lodger franchise, to which occupiers of unfurnished lodgings of the annual value of £10 and upward can lay claim, and to both of these franchises a condition of one year's continuous residence, from July to July, is attached. In the case of householders, their names are entered by the overseers upon the rate-book for parochial purposes, and, as the register of voters is made up from the rate-book, their names appear in it as a matter of course and without trouble on their part. But with lodgers it is different: they have to take the initiative in the matter, and make a special claim to get their names placed on the register. Owing to this additional trouble, and to the constant changes of residence among the working-classes, very little use, comparatively, is made of the lodger franchise. In the large towns the working-classes rarely occupy a whole house; they live in one or two rooms of a house the whole of which is often let out in separate tenements; and the question has arisen, In what capacity are these men to claim the vote? As lodgers, probably the uninitiated would answer. But the point is a knotty one, and has a history. The Reform Bill which Mr. Disraeli brought forward in 1867, and which still in the main governs our franchises, was based upon the principle that those who paid rates should have votes; but in order to carry this out without unduly restricting the suffrage, it was found necessary to abolish the practice which landlords of small houses inhabited by weekly tenants generally adopted, under sanction of an act of Parliament—viz., of compounding for the payment of rates, and to make each occupier pay his rates personally. The change worked so inconveniently that two years afterward the system of compounding was restored. But, in order not to interfere with the way in which the register of voters was made up, it was provided that the occupier's name should be entered upon the rate-book, whether he personally paid the rate or not. The question then arose, In a house let out in tenements, which of the numerous occupiers is to be put down on the rate-book? The act of 1867 had made a dwelling-house include "any part of a house occupied as a separate dwelling and separately rated to the relief of the poor"; but these words had no meaning, nor, while the vote was attached to the actual payer of rates, any importance. But when for the rate-payer was substituted the occupier, and by another amending act—viz., that of 1878—the word "dwelling-house" was made to include any part of a house "when that part is occupied separately as a dwelling," and separate occupation of one part is defined as not to be done away with by reason of joint use of some other part, then the perplexities began. Were the rooms thus occupied such a separate occupation as was contemplated in the acts? If not, what was the meaning of the words in the acts? But if they were, who then were the lodgers to whom the act of 1867 had also given the franchise? These questions, after passing through various legal stages, have now been decided on appeal, and the decision is, that when the landlord resides in the house, letting out part of it only, the occupants are lodgers; when he lets out the whole, not residing in any part of it, they are householders.

While this decision is generally accepted as the best under the circumstances, the absurdities which it involves are none the less apparent. Suppose, for instance, a landlord resides for a couple of months in the year in one of his houses, is such temporary residence to destroy the right of his tenants to their vote? It seems so; but the judges would probably say that the absurdities are in the acts of Parliament, and not in their decision. Some changes must probably be made, but meantime the attention of the public is rather directed to the political aspects of the decision. A large extension of the franchise has been given in the large towns, much beyond what Parliament seems to have intended, and some of our newspapers of a weak-kneed Liberalism are aghast. But there is no cause for alarm. The new voters will be of exactly the same class as the old; for the landlord who takes a house and lets it out as a speculation is not a bit higher in the social scale than his lessees, and the conditions of residence will shut out the more floating and less desirable section of the population. London mainly will be affected, and that considerably; but nowhere else does the system of living in tenement houses prevail to anything like the extent that it does in the metropolis.

The other matter to which I have alluded is the bribery sentences. The delightful security under which briber and bribee have been accustomed to carry on their operations has been rudely dispelled by a judicial sentence of nine months' imprisonment on two solicitors for bribery and sending in false returns of election expenses; and of terms varying from six to two months on eight other offenders who have been found guilty of bribery, mostly at the last general election. The sentences have given a shock to some people, who have since been actively engaged in stirring up sympathy for the offenders, and have presented numerously-signed petitions to the Home Secretary, requesting him to remit the penalties. It must be admitted that our treatment of bribery has not been hitherto satisfactory. The political object of finding out whether corrupt practices have prevailed extensively in any borough has thrown into the shade the other object—viz., that of punishing the offenders; and the disclosures which have been brought to light by the various Commissioners have led to an impunity being given, both actually and in public opinion, to the guilty parties. But with all this, it is difficult to see on what grounds the memorialists can logically take their stand. Because the law has often been evaded, there is no reason why it should not be enforced when it has been proved to have been broken. But I need not trouble you with the *pros* and *cons* which have filled the newspapers of late. The Home Secretary has refused to interfere, and I think his decision will be generally approved. The Liberal party at any rate is in earnest in this matter, and it is hoped that, with its majority in the House of Commons, some effectual mode of dealing with electoral corruption will pass into law. H.

PROGRESS OF REACTION IN GERMANY.

BERLIN, December 21, 1881.

ON Saturday last, December 17, the Reichstag adjourned to January 9. Short as this first half of its session has been, its results are important, for they indicate the direction in which the Chancellor is driving our home policy. To mention first the only victory which the Government has gained—the accession of the hitherto free port of Hamburg to the Zollverein. Not that Hamburg will entirely lose its old position, but the free port will, at an expense of at least

$50,000,000 to $60,000,000, be transferred from the eastern to the western bank of the Elbe, and the territorial extent of the new free district is even larger than the ground on which Hamburg stands. Instead of contributing a lump sum toward defraying the expenses of the Imperial Government, the Hamburgers, as members of the Zollverein, will in future pay the same duties and taxes as the other German citizens. That is the only substantial change in the present condition, but whether it is worth so large a sum as above mentioned is a question which it is impossible to answer affirmatively. The majority of the committee of twenty-one members appointed for the purpose of sifting the case would have rejected this needless expense and therewith the whole plan if they had had *res integra* before them; but in last year's diplomatic negotiations the Hamburg Senate and merchants had already yielded their privileges to the outside pressure. They now long for quiet and non-interference, and want a definitive settlement. For this reason the committee will report in favor of the bill although they amended it in some of its minutiæ. Thus the final result is certain: the Government's proposal will be accepted in January without much excitement or discussion.

This victory, however, is about compensated by the rejection of the bill creating the *Volkswirthschaftsrath* (*Conseil Supérieur de Commerce*), which some six months ago had already been defeated by the preceding Reichstag. Bismarck was painfully struck by the small minority, commanding only sixty-nine votes, while its opponents cast 179; he nevertheless declared his intention not to give up his pet measure, but to submit it again and again at every session to the reluctant Reichstag. There is no provision in the German Constitution which can restrain him, although the spirit of a real constitutional government should exclude such anti-constitutional schemes. For the present it is a political and a moral defeat which the Chancellor has suffered, and if he does not change his mind he will see it repeated over and over again. Before the last elections thousands of innocent people were good-natured enough to discover no reaction in the direction of our home policy, but now even the most confident admirers of Bismarck begin to realize the fact that we are in the midst of a most reactionary period.

If any additional proof is required, it would be furnished by the speech which Herr von Puttkamer, the Minister of the Interior and trusted servant of Bismarck, delivered on the 15th instant in the Reichstag, on occasion of the debate on illegally influencing the last election. To characterize it in a few words, it outdid the worst French patterns and outstripped even Louis Napoleon and his Morny in their palmiest days. It was not astonishing that a man like Herr von Puttkamer should use such language; but that he made this speech in the most cynical and frivolous manner before such an audience and with such self-assurance, created a painful surprise. It became apparent from his tone that he was endorsed, not only by Bismarck, but by the old Emperor himself, whose approval he used as a shield. Puttkamer claims the right to employ all his inferior officers for the benefit of the Government candidates, declares all their illegal interference with the election justified by their dependence on the Government, and threatens all those who refuse to follow strictly the ministerial orders and instructions with fines, punishments, and even dismissal. In former times, as in the days of the conflict with Bismarck (1862–1866), the opposing and even radical officers were only threatened with the disfavor of the Minister, or punished by being ejected from a good office to a less favorable one. In the new empire every officer is expected to exert himself in favor of a Governmental candidate, and to vote for him unconditionally, and for so doing is promised the practical thanks of the Emperor. Puttkamer, in his defence and attacks, forgot the dignity of his position, and degraded the Government by descending into the arena of party strife. The Administration ought not to be a partisan; it should rise above the personal altercations of party animosities. His various remarks therefore perfectly astounded his audience at the time, and the people after their publication, the more so as his opponents were much his superiors in the merits of the debate and in point of eloquence.

Benningsen's short answer was a masterpiece of rhetorical and political argumentation. Professor Mommsen, the historian, whom Puttkamer had drawn into the debate without cause, on account of a remark this learned member had made several months ago at a popular meeting, answered the Minister sharply. The latter, in falsely quoting a remark of Mommsen's on the association of the agrarians and ironmongers, had said: "This gentleman is too prone to speak in a lapidary style; he has taken his models from classical antiquity, but his speech reminds me more of Kleon than of Pericles"; whereupon Mommsen retorted:

"The Minister has said that I have followed Kleon rather than Pericles. I, of course, am far from expecting that he should handle his comparisons from Greek history with the same accomplished elegance to which he has accustomed us in other instances. While, however, as former Minister of Public Instruction, he did not look for a Pericles among Prussian professors, and still less find one, as far as Kleon is concerned I cannot believe that the Minister intended to charge me with the polemics of the representative of the Athenian mob. Herr von Puttkamer further says that I like to speak in a lapidary style. That may be so, but if I had known everything that I have heard to-day in this melancholy debate, my lapidary style would perhaps have become still more lapidary."

Mommsen, let me add here, was chosen in a second election at Coburg, and belongs to the Liberal party, the so-called Secessionists.

During the late elections, as in all former ones, the "Landräthe" were the most reckless agitators for the Government, but their mischief and misdeeds were defended by the Minister in every way. A Landrath, a sort of French subprefect, is an administrative and executive officer at the head of a county. This office was created in 1723 by Frederic William I. as a mediator between the country in its relation to the general Government and the King. To make the Landrath more independent of the royal pleasure he was required to possess a manorial estate, and his comparatively small salary was hardly sufficient to cover his office expenses. In the course of time the institution has dwindled down to a sinecure for poor and partly ignorant or even stupid noblemen, or to a transient station for ambitious young officers (*Streber*) of good connections. For the Landrath there in fact exists no law; he does as he pleases, and whenever (and very seldom it is) he is caught in a politically blamable act he falls back on the orders of the Minister, or on the pleasure of His Majesty. All over Prussia there is not a single Liberal Landrath, and every one of them expects to be promoted to the presidency of a whole circuit or even of a province, or one day to become Minister of State. I believe I am not mistaken in estimating that at least two-thirds of all Prussian Ministers have begun their career as Landräthe. We shall never have a constitutional government until this office is entirely abolished, or so much restricted that the Landräthe can do no more harm. While they themselves run as candidates and use the whole Governmental machine to further their election, they refrain from no calumniation of their Liberal opponents, intimidate the farmer and citizen of small towns, and even exclude the Liberal election advertisements from the county papers. They are seconded by the orthodox Protestant clergy and the gendarmes, who are at their command.

It is of course evident that this wild agitation of the Landräthe and the smaller fry under their orders is encouraged by Bismarck and the official press, for otherwise they would not dare to come out so openly. The Chancellor's inborn hatred of parliamentarism manifests itself too impatiently in his dictatorial longings. He will make war to the knife and may defeat his adversaries here and there, but in the long run he cannot triumph and will succumb to Liberalism, which, with the same energy as in former contests with Bismarck, in and out of Parliament, rouses itself into one united political party. Learning from their adversaries, the Progressists, the Liberals (the so-called Secessionists) and National Liberals at present harmoniously work together. Thus, they are preparing a common bill for the protection of workingmen against accidents. All former party quarrels have given way to a feeling of personal responsibility for the maintenance of our political liberties.

The negotiations with Rome are progressing, but still clouded in mystery. Where Herr von Schloezer left off, Dr. Busch, Assistant Secretary of State, has continued. He went to Rome on a so-called pleasure trip, but in fact with express orders to attend to Bismarck's business. The spirit with which the latter meets Roman demands is more than conciliatory, it is even subservient, and meets the Pope more than half way. Leo XIII. having appointed one Herr Kopp bishop of Fulda, the Berlin official organs—the *Provinzial-Correspondenz* marching of course at the head of them—announce his confirmation by the Government with the following comment: "In the interest of our Catholic fellow-citizens we are happy to state that, in consequence of the trusty and confidential advances made by the Roman See, the ordinary administration has been restored in yet another Episcopal seat." Indeed! The Government dispenses the new bishop from taking the oath of obedience required by law, although during the clerico-political conflict he assumed the same attitude toward the Government as all the other Ultramontane priests. The Government in this way makes it possible for the diocese to do away with the stoppage of the bishop's salary, although the position of the clergy toward the laws has not in the least been changed. The Government thus facilitates the filling of an episcopal chair, and its organs attribute this measure to the faithful advances of the Pope. If the mere acceptance of imperial concessions be sufficient to earn official praises, then of course Rome will show herself worthy of them to the greatest extent.

In the meantime the pourparlers and skirmishes between Bismarck and the party of the Centre go on. To-day they coax, to-morrow they fall out; sunshine and rain succeed in their mutual relations. One tries to dupe and outdo the other. In the Hamburg free-port question Windthorst sides with Bismarck, and makes himself as agreeable as possible in coming to his assistance at the head of the Clerical deputies. On the other hand, he introduces into the Reichstag a new bill, abolishing the law of May 4, 1874, which forbids disobedient and removed priests to perform clerical duties and banishes them for contravention. This is a mere feeler, however, and can of course not pass; but it is at the same time directed against the Conservatives to test their assurances of friendship for their Catholic brethren. The Chancellor again tries to arrive at a direct understanding with the Pope by negotiating with

him over the heads of the Centre; but it seems to me as if he were mistaken, and would not succeed in separating master and servant. In short, it is a sad, disgusting, and humiliating spectacle, a mean bargain and traffic, duplicity and falsehood on both sides; and, what is worst, the Chancellor will not only be the loser in this nefarious game if he persists in it, but will at the same time forfeit the last remnant of faith on the part of the Protestant majority.

† † †

MUZZLING THE EGYPTIAN PRESS.

ALEXANDRIA, December 20, 1881.

THE restlessness of the Government on the subject of the press has been manifesting itself in a new Khedivial decree which would lead an unsuspecting reader to imagine that the chief towns in Egypt were in a state of siege, and that the printing-offices were under the strictest surveillance of the military authority. The English newspaper, the *Egyptian Gazette*, is reported to have made a formal protest to the British Consul-General against the new law, as a breach of the Capitulations, which ensure to European residents in the Ottoman dominions the common rights of security to person and property.

According to the new decree, every printer must obtain a special license from the Minister of the Interior, and deposit caution-money to the amount of one hundred pounds. The license can be withdrawn at pleasure. Clandestine printing establishments can be closed, and the owners and occupiers of them fined up to the amount of £150. A printing-house not licensed is to be counted as a clandestine one. Perhaps the most remarkable clause is that which forbids a printer to print any paper whatever, or to sell or publish it, without declaring its nature to the proper authority and depositing five copies of it with the Minister of the Interior. These regulations are enforced by heavy sanctions in the way of seizure, fine, and confiscation. Another serious clause is the seventeenth, which empowers the Minister of the Interior to forbid absolutely the introduction into the country, the circulation, and the sale, of all journals or writings published outside Egypt. All distributors of books, writings, pamphlets, engravings, and lithographs, must be provided with a special license, supplied by the Prefect of Police, or the Provincial Governor, and these licenses can be withdrawn at pleasure by the authorities which granted them. No writing, either in manuscript, in print, engraved or lithographed, except notices issued by the Government, can be placarded in the streets or public places, if it purports to contain any public news.

Those who are familiar with the administrative processes conducted in countries subject even nominally to Oriental, and especially Ottoman, despotic rule, are not daunted by any amount of magniloquent precision in the drawing up of imperious state papers. General instructions as to the sort of thing wanted are supplied by the head of the Government department interested, and some accomplished French, Italian, or Greek scribe does his utmost to evolve the long series of minatory clauses. French draughtsmen, particularly, one of whom especially is credited with the composition of this impressive document, have a good deal of skill in satisfying the Eastern lust for the outward signs of a domination which exists only on paper. The numerous firmans of the Porte, its solemn protestations against acts of European interference, its precise treaty engagements, its innumerable constitutions, are all models of perspicacity and comprehensive codification. Egypt, hitherto, has, through its independent position and bona-fide submission to European influences, escaped this plague of documentary hypocrisy. In the present case the document itself is of the smallest possible practical importance; not because it says too much, but because it says too little. Where no one, whether native or foreigner, has any constitutional rights, it is superfluous to draw attention to one quarter or another in which the blank is grossly obvious. The only limitations to absolute autocracy in Egypt are the Capitulations, which protect the person and property of Europeans; the Mixed Tribunals, which guard the legal rights of Europeans as against the illegality of natives or the Egyptian Government; and the French and English Control, which furnishes a check on such legislative or executive extravagance as might imperil the continuance of the state of things for which the maintenance of the present Khedive on the throne is supposed to be the best guarantee.

The papers habitually published in Egypt for the use of the several branches of European settlers have long been almost worthless when viewed from an American or English standpoint. The *Égypte* attempted to introduce something like an announcement of real news, and even ventured on independent criticism. The instant result was, as already described, decisive and disastrous. The other papers continue to keep up a mild sort of buzz, and by detailing how a well-known pasha has gone from Cairo to Alexandria, and again has gone from Alexandria to Cairo; by one, or even two, serial novels; by lengthened discourses on the cholera and the cattle-plague; by an active correspondence on the unpunctuality of the railway trains, and even by occasional original poetry of an equally diluted nature with the news, contrive somehow or other to keep up the semblance of European newspapers. The result is that these printed slips serve well enough to occupy a small portion of the twenty minutes' journey from Alexandria to Ramleh, where most of the Europeans have their homes, and all real and serious news comes three times a week by the mail-boats from Europe.

It is supposed in some quarters that the meeting of the "notables" may have important constitutional and political effects. These notables are chosen with a show of representative forms, somewhat in the loose way in which representatives of English counties used to be chosen, at the meeting of the ancient county court, by the freeholders assembled by the sheriff. It is believed, however, by those competent to judge, that on this occasion the notables will seriously address themselves to consider the state of the country, and especially the charges on the national finances. It may be expected that the large sums paid to European officials will come under their criticism; and, if this be so, it will be difficult for the Government to resist an appeal proceeding from so dignified an assembly, where it takes the same form and language as that proceeding from military and religious revolutionaries. The result may be some overt act on the part of the Egyptian Government, which will either imperil the continuance of the European Control in its present form, or the tenure of power of the present Khedive. Writing here from Alexandria, I have no doubt that if occasion arises, the European governments will strongly assert themselves, and maintain the Control with or without the adhesion of the present Khedive. The only question debated here is whether an act of incipient armed intervention would be attended by a popular tumult, and whether England and France would succeed in coöperating in such an emergency. There are many, not merely Englishmen, who hold that while England has interests on behalf of her Indian Empire wholly out of proportion to any interests of France, France has tied her hands by her encroachments in Tunis. The consequence anticipated is that in the event of a serious need arising for the preservation of order in Egypt, the task of intervention will fall mainly on England. At the public banquet given last week to Mr. Charles Cookson, C. B., the Consul and Judge here, who had just been created a Companion of the Bath in recognition of his services at the time of the *émeute* in September last, the captain of the English man-of-war now in the harbor (the *Iris*) asserted that while British men-of-war were despatched less frequently to Alexandria than elsewhere, there was no port to which their crews and officers sailed with so much eagerness.

A.

Correspondence.

CLASSICAL AND NON-CLASSICAL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The article in last week's *Nation* on "Classical and Non-Classical" gives rise to fresh consideration of an old problem which has called forth from the opposite camps a good deal of animosity. In connection with the report which expresses the experience and observation of such a weighty body as the Faculty of the University of Berlin, which necessarily deserves serious attention, I think that a few facts must be borne in mind before conclusive judgment is pronounced about the advantages of a classical education over the scientific. I mean to call attention to the merely relative value of this report—relating solely to the peculiar position of German real-schools and gymnasia to the universities, but not necessarily to all schools in general. Complaint is made of a certain *Blasiertheit* of the students from the real-schools, and of disappointing results from the latter, who in the beginning of their career promised a better development. These two facts are readily understood if we consider the peculiar character of the real-school instruction. These schools are frequented not only by men who wish to devote themselves to science, in which wider instruction is given there than in the gymnasium, but also by the great mass of future business men, who go there simply for a so-called liberal education. It is true, this is not the case exclusively; but the number of future business men in the real-schools is vastly greater than in the gymnasia, and also naturally much greater than the number of future scientists in the real-schools. The instruction is adapted to the greatest demand. Modern languages are taught to the neglect of Latin (Greek, I believe, is never taught), with an eye to practical use. The natural sciences are taken up earlier and carried further than at the gymnasium; and this very fact explains the *Blasiertheit* of the real-school student when he arrives at university instruction. He is far ahead of the student from the gymnasium in knowing many facts in physics, chemistry, and botany; and the instruction at the university, beginning necessarily with the most elementary principles again, does not come to him as fresh as to his comrades from the gymnasium, and does not impress him as much. He seems to know it all, appears *blasiert*, and does not give from the beginning his undivided enthusiasm to the subject which the other gives, who, with the additional fine training from the gymnasium, is soon carried up and beyond the real-school student. The instruction which the latter received in the natural sciences answered very well for a so-called liberal education, and is of a grade about equal to that of elementary courses in our colleges—"informing" the scholars very well,

but far from teaching independent work and scientific methods. Laboratory practice is rarely given.

It is palpable that such instruction cannot equal the mental discipline which is instilled by the thorough methods of classical training at the gymnasium; and hence the real-school student, although starting with a better knowledge, but not scientific, is in the end outdone by the finer training of the classical student. The report, then, seems to point rather to a deficiency in the real-school system than to an inferiority of the training to be derived from an early study of the natural sciences. Classical study is old, and has tempered, tested, and retempered its methods, while the study of the natural sciences is young, and, even at that, its methods hardly receive a fair test at the real-schools. Hence, although the report of the Faculty may express precisely the result of this ten years' experiment in regard to the admission of these students, and although it may be for the best interests of the University to call for a revocation of the fiat of the Government in opening the halls of the University, yet it does not prove that the future scientist must go for years out of his line to acquire training.

A. L. K. VOLKMANN.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., Dec. 26, 1881.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow me to say a few words in your excellent paper concerning your editorial account, in the *Nation* for December 22, of a recent action by the Philosophical Faculty of Berlin University? In using the terms "Classical and Non-Classical Training for the Higher Education" for the title of your account, it seems to me that you, in a measure, misstate the question at issue. The Berlin University admits only such graduates of colleges as have had a considerable degree of "classical education," if by this is meant training in Latin and other languages. The difference between the graduates consists only in this, that Greek is omitted in the one and some scientific studies and modern languages in the other. In so far as the Faculty claim that the classical schools do better work in preparing students than the real-schools, they mean that the omission of Greek disqualifies the one class and qualifies the other to the degree indicated.

But it should be noticed, in a fair and impartial study of the subject, that it is claimed by prominent advocates of the real-school that the true reason of the relative inferiority of the real-school graduates is one that has nothing to do with the omission of the Greek from the curriculum. It is claimed, and I can myself testify that the claim is well founded, that as a consequence of a general and, until recently, all but unquestioned belief in the absolute perfection of the gymnasium, or "Latin and Greek" school, parents have, as a rule, sent their smartest sons to the latter school, and the inferior grade to the real-schools. The common belief that Latin and Greek are more difficult than modern languages, explains this prejudice. The manner of instruction in such languages being generally lax and incompetent, because given by teachers who are not specialists, and also because sufficient time is not allowed for it, one need not wonder that the less rigorous and systematized efforts produce less desirable results. It must also be noticed that the real-schools have some defects which time alone can rectify. At present too many things are taught, and there are not enough teachers who are competent in the same sense in which the gymnasium teachers are competent—that is, by thoroughness in a limited field.

These reasons, it seems to me, should be well considered by those who wish to form a fair judgment of the relative merits of the two classes of preparatory schools. Perhaps such a consideration would lead many to conclude that "the most powerful plea ever made in behalf of classical studies" is apt to meet sooner or later with a no less powerful counterplea in behalf of the studies of the real-school, provided the latter succeeds in carrying out the reforms its most competent advocates recommend, and, particularly, in removing the prejudice that has hitherto sent the best material to the gymnasium, reserving the poorest for the real-school.

Very respectfully, C. A. EGGERT.

STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA, IOWA CITY, January 6, 1882.

LAW-MAKING BY COMMISSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While nothing in Federal politics is more indisputable than the urgent need of prompt and systematic reconstruction of the tariff, there are serious objections to the method of doing it by means of an extra-Congressional Commission. If appointed by the President, then, so far as it acts, the result is to that extent legislative work prepared or performed by the Executive. But no matter by whom appointed, the Constitution of the United States has expressly provided for such purposes a representative commission chosen directly, frequently, and territorially by the people. If the Constitution be wrong, then it should be amended directly, but not by implication. If any Congressmen, after availing themselves, as usual, of expert or other testimony *ad libitum*, feel incompetent to vote upon a public question affecting the interests of every one of their constituents, they should not have accepted legislative responsibilities, or, having done so inadvertently, they should resign. To admit incompetence by voting the work upon an outside body not chosen by or responsible to the people, while still holding to their seats, would seem to amount rather to official infidelity than mere political humility. Again, the evil is constant and the necessity immediate. The present patched and incongruous tariff, expensive as it is to execute, is still more difficult of intelligible construction. The jumble of *specific* and *ad-valorem* duties, often mixed and duplicated on the same article, as special legislation or amendments could be got, requires judicial qualities in every responsible official. It has destroyed our shipping, almost abolished the export of American labor in the form of manufactured articles, is pressing upon agriculture, the basis of all interests, and is injuriously affecting many of the manufacturers and all of their consuming operatives.

What the country wants is not the opinion of the President, expressed through a body of his own selection, that the present tariff presses unequally on different industries and sections, because we know that already. The late tariff convention, mostly composed of or representing persons pecuniarily interested in high duties, themselves admitted it, and no well-informed publicist of any shade of opinion now denies it. No speedy relief can come from a commission. Such a body, unless omniscient, must inform itself by testimony that is equally open to Congressional committees, and we must patriotically suppose that their process of perfecting suitable legislation would not be quicker or more effectual than the action of those law-making and political experts upon whom the Constitution and people of the United States have specially devolved the duty.

Relief to some extent might be immediately obtained by some preliminary legislation, without waiting for a complete, well-digested, and final act. After the "fostering" of twenty years of high protection, there must be some limit to the necessity of future protection. Since the last Treasury report shows that the whole duties amounted to forty-three per cent. of the whole imports, such limit might be assumed at forty per cent. It would then be safe to enact immediately a law to take effect after, say, six months, providing that no import duty, whether *specific* or *ad valorem*, or both, should exceed the maximum amount of forty per cent. on cost, and that any excess over that rate now chargeable by existing law should be deducted by the Collector.

Such a measure would give temporary and saving relief to some interests that are being squeezed to death, like the shipping trade. But whether by independent enactment, or not, no such procrastinating contrivance as an extra-Congressional and extra-legal commission should be accepted or tolerated by the friends of personal and commercial freedom, unless in the same act its advocates will give earnest of their intentions by some immediate clipping of the enormous, complicated, and unintelligible import duties, which, surviving the necessities of a great war, are now imposed, and, like all redundant taxation, are to a considerable extent squandered.

I. J. WISTAR.

PHILADELPHIA, January 5, 1882.

THE PRIMARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If the nominating system be changed, so as to have the nominations made at an election occurring in the daytime, and managed, to a considerable extent, as a regular election, how long before you would have half a dozen primaries where you now have one? The friends of the Machine would want to run no risk, and would deem it necessary to hold a caucus to unite themselves firmly. And the Opposition, if they expected to make a successful resistance, would need beforehand to unite on one person, which could hardly be satisfactorily accomplished without a caucus.

In making the nominations for the minor State offices, there could not be expected a very full vote from "the better element"; they show little enough activity at the regular elections, and would certainly show less in making the nominations, whereas the bosses are in train for any and every office.

Would they not fare as well as ever?

C. G. WILLIAMS.

GUSTAVUS, O., Jan. 2, 1882.

[Yes; but no matter how many caucuses they held, their action would not be final. The voters who did not attend the caucus would still have their say. What difference would it make, for instance, in this city what nominations the 13,000 comprising the district associations made, if it were in the power of the 40,000 or 50,000 Republican voters who do not belong to these associations to make other nominations at the poll? The reason why bosses value the caucus so much now, and make such elaborate arrangements for fixing it, is, in short, that when it has spoken, the mouths of all others are closed, unless they choose to go to the trouble and expense of organizing a public bolt. Besides this, if the caucus knew that the outsiders had an easy remedy in case they did not approve its action, assuredly its nominations would be carefully made with reference to the tastes and opinions of the bulk of the party; in other words, the Jakes, Mikes, Barneys, and Guses would be dropped.—ED. NATION.]

UNSECTARIAN ETHICS IN OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A number of citizens of Chicago have recently submitted a petition to the Board of Education of this city, asking that instruction in unsectarian ethics be given in all grades of the public schools here.

The subject is, no doubt, of high importance. Intellectual culture must be supplemented by moral culture. Intellectual culture alone, if not controlled by moral principles, is liable to become a curse instead of a blessing. But have state authorities or communal authorities the right to provide the means for moral culture to go beyond providing for instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic? We claim that they have, and we add that not only have they the *right*, but it is their *duty* to train the future citizen in good morals. This duty, however, is far too much neglected. Our schools suffer under the great fault that they pay too little attention to the *education* of the children, and lay all their stress upon *instruction*—upon instruction in so-called practical branches of study. "Utility" is the name of the guiding-star which directs the course of the majority of our schools. But vulgar utility ought not to be the chief end and object of the schools. They have not fulfilled their great and holy mission when they produce good arithmeticians, efficient bookkeepers, smart business men. They have not come up to their ideal height if they consider it their main aim and purpose so to bring up our youth that they may successfully run along in the race after riches. Our schools ought to strive after higher ideals. They should be among the most potential factors for elevating the nation to a higher plane of morality. The too materialistic character of our schools should be counterbalanced by introducing into them a number of studies such that, even if they be without any visible and measurable value in practical life, they will yet have the tendency and potency to ennoble the heart, to refine the sentiments, to purify the will, and to give to life a higher turn altogether.

A systematic and regular course in unsectarian ethics would be a great help to this end, while casual, well-meant remarks by the teacher would be of no particular educational value.

It is not difficult to grade properly the rich material of undenominational ethics. In the lower grades already it is possible to give instructive, impressive, and attractive lessons to the children on their duties toward their parents, teachers, schoolmates, toward older people, and so forth. In the next higher grade their hearts might be impressed with the duties of employers toward their employees, and of employees toward their employers, with the mutual relations of members of a family, with the duties of the citizen toward the State and the Government, etc. In another grade the children might be taught, to their mental and moral benefit, that while the ambition to raise one's self and to ameliorate the conditions of his life is praiseworthy, yet it becomes every person, under unalterable circumstances, to be satisfied with and reconciled to his station in life; that man ought to be just and honest in all his actions, true and reliable in all his utterances, faithful and diligent in whatever he is obliged to do, charitable and kind to those who are in need, etc. The character of the children might also receive a proper and lasting direction by showing them the moral beauty of having order in all things, of being temperate in various ways, of withstanding manfully all temptations to do wrong, etc. In the next grade the pupils might be advanced enough to pursue a systematized course of ethics, and now would be the proper time to generalize, and to define such conceptions as virtue and vice, equanimity and passion, good and evil, true and untrue, egoism and altruism, and so forth. For the highest grade of our schools we would recommend instruction in empirical psychology, analyzing of characters of men as they appear in every-day life, in history, and in fiction; and, no doubt, such instruction would be of the greatest advantage, intellectually and morally, to the pupils attending our schools.

In imparting such lessons it would be well for the theoretical instruction to be supported and illustrated by stories and examples, which would make these lessons doubly interesting and attractive to the children. In connection there with, classical sentences and aphorisms, full of true wisdom, and sayings and verses from the poets and other great master minds of all ages and nations would have to be explained to and memorized by the children. Their spiritual horizon would thus become greatly widened, and in their youthful days they would gather in a mental store of excellent wise sayings, which, in their advanced years, would be for them an invaluable, refreshing source of joy and happiness, and, possibly, a quickening power for a noble conduct of life.

Some may now admit systematic ethical instruction to be a most important, nay, a most urgent reform in our national system of education. Yet they may say, Where can the time be found for this new study? Our children are already overburdened. They are overburdened. Take off, then, those horrid, stupefying drills in spelling—in spelling even rarely used Greek and Latin words; diminish the useless stuff of geographical and historical details, of names and dates and numbers which the children have to cram into their minds; aim for mental development, and avoid pernicious one-sided cultivation of the memory; and then sufficient time will be found for ethical instruction. And ethical instruction will prove to be a means of ethical education.—Respectfully, B. F.

Chicago, December 23, 1881.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have in press a series entitled "Science Ladders," edited by N. D'Anvers, and to be fully illustrated; a new edition of Crawfurd's 'Portugal'; 'Morocco and its People,' by Edmondo de Amicis; 'Garfield's Place in History,' by Henry C. Pedder; 'A History of the Naval War of 1812,' by Theodore Roosevelt; 'The Geological and Mineralogical Resources of the James River Valley of Virginia,' by J. L. Campbell; and 'Pen Pictures of Authors,' by William Shepard.——Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have in preparation a very full index to Hawthorne's complete works, uniform in size both with the Library edition of them and with the Little Classic.——I. K. Funk & Co. are about to reprint, with the author's consent, Spurgeon's 'Treasury of David,' in six octavo volumes.——'Salaminia (Cyprus): its History, Treasures, and Antiquities,' by Alexander Palma di Cesnola, illustrated with more than two hundred woodcuts, is announced by Trübner & Co., London. It will be a pity, by the way, if General di Cesnola's splendidly illustrated work on his own collection of Cypriote antiquities is to lack, as is rumored, the promised Introduction by Professor Sidney Colvin.——The *Monograph*, "a serial collection of indexed essays" (Bangor, Maine: Q. P. Index), makes a neat volume with its twenty-seven essays, of which two-thirds are biographical, the rest historical. Freeman, Seeley, Goldwin Smith, Hayward, Trollope, Karl Hillebrand, and Karl Blind are the principal foreign authors levied upon, besides some half dozen American. The range is extensive, but, with the exception of the essay on Cleopatra, modern. We are glad to observe that the type, like Dr. Holmes's Utopian berries, "grows bigger downwards" in the series.——Another useful serial completed last month its first volume: we refer to the Monthly Reference Lists issued by the Providence Public Library. The table of contents shows that bibliographical aid has been given not only in respect to current topics like the cession of Dulcigno, the revision of the Bible, comets, the French in Tunis, the centenary of Kant, the Fair-Trade movement, Yorktown, the inter-oceanic canal, Carlyle, and Dean Stanley, but in respect to biographical, historical, scientific, literary, and critical subjects of permanent interest. The lists will be published during the present year for $1 00 per annum in advance. They are adapted to any locality which contains a public library.——Beebe's 'Four-Place Tables' (New Haven: H. H. Peck) contains in a handy, even vest-pocket form, without sacrifice of clearness, the trigonometric functions, both natural and logarithmic, at intervals of ten minutes, with differences, and also the logarithms of numbers with their proportional parts. Four-place tables are sufficiently accurate for the solution of the great majority of practical problems, and this book, made with special reference to the convenience of students in their recitations and examinations, also forms an excellent introduction to Vega's seven and Gauss's five-place tables, inasmuch as it follows in all respects the arrangement of these standard works.——The December number of *Le Livre* (J.W. Bouton) contains interesting papers on the society of fifty known as "Les Amis des Livres," and on another smaller body of bibliophiles who maintain "Le Dîner des Spartiates." There is also a tribute on the literary side to the late collector, Baron James Édouard de Rothschild, with a portrait. The illustration *par excellence* is a likeness in blue of Voltaire. *Le Livre* states that the third volume of the Comte de Paris's History of our Civil War will appear shortly.

—"The librarian who reads is lost," we are told. What is to be said of librarians who write? Catalogues, of course, are expected from them. Systems of classification even, such as Mr. F. B. Perkins, of the San Francisco Public Library, has just published, are not out of the way. But Mr. Perkins's literary activity has not always been so much in the line of his profession. Several English librarians are authors, among others Mr. E. B. Nicholson, of the London Institution ('The Rights of an Animal: a New Essay in Ethics,' and 'The Gospel According to the Hebrews'), who has varied his philanthropic and theological authorship by a translation (in the *Academy* of Nov. 26) of Béranger's "Roi d'Yvetot" in the original measure. The officials at the British Museum, with their short hours of service, have ample time for other work, and their names are continually appearing on title-pages. It is enough to mention Emanuel Deutsch, George Smith, Dr. Samuel Birch, Richard Garnett, Russell Martineau, the late principal Librarian, Mr. Jones, and his successor, Sir E. A. Bond. German librarianships are supposed to be mostly sinecures for the benefit of learned authors—"endowments of research," as the English might say, except that in England it is scientific research chiefly that seeks endowment, and in Germany historical and philological work is more favored. France can show a long list of author-librarians, but their works have been to a considerable extent bibliographical in character. On this side the water, Harvard College Library alone has furnished in forty years Harris's 'Insects Injurious to

Vegetation,' Sibley's 'Harvard Graduates,' Abbot's edition of Smith's 'Bible Dictionary,' Fiske's 'Essays,' Scudder's 'Butterflies,' and Winsor's 'History of Boston.' The American Almanac of the Librarian of Congress is well known, and we were led into this survey of bibliothecarian writers by a pamphlet of his lately published by the Maryland Historical Society on 'The Founding of Washington City, with some considerations on the origin of cities and the location of national capitals,' which begins with some interesting statistics relating to the hypsometry of cities, but is mainly devoted to an abstract of the Congressional debate on the selection of the District of Columbia, and to the retrocession to Virginia and other subsequent action of Congress in regard to the city. Dr. J. H. Trumbull's work on Indian names in Connecticut is but the last of a considerable series of his writings, of the highest authority, of which several are books. Mr. Wm. Hand Browne, of the Johns Hopkins Library, whose excellent manual of English literature was published several years ago, has just given us a translation of Dr. Falke's 'Greece and Rome.' Mr. Wm. F. Poole's historical monographs are well known. The list might doubtless be swelled, and our readers have not forgotten the recent civil-service reform pamphlet prepared by Mr. W. E. Foster, of the Providence Library, nor that on the caucus system which we owe to Mr. J. N. Larned, the head of the Young Men's Library at Buffalo.

—The seventh volume of the Manchester (Eng.) Literary Club consists largely of critical papers. Besides these there are stories and poems, accounts of excursions, and what, for lack of a better term, we may call essays. They are necessarily of various degrees of merit. But the question naturally arises, Why put into this shape writings which if valuable in themselves would be certain to find a place in the periodical press, and, if then deemed worthy of preservation, would be collected into books? The idea of this publication is a good one; but the execution does not strike us as being equal to the plan. Works of this kind, which are destined to take their place on the shelves of libraries, ought not to be filled with essays which can find a lodgment anywhere else, still less with those which cannot. They should include the results of original investigation, or at any rate of useful compilation. Thus a bibliography of George Eliot's writings finds naturally a place in this volume; but the criticisms that follow on George Eliot as poet and as novelist have no reason to show for being included in the same collection. We say this utterly irrespective of the character of the criticisms themselves.

—In putting into print the annual report of its President, Yale College seems to have taken a new departure. The new Freshman Class is, we are told, somewhat smaller than that of the two previous years, while in other and less important colleges the contrary is the case. "Obvious reasons will suggest themselves for both these phenomena. It is hardly proper to suggest or discuss any of these reasons. It is believed however that the guardians of this college may profitably consider some of them." In the first place, there is room for improvement in the instruction given during the first half of the college course. "The general reputation of the College for scientific and literary activity and the presence in its Faculty of men of whom the nation is reasonably proud are no substitutes for the most thorough attention to the drill work of the earlier years, and to the personal culture of the students of the two lower classes." In the next place, when the Corporation have provided teaching merely and nothing else for the Sophomores and Freshmen, they have provided but a fraction of what it is incumbent on them to provide. The culture of the heart, the soul and the body—enthusiasm, diversion, religious fervor and health—remain.

"Whatever can be done to awaken and direct the kindling zeal of those youths who are not ashamed to be called 'college boys,' to vary the burdens and relieve the tedium of their life—whatever can be done to confirm their health, to refine their manners, to awaken their self respect and to stimulate and guide their faith in Duty, in Immortality and in God—not only comes fairly within the scope of the College but becomes a duty which rests upon its guardians."

Without making any specific recommendations in these directions, President Porter proceeds to suggest and discuss another reason why younger colleges attract so many students. "Not a few experiments in College discipline and management are announced in various quarters which promise to relieve students and especially younger students from the sense of constraint and the necessity of constant accountability to monitors and teachers." But this accountability, instead of being an evil, is held by all veterans in college government to be a decided good, and indeed something essential to the formation of character.

"The ease with which in public schools and colleges the plainest axioms of manners and morals are disregarded, and the accepted axioms of courtesy and truth are openly violated by specious casuistry is one of the constant wonders of college life. . . . The true and radical remedy for all these evils, so far as a change in circumstances can furnish any, in our view, is first of all holding the student to his duties as such with no mask or disguise, and next the introduction of as great a variety into the student's life as is practicable—making reasonable provision for attractive amusements and athletic activities."

"Personal care, especially for the two lower classes," is highly desirable, and for this reason additional dormitories should be built, so that Freshmen and Sophomores may not be compelled to take rooms in families.

"The moral and religious condition of the College has been as good as in former years. The manners of the students at the Chapel exercises have very steadily improved within the last few years." "The attendance was never more full, the behavior never more decorous, and the satisfaction with the arrangement [compulsory attendance at prayers and on Sunday] never more complete than at the present time. We should as soon think of abandoning compulsory attendance at the literary exercises as at the prescribed religious services." "It can neither be expected nor desired that they [the students] should not be more or less affected by the speculative and critical doubts which pervade the atmosphere of modern culture, but we are gratified to know that the majority of them are not disposed to form their opinions on these subjects without earnest and candid inquiry. . . . We do not meddle with their [our instructors'] temporary or permanent scepticisms. But we do require that no influences or instructions in any unchristian direction shall be allowed, whether directly or indirectly, and we expect that the public will hold us severely to this as our duty."

"The health of our students has for several years been exceptionally good. . . . The most serious foes to health are late hours, late suppers, insufficient clothing, and imprudent exposures to heat and dampness and cold. . . . The provisions for heating so many of our public and private apartments by steam is, and has proved to be, an important security against disease. The interest in athletic sports is, on the whole, an advantage to health and morals and good manners."

—Money for a physical laboratory has been promised, but the college still needs a new building for recitations, new dormitories for the two lower classes, increase of endowments for existing professorships, and additional funds for poor students and for scholarships assigned upon examination. "The Sheffield Scientific School is more prosperous than at any previous period. . . . Its thorough disciplinary work has been so recently characterized that I have no need to repeat what has been said already." The Theological Department has received from an old benefactor a new library-building.

"The apartments formerly devoted to the library will be applied to other important uses, and the two other constant friends of the Library have transferred their interest in the first apartment to the new. . . . We are not here called on to explain and defend the arrangement after which all theological seminaries in this country are managed. [This seems to allude to a thesis advanced in one of President Eliot's recent reports, viz., that theological training offered at the present low rates tempts lazy and stupid young men to seek a livelihood in the ministry.] No other at present seems to be practicable. If a wise discrimination is exercised by the guardians of these seminaries there is little danger of abuse. The fruits of the beneficiary system have justified all the labor and money that have been bestowed in helping candidates for the ministry to a thorough education. We find abundant occasion to honor the professors in our own Seminary for their self-denying and partially paid labors and to congratulate them on the learned and practical character of their labors to the Christian, the catholic and the missionary spirit of the students."

The Medical School "needs for its success that the incumbents of the Chairs of Physiology, Chemistry, Histology and Pathology should be released from the duties of medical practice and be able to devote themselves entirely to research and instruction." The Law School, the School of Fine Arts, and the Peabody Museum are in a prosperous condition. As for the Observatory, President Porter expresses the hope and belief "that it will soon be developed into new forms of activity and take that place in respect to astronomical research and observation which the rank of the University requires." The treasury of the University has actually had paid into it, in the way of gifts, during the past year, the very considerable sum of $335,000.

—The slow but solid growth of the sentiment favorable to, and solicitous for, the overthrow of the spoils system furnishes instructive points of contrast to the progress of the anti-slavery agitation, the temperance and kindred reforms. No man of marked power has yet arisen to lay aside all other earthly objects, and, courting neither notoriety nor applause, devote himself to enlightening the public upon the nature and magnitude of the evil, and denouncing in trumpet tones an hour's toleration of it. Probably we shall never see him. The temper of our time is adverse to moral and religious fervor; the remedy is not simple, like immediate emancipation by the slaveholder or total abstinence by the drunkard; and whatever political penalties have, until lately, been visited upon the civil-service reformer, he is exempt from the social odium which was at once the spur and the consolation of the ardent champion of unpopular ideas half a century ago. He has, moreover, resources in an independent press unknown then, and his cause is such as to call for less self-sacrifice and abstraction. He cannot, however, dispense with organization, the lack of which, for example, up to the year 1832, rendered all the anti-slavery sentiment of the country unavailable and futile. This, as our readers well know, has within the past three years changed the aspect of the opposition to patronage and the Machine, and given every thoughtful man an assurance of its ultimate and not distant triumph. The Boston and Cambridge associations began last year the publication of a broadside called the *Civil-Service Record*, of which the sixth number in this form bore date of October 22, 1881. The contents of this periodical were both original and selected, and the blank page invited editorial clipping and reproduction. With the seventh or December number a transformation has taken place. The *Record* now appears as an eight-page

monthly, of the size of the *Nation*, and is sent to subscribers at the nominal price of twenty-five cents per annum. The heading still contains the testimony of the late President against "the present system." On the first page Governor Long, of Massachusetts, manifests his adherence to the reform doctrine and measures, and the rest of the paper is occupied with articles and news in the same sense, and with cheering signs of the political influence of the civil-service reform organizations in various States. Thus the whole Rhode Island delegation, even to Senator Anthony, who was willing to unseat Secretary Burch in order to replace Gorham, is practically pledged to support the Pendleton Bill. The *Record* may be obtained by addressing Mr. William Simes, Treasurer, Box 3084, Boston, and a cheaper and more effective method of disseminating principles which it will soon become fashionable to avow, we do not know.

— The late Dr. John W. Draper, whose death occurred at Hastings on Wednesday week, anticipated the judgment of his compeers by issuing three years ago a volume of 'Scientific Memoirs.' In this collection of papers, as we pointed out at the time, it was easy to see "a disposition to show the scientific reader that one of the pioneers in the experimental study of the radiation of heat and light has been strangely overlooked." He preceded Kirchhoff in stating and attacking the problem of spectrum analysis, but missed the discovery which would have guaranteed his fame; he first used the daguerreotype process for taking portraits; he made the first photograph of a celestial object ever known to have been taken, and these are but a small part of his achievements. He was, however, a somewhat solitary worker, and in his publications sought reputation abroad rather than at home. His native country was indeed England, but he obtained his degree of Doctor of Medicine from the University of Pennsylvania in 1836, and almost immediately occupied, at the Hampden-Sidney College in Virginia, the professorship of chemistry, and began his experiments. Three years later he became permanently connected, as a professor, with the University of the City of New York. The breadth of his intellectual powers was shown in some ambitious works undertaken in quite different fields. His 'History of the Intellectual Development of Europe,' and 'History of the American Civil War' stamped him as an original and philosophic thinker, with a marked capacity for generalization ; yet neither brought him the distinction for which he probably looked, and which he felt he deserved, though the former was translated into several European languages. Dr. Draper's sons have already added to the scientific lustre of his name.

—Mr. Richard H. Dana, who died in Rome last week, was better known in the latter part of his life as a lawyer and through his connection with public affairs than as a literary man, but his earliest distinction was gained as a man of letters. His 'Two Years Before the Mast' is one of the most entertaining narratives of the kind in the language; indeed, it may be said to stand almost alone. Men of education and refinement usually make their acquaintance with the ocean in a less practical way, and a literary man's opportunities to acquire materials for describing life before the mast as sailors themselves know it are very rare. The forecastle has been generally studied and written about from the quarter-deck, and it is safe to assume that the quarter-deck has made a good many mistakes in the process. Mr. Dana for two years lived a seaman's life, and, having a remarkable power of observation and description, preserved a record of his adventures which will probably maintain its hold on the public as long as sea life and sea adventure and travel in strange countries retain their hold on the imagination. It is not far from fifty years since Mr. Dana, then a young man just grown up, made his voyage to California, and his account of it is all the more valuable now because such voyages already belong to the past. His ambition, however, was not literary, and his life was mainly devoted to the law, for certain departments of which he had a great aptitude. A good memory and a power of clear and accurate statement are enough to ensure success at the bar, and besides having both these to a remarkable degree, he possessed a rhetorical ability of no mean order. In his day the art of oratory was held in high esteem in New England, and the public men of Massachusetts were all more or less "finished speakers." There is nothing that passes away more completely than a fashion in oratory, unless it be a fashion in acting, and in a very few years it will be left to guesswork and vague tradition to preserve the memory of what was once a remarkable local school of public speaking. Mr. Dana, while he lived, was a connecting link between the rhetoric of our day and the classical period represented best, perhaps, by the frigid classicism of Everett. Webster and Choate profited by the existence of the school, but they were both geniuses, and cannot be reckoned among its products. Mr. Dana outlived the taste which made the school possible, and in his later days he could hardly be said to be successful as a public speaker. The ordinary audience, especially the ordinary accidental political audience, such as gathered to hear him in his canvass with Butler, found him too artificial and tainted with "dignity." Indeed, Butler, who, with the cunning of a true demagogue, succeeded in making the constituency imagine the contest to be between the people on one side and a haughty aristocrat on the other, was partly enabled to do so by the aid of Mr. Dana's rhetoric, which was a little too much that of a "gentleman of the old school" to be useful on the stump.

—Mr. Dana's name is connected with many well-known civil and criminal cases—the Shadrach and Burns slave cases, and the prize cases in the Supreme Court being perhaps the most important. He was also United States District Attorney in Boston from 1861 to 1866. His familiarity with questions of public law led, after the close of the war, to his preparation of an edition of 'Wheaton's International Law,' which proved a most unfortunate undertaking for him. The previous editions had been brought out by Mr. William Beach Lawrence, and on the publication of Mr. Dana's Wheaton he brought a suit against his successor for infringing his copyright. A long litigation ensued, and though Mr. Dana's character and standing made the suggestion of intentional plagiarism an absurdity, the charge of infringement was sustained. The explanation of this curious piece of ill luck commonly accepted among lawyers was, we believe, the great difficulty of stating legal propositions advanced by previous writers in original language. The words used become an essential part of the expression of the idea, and every new writer who goes over the ground is forced to expose himself to the charge of plagiarism, since he cannot always vary the phraseology. Anybody who will take the trouble to go over two or three of the newest law-books on any given subject, and compare a few pages of them critically with a classical work on the same topic, will have his eyes opened to the widespread possibilities of innocent plagiarism which legal literary production affords. In 1876 Mr. Dana was nominated as Minister to England to fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of General Schenck. He was eminently fitted for the position, but his suit with Mr. Lawrence was used by his enemies to defeat his confirmation. He did everything that he undertook well, and in private life his talents and accomplishments were very marked. He was an admirable story-teller, and an adept in the now pretty nearly lost art of conversation ; and conversation, as it was practised by our fathers and grandfathers, was a fine thing in its way, however superior we may find the easy-going "talk" that has taken its place in our day.

—One of the innovations introduced at the Wagner Festival at Bayreuth in 1876 consisted in the lowering during the performance of all the lights in the auditorium, so that the audience sat in comparative darkness. The principal object in doing so was to prevent the reading of the text-books, which constantly distracts the attention from the proceedings on the stage, and spoils the illusion. That this could be done with comparative impunity at Bayreuth was due to the fact that the vocalists had been selected with especial regard to their dramatic endowments, first among which is a distinct articulation. In the ordinary German opera-house it will still be found that a majority of the audience follow the performance of a Wagner music-drama with text-book in hand, so as not to miss the sense of gratification at the close correspondence everywhere between the words and the music. In Italian operas there is no such correspondence, the libretto being merely the peg on which the melodies are hung. If the small boy, nevertheless, finds it profitable to sell Italian-English libretti on the street and in the lobby of the opera-house, it is because many buy these little books for the sake of the synopsis of the plot which is usually contained in them, while few take the trouble to endeavor to follow the absurdly naïve words that underlie the songs. Under these circumstances nothing would seem more desirable, both for the sake of economy and convenience, than a small volume containing short synopses of the most popular operas, which could be read over before leaving one's house, thus refreshing the memory in regard to plots which the wofully inadequate acting of most Italian singers generally leaves in the densest obscurity. An operatic *vade-mecum* of this sort was published a few years ago by Boosey in London, edited by A. S. Gatty, and another has now been issued by "Notelrac," under the title, 'Operas : their Writers and their Plots' (Lippincott). Gatty's is the more comprehensive of the two, as it is intended to include all the operas habitually performed in England, while "Notelrac's" embraces "the operas now in use upon our American stage." So far as this latter volume goes, it seems to be well done and accurate throughout. Its shortcomings are an excessive brevity in some cases, and the omission of several operas, such as "Fidelio," "Hamlet," and "The Flying Dutchman," which have been heard in this country, and may be heard again any season. These might have been advantageously substituted for "Un Ballo in Maschera" and "Il Poliuto." The operas of each composer are preceded by brief biographical sketches.

—If the third concert of the Symphony Society had taken place two weeks later, it might have been supposed that the occasion had been chosen to celebrate the fortieth birthday of the opening piece—Mendelssohn's Scotch Symphony. Many of Mendelssohn's compositions have lost their freshness—notably his Songs without Words, of which the majority are flavored with a molasses-candy sweetness that soon cloys the appetite. But of those of his compositions which have stood the test of time and the changes in musical taste the Scotch Symphony is a good example. It is

one of the few fortunate works which were enthusiastically applauded at their first appearance and are equally sure of the appreciation of a cosmopolitan audience a century later. Dr. Damrosch conducted this work with an excellent appreciation of the author's intentions, and the result was a performance which, in delicacy and expression, left nothing to be desired. In the rendering of the last piece the orchestra was equally good. The fiery, stirring rhythms of Liszt's symphonic poem, "The Battle of the Huns," were brought out with great emphasis by the brass, while the strings and the organ furnished that striking contrast between the Christian spirit and Asiatic ferocity which helps to make this one of Liszt's most popular compositions, to judge from the applause it always receives. The poem was suggested by Kaulbach's picture of the same name, and is such a genuine inspiration, and so admirably reflects the spirit of that painting, that one can only wish that some of our modern composers would spend more of their time in picture-galleries. The scene from Wagner's "Siegfried"—"Waldweben"—which formed the only other orchestral selection, was not so satisfactorily played, so that the audience endeavored to have it repeated. The scene represents *Siegfried*, under a large tree in the forest, listening to the rustling of the leaves and the song of the bird which tells him where he can find *Brünnhilde*. The movement of the violins is so peculiar and novel, and the rhythm of the bird-song so free and quaint, that the proper effect is not easily obtained. To be more definite, we mean that the violins did not quite succeed in making their instruments whisper and blend in such a manner as to convert their notes into one general confused impression, as in the rustling of forest leaves. In the last bars of Berlioz's duo nocturne from "Beatrice and Benedick" the orchestra also failed to reveal the full charm of subdued color which at a previous performance had so vividly suggested the lingering traces of a gorgeous sunset. The vocal parts were sung by Miss Hattie L. Simms, who confirmed the good impression recently made in the "Messiah," and Mrs. Belle Cole. Miss Simms also sang with a firm, pure tone and correct expression one of Beethoven's songs, "Der Wachtelschlag." Beethoven, the great symphonist, is as a song writer far inferior to Schubert, Schumann, Robert Franz, and Rubinstein, his "Adelaide" being perhaps the only one of his songs that would deserve being bound in the same volume with Schubert's "Ausgewählte Lieder." "Der Wachtelschlag" is not even one of his best songs, and we can only wonder at the choice of such an empty piece for such an occasion. The orchestral accompaniment did not improve the quality of the piece at all, but rather injured it, just as at a previous concert of the society "Adelaide" was spoilt by the dethronement of the piano and the incorrect phrasing of Campanini.

—The Princess de Lesignano has had printed at Brussels 'Les Constitutions de tous les pays civilisés,' collected, arranged, and annotated by herself. It is a large volume, magnificently printed, and adorned with the portraits of the sovereigns who have granted the constitutions and of the authoress herself. Copies have been presented to all the public libraries in France, and probably to all the crowned heads in Europe and to the Pope. And now comes the Republican *Revue Politique* and cruelly points out that this costly work of a descendant of the Crusaders, in giving as the constitution of the Holy See the famous Syllabus of the 8th of December, 1864, has omitted the anathematical heading of the summary of the chief *errors* of our age; so that the Pope is represented as declaring that—

"ART. 1. There is no Supreme, Divine Being, perfect in his wisdom and his providence, distinct from this material universe. . . .

"ART. 5. Divine revelation is imperfect. . . .

"ART. 6. The Christian faith is contrary to human reason. . . .

"ART. 7. The prophecies and the miracles recounted in the Holy Scriptures are poets' fables.

"ART. 64. The violation of the most sacred oaths, the most criminal and shameful actions, and those most opposed to the eternal law, are not only not blamable, but on the contrary are entirely lawful and worthy of the greatest praise, when they are done for the love of one's country.

"ART. 65. It is by no means proved that Christ has raised marriage to the dignity of a sacrament."

Such is the bitterness of party feeling now in France, and such is the folly of mankind, that no doubt many an extreme Republican will hear of this with the keenest pleasure, and feel as if he had a new justification for his dislike of the Church; and many of the *cléricaux* or the *dévots* will be filled with bitter mortification at what is after all very likely only the blunder of a foreman in making up his pages. No doubt "cancels" will be forwarded by express to the libraries and the royal recipients, and the few copies that have got into irreverent hands and are suffered to preserve their "blasphemy" intact will take rank with the "vinegar" and the "breeches" Bibles, and that other which gives the Seventh Commandment as, "Thou shalt commit adultery," and when sold hereafter at the Hôtel Druot will bring fabulous prices. Bibliophiles have feared that by the gradual drifting of rare books into public libraries the market would be depleted—their occupation gone. It appears that the production still continues, not, however, we fear, in proportion to the demand. The few copies of the 'Constitutions de tous les pays' will do little toward satisfying the appetite which the late Sunderland sale shows to be greater than ever.

—The recent International Oriental Congress at Berlin, in its Semitic section, adopted a resolution expressive of its wish to see published the collection of photographs of eminent Persian monuments and inscriptions taken by Dr. Stolze in 1878, just before his return to Europe. The publication is now announced by A. Asher & Co., of Berlin, at the subscription price of one hundred dollars, for two solidly-bound volumes, containing a hundred and fifty largest-folio plates, with accompanying account of the inscriptions by Nöldeke, one of the foremost Semitic scholars of the day. The first volume will present most of the views from Persepolis, the second will add those from Istakhr, Pasargadæ, Shahpur, and elsewhere. Both are promised to appear in the course of this year, and the subscription-list is open until the 15th of March. It is much to be hoped that copies enough will be taken in this country to put the work within the reach of scholars and students of antiquity.

ABBOTT'S PRIMITIVE INDUSTRY.

Primitive Industry; or, Illustrations of the Handiwork, in Stone, Bone, and Clay, of the Native Races of the Northern Atlantic Seaboard of America. By Charles C. Abbott, M. D. Salem, Mass.: George A. Bates. 1881.

IN Thoreau's 'Journal' for 1859, the following characteristic entry occurs under date of May 2:

"I feel no desire to go to California or Pike's Peak, but I often think at night with inexpressible satisfaction and yearning of the arrow-headiferous sands of Concord. I have often spent whole afternoons, especially in the spring, pacing back and forth over a sandy field, looking for these relics of a race. This is the gold which our sands yield. The soil of that rocky spot of Simon Brown's land is quite ash-colored (now that the sod is turned up) from Indian fires, with numerous pieces of coal in it. There is a great deal of this ash-colored soil in the country. We do literally plough up the hearths of a people, and plant in their ashes. The ashes of their fires color much of our soil." (*Atlantic Monthly*, May, 1878, p. 570.)

To many it will be a new conception of Thoreau which is called up by this picture of the lonely transcendentalist "pacing back and forth over a sandy field," looking for arrow-heads; and yet it is entirely in keeping with all we know of his mental habits and style of life. Many a man more matter-of-fact than Thoreau was has "spent whole afternoons" in the same apparently useless employment, moved not by the acquisitiveness of the curiosity-hunter, but by the thought that he is gathering and preserving the "relics of a race." To this large and increasing class of students the author of 'Primitive Industry' evidently belongs. As he says in his preface, he lives "in a neighborhood once densely populated by the Indians, as attested by the thousands of stone implements that are scattered over the fields"; and he has elsewhere, from time to time, indicated the nature and extent of the work he has done in this rich archæological field. Some four years ago he had on record nearly 14,000 specimens gathered from an area of about 1,000 acres; and these accumulations (deposited in the Peabody Museum, Cambridge) have doubtless been largely increased since then.

Of the industrial condition of the "roving" (in distinction from the "village") Indians, ere, it had been touched by the influence of European civilization, a remarkably succinct account has been given by the late Lewis H. Morgan:

"They had developed many useful arts. They possessed the art of striking fire; of making the bow, with the string of sinew, and the arrow-head, both of flint and bone; of making vessels of pottery; of curing and tanning skins; of making moccasins and wearing apparel, together with various implements and utensils of stone, wood, and bone; of rope and net-making from filaments of bark; of finger-weaving, with warp and woof, the same materials into sashes, burden-straps, and other useful fabrics; of basket-making with osier, cane, and splints; of canoe-making—the skin, birch-bark, and dug-out; of constructing timber-frame lodges and skin tents; of shaping stone mauls, hammers, and chisels; of making fish-spears, nets, and bone hooks, implements for athletic games, musical instruments, such as the flute and the drum, weapons, and personal ornaments of shell, bone, and stone." (*North American Review, October*, 1868.)

For the filling up of the outline thus rapidly but accurately sketched, Dr. Abbott's book furnishes abundant materials. There is scarcely a point referred to here which he does not touch upon; and while from the nature of the case his immediate object is to describe the implements which remain—imperishable because of stone—yet the fact that they are implements leads us back to the uses to which they were put; and by degrees the primitive Indian life grows to a vivid picture before the mind of the reader. The volume is thus a valuable addition to the sum of our knowledge of the aboriginal man. As such, it is abundantly worthy of a place beside Colonel C. C. Jones's work on the 'Antiquities of the Southern Indians,' Professor Charles Rau's account of the 'Archæological Collection of the United States National Museum,' and Mr. Evans's elaborate treatise on the 'Ancient Stone Implements, etc., of Great Britain.' Its general resemblance to the last-named work—due allowance being made for the wide difference in the field of research—is very noticeable; and this resemblance is increased by the fact that both works contain at the end chapters on palæolithic implements.

To one who keeps the run of archæological research and authorship in America, it cannot escape observation that the substance of Dr. Abbott's volume has already appeared in other

forms—first, in various articles in the *American Naturalist* and other periodicals, and again in the Smithsonian Report for 1875, where, under the title of 'The Stone Age in New Jersey,' it occupied 135 pages—to say nothing of the fifty-odd pages of poor woodcuts at the end. We have not instituted a careful comparison between 'The Stone Age' and 'Primitive Industry' (Dr. Abbott would doubtless be glad to have the former work entirely forgotten); but we have gone far enough to perceive how great an improvement the new book is upon the old. It is specially to be regretted that in the new volume the old woodcuts should appear. When published by themselves, they looked sufficiently coarse and rude; but when placed side by side on the same page with those of a somewhat better style (as on pp. 101, 111, 203, 352, 353), the effect is incongruous and disagreeable.

The main title of Dr. Abbott's book suggests the criticism that a more careful classification of the various objects described might very well be made, or, rather, a classification upon a somewhat different basis. The author intimates that herein his method is the result of "following the references of the early writers to the utensils and weapons of the Indians" (p. 2). This simply accounts for the various groups of implements treated of in the successive chapters, such as "grooved axes," "celts, chisels and gouges," "mortars and pestles," etc. But it would have been in keeping with the object of the work, as indicated in its title, to group more definitely by themselves the implements and utensils of industry (with special reference to fishing, hunting, agricultural, and domestic uses); to place in a second group the various weapons of war; to throw together in a third class the various ornamental and ceremonial objects (including pipes), and to place in a fourth class the "tools," such as drills and pecking-stones, with which the other implements were manufactured. On a close examination of the so-called table of contents (which is, however, simply a list of chapter-headings, without any indication of the page on which a chapter begins), we conclude that such a grouping as this must have been in the author's mind; but if it had been brought out more distinctly in the "make-up" of the volume, a certain shapeliness would have been imparted, the picture of aboriginal life would have been more nearly complete, and a greater impressiveness would have been the result. And it would not have interfered with the execution of this plan if the large class of implements finished by chipping or flaking had been separated from all others, and thrown into a group by themselves (of course with proper subdivisions). At the same time, it is important to remember here what is true in every science, that classification is a strictly subjective process, and that it is very easy on the one hand to place together things that differ essentially, and on the other to "make a distinction where no difference exists."

'Primitive Industry' abounds of course in minute details, some of them interesting only to the specialist, others well fitted to catch the attention of the ordinary reader, and place him *en rapport* with the aboriginal life which the author so fondly depicts. We have marked various passages, but can quote only one or two which may be of interest to the general reader.

The migratory character of the Indian tribes, as revealed by the distribution of their stone relics, is well brought out, in the author's very unpretentious way, in the following:

"The frequent wars or wanderings of a community and bartering may have resulted in the commingling of the axes of a multitude of localities, many of them miles distant from each other. It is known, too, that tribes came from long distances to make autumnal visits to our sea-coast, and, of course, on such journeys they would always be provided with, and frequently lose, as they passed through the State, many specimens of both weapons and domestic implements. The routes taken by the Indians who annually crossed New Jersey, from their homes in the mountains of Pennsylvania, on their autumnal visit to the sea-coast, were well known to the early surveyors of the State; and several of the principal thoroughfares, extending from the Delaware River eastward, are the sites of those trails over which the Indians had been accustomed to pass for unknown centuries. It is in the immediate vicinity of these trails that we still find a great number of the various patterns of stone implements and fragments of pottery, which are largely the traces of those inland communities which passed yearly, by the same path, to their chosen locality on the coast. Year after year they camped at the same spot while en route, and left imperishable traces of their sojourn by the sea, in the well-known Indian shell-heaps" (p. 16).

At various points in the volume there are interesting accounts of "deposits" which have been discovered, especially in New Jersey, which seems to be peculiarly rich in archæological treasures. Take for example the following:

"In one case, in digging a cellar in Trenton, N. J., one hundred and twenty [axes] were found, 'all closely huddled together,' as described by the man who found them. They were about three feet below the surface, and a foot deep in the gravel underlying the soil. They were surrounded by, and entirely covered with, a bright brick-red powder. Again, in digging the receiving vault of the Riverview Cemetery, near Trenton, a bushel basketful of these axes was found, packed closely together, six feet deep in the ground. . . . In another case, fifty porphyry celts were found. These appeared to have been carefully deposited, and not thrown pell-mell into the hole dug to contain them. In all such cases of deposits of either axes or celts, there has been no commingling of a number of forms of implements, nor any trace of fire. The inference, judging from the conditions under which those in New Jersey were found, is that they have been buried for the purpose of temporarily concealing them." (p. 34).

The bearing of the abundance of relics upon the question of population is not lost sight of:

"In some localities, of several square miles in extent, there have been found from three to five axes in every one hundred acres, and still others are brought to light by the plough. Allowing but one-half of the smaller number to have been left lying in every one hundred acres of the State's area, when abandoned by the Indians, there would remain, for the benefit of archæologists, the enormous number of 125,000 stone axes. . . . It is quite within reason to believe that one-half that number were left by the resident Indians when they relinquished their territory to the founder of Philadelphia. However incorrect the above estimate of the abundance of axes in New Jersey may be, it is certain that there have been many hundreds gathered in the past, without any apparent diminution of their numbers. Yearly the plough upturns as many as in previous years, and the thoughtful observer who chances to seek for these scattered relics is amazed at their frequent occurrence. Supposing that these grooved axes, except such small examples as were probably toys, were used and owned only by men, does this great abundance of them indicate a larger population than is generally supposed to have existed at any one time? or may we take it as indicative of a smaller community whose occupancy extended over an immense lapse of time? . . . Several early authors mention the fact of the handing down from father to son of the cherished stone axe, to fashion which 'the life of a savage is often insufficient.' This shows that the custom of depositing them in graves was only occasional; and therefore it may be considered that such setting aside of a certain number would not materially affect any calculations based upon their numbers as now found scattered broadcast over the entire area of the State" (pp. 9, 10).

We might in this way go through the volume, picking out significant items or paragraphs of succinct description, calculated to increase the interest of the modern man in his aboriginal predecessor, and revealing at the same time the author's thorough study of his subject. While there are verbal inaccuracies and carelessly constructed sentences in every chapter, there is at the same time on every page evidence of painstaking labor and an almost ideal devotion on the part of the writer to his chosen theme. The result is a highly creditable and permanently valuable work—a noteworthy addition to that series of illustrated works on American antiquities which was begun sixty years ago, and has been steadily enlarging ever since. The list is one which by its length suggests a large constituency of readers.

It would be impossible, in a single notice, to follow the author through his detailed descriptions of axes, and hammers, and knives, and drills; of mortars, and pestles, and pots; of agricultural tools; of plummets and net-sinkers; of arrow-points, and spear-heads, and war-clubs; of pipes, and ornaments, and ceremonial objects. These things, and many more, are treated of in a series of twenty-seven chapters, occupying four hundred pages. After this comes a valuable chapter on copper implements, in which it is well remarked that the occurrence of such relics is "interesting in itself, but of no ethnological [and we may add, no chronological] significance." Next comes a chapter on some of the tools used by the Indians in manufacturing their implements—hand-hammers and rubbing-stones; and then the volume broadens out into a dissertation, a very excellent one, upon "flint chips"; a good account of the shell-heaps of the sea-coast and of inland rivers; and lastly, an elaborate discussion of the palæolithic implements found by the author in the gravel of the Delaware River near Trenton.

In regard to the shell-heaps, Dr. Abbott agrees with the late Professor Wyman and Professor Rau, that they afford no such tokens of antiquity, upon exploration, as do the "kitchen-middens" of northern Europe; yet he concludes from certain general considerations relating to these remains—their relative position, extent, etc.—that they suggest a period of occupancy of the Atlantic seaboard which must be measured by thousands of years. In the "open-air workshops," from which large gatherings of flint chippings have been made, he finds additional evidence of the antiquity of the Red man; and from many examinations of the sites and remains of such manufactories he constructs a vivid picture of the aboriginal industry popularly known as arrow-making. The description of one of these workshops, on pages 455 to 459, is well worth reading, as an illustration of the scientific method of research and the popular way of putting things. One of the minor conclusions drawn from the entire discussion, although familiar to students, may be a new discovery to many—namely, that implements chipped from stone "were made by comparatively few persons, who supplied the people of their respective tribes with such implements as they required" (p. 468).

About eighty pages are devoted to a discussion of the palæolithic implements, an amount of space fully justified by the importance of the subject. Dr. Abbott acknowledges frankly that in previous publications he has "probably ascribed too great an antiquity to these implements," having been misled by the chronological data of the geological "Reports"; but he considers them, nevertheless, as proving that man occupied the upper valley of the Delaware when "essentially glacial conditions" existed there. In order that the whole subject may be placed fairly before the inquirer, he is furnished with abundant data (together with illustrations of a dozen specimens) in Dr. Abbott's own chapter, and a strictly geological view in Mr. H. C. Lewis's treatise, in chapter xxxiii., on the "Antiquity and Origin of the Trenton Gravel." The author's conclusion may be summed up as follows: That these remains (the discovery of which *in situ*, let us say in passing, is still debated,

whether past question or not) are of artificial origin; that they belong practically to the glacial period; that they possess, therefore, a very high antiquity (although not so high as at first supposed); and that they probably belonged to a race represented to-day by the Eskimos. At the close Dr. Abbott puts forth the interesting but precarious hypothesis that the Eskimo race is of American, and the Indian race of Asiatic, origin, and so leaves his reader at an open door, looking out upon the broad expanse of prehistoric time.

One of the interesting features of the work is the confirmation of the author's views respecting the uses of implements by references to early writers, such as Kalm, Loskiel, etc. It would have been well to prefix to the volume a slight bibliography, giving some account of these men, and fixing the time at which their visits were made. It would have saved trouble not only to the reader, but to the author. To illustrate: In the middle of the volume, Kalm is introduced as "Peter Kalm, the Swede, who visited New Jersey in the middle of the last century, and has left us an excellent account of the resident tribes and their customs," etc. This is as far along as page 279, although Kalm has been repeatedly mentioned on previous pages. Another Swedish author, more frequently quoted than any other of his authorities, unfortunately appears in every instance as "Holm." We supposed it was by this time generally understood that "Thomas Campanius Holm," on the title-page of Du Ponceau's translation, meant Campanius of Stockholm. There are various other errors which a careful proof-reading ought to have excluded. The obsolete form "doubtlessly" constantly occurs instead of "doubtless"; and such mistakes as these are met with: "Three divisions, each antedating the other" (p. 3); "From the great number of axes already gathered, *and that remain to be gathered*, it is clear that this form of weapon was in constant use" (p. 9).

JOWETT'S THUCYDIDES.—II.

Thucydides. Translated into English, with Introduction, Marginal Analysis, Notes, and Indices, by B. Jowett, M.A., Master of Balliol College, Regius Professor of Greek in the University of Oxford, etc. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.

"WHAT are all the Roman historians to the great Athenian? I do assure you that there is no prose composition in the world, not even the 'De Corona,' which I place as high as the seventh book of Thucydides. It is the *ne plus ultra* of human art. I was delighted to find in Gray's letters the other day to Wharton, 'the retreat from Syracuse—is it, or is it not, the finest thing you ever read in your life?'

"Most people read all the Greek that they ever read before they are five and twenty, . . . Accordingly, almost all their ideas of Greek literature are ideas formed while they were still very young. A young man, whatever his genius may be, is no judge of such a writer as Thucydides. I had no high opinion of him ten years ago. I have now been reading him with a mind accustomed to historical researches and to political affairs; and I am astonished at my own former blindness, and at his greatness."

Will the crowd of readers to whom Prof. Jowett has revealed Thucydides enter into the language in which Macaulay expresses his just enthusiasm for the "greatest historian that ever lived"? We doubt it. The thousands who have devoured Macaulay's own 'History of England' like a new novel will find it a task of difficulty to realize the charm of his idol. The retreat from Syracuse, the analysis of the revolutionary movement at Corcyra, or the funeral oration of Pericles, will, it may be hoped, make even dull readers feel that Thucydides was a master of the historical art. But whoever expects to find in the pages of the Athenian writer reading which is at once easy and brilliant, instructive and entertaining, is certain to meet with disappointment. The very beauties of classical writers are all but inconsistent with the diffuse and popular mode of narrative to which the present generation are accustomed, and among classical writers Thucydides is less suited than many others to entertain the general reader. Herodotus, Plutarch, Livy, Tacitus are each (though in very different ways) far more likely to catch popular taste than is the Athenian exile. Moreover, Macaulay's eulogies, true and well-founded as they are, may possibly lead students away from the true point of view whence to appreciate the genius of Thucydides.

Macaulay's admiration is kindled mainly by those qualities which the Englishman and the Grecian had in common—capacity for impressive narration, and experience in political affairs. In each of these qualities Thucydides, it is true, excelled, but they do not constitute the essential note of his genius. Historians may be roughly divided into two classes: they are either narrators or critics. The one body make it their main aim to draw a picture of the past, the other make it their main object to explain the causes of past events. The one class (among whom Macaulay himself would always occupy a high place) are essentially painters; the other class are essentially men of science. The extraordinary glory of Thucydides is that, endowed with unrivalled powers of narrative, he was also the first, and still remains the greatest, of critical or scientific historians. His story of the retreat from Syracuse will rank for ever among the immortal monuments of Greek art; but as an artist he has rivals, though he has no superior. As the inventor of genuine historical criticism and systematic historical research, he has stood so completely alone that we may well doubt whether among the ancients the true nature of his greatness was ever thoroughly understood. Modern science (we have been told by competent judges) establishes that Hippocrates was centuries beyond his age in genuine knowledge of medicine, or rather in knowledge of the way in which the art of healing should be studied. Modern conceptions of historical study have for the first time made men feel that Thucydides was as much before his age, or rather before the ages which followed him, as was his contemporary, the great physician. Each, in fact, represented the astounding advance made by Greek genius, in the days of its first freshness and its unexhausted strength, along paths of investigation which were ultimately left almost unexplored by the leading spirits of the classical world. If Thucydides is to be truly understood, he must be looked upon mainly as the first thinker who treated the history of man as a branch of knowledge, presenting not so much tales to be told with all the arts of literary grace as problems to be solved by all the means of rational thought and of careful investigation. At a time when the words "science" and "scientific" are constantly used so as to conceal looseness of thought under a pretentious show of accurate language, one is almost afraid to call Thucydides scientific lest one should simply stimulate the pernicious taste for "tall talk." The term, however, so completely suits the facts that it is hard to find a better, and the best service which reviewers can render to readers is to point out examples, lying on the very front of Thucydides' narrative, of his keen appreciation of what would now be called the science of history.

Thucydides, in the first twenty-three chapters of his work, sets forth indirectly, but none the less distinctly, his whole historical method; and students who read these chapters with care may easily convince themselves that the Athenian writer had mastered all the essential principles of investigation. He perceives, in the first place, what thousands of theorists have forgotten, that the study of history is at bottom merely the collection of facts and the examination into evidence. Hence his introductory chapters point with clearness to the true source of error as to the events of the past—namely, the credulity of mankind, who "do not discriminate, and are too ready to receive ancient traditions about their own as well as about other countries," and the indolent carelessness which makes "men take so little trouble in the search after truth, and so readily accept whatever comes first to hand." Aware of the true causes of error, he lays down the mode of proceeding by which he attempted to avoid or minimize mistakes:

"As to the speeches which were made either before or during the war, it was hard for me, and for others who reported them to me, to recollect the exact words. I have therefore put into the mouth of each speaker the sentiments proper to the occasion, expressed as I thought he would be likely to express them, while at the same time I endeavored, as nearly as I could, to give the general purport of what was actually said. Of the events of the war I have not ventured to speak from any chance information, nor according to any notion of my own; I have described nothing but what I either saw myself, or learned from others of whom I made the most careful and particular inquiry. The task was a laborious one, because eye-witnesses of the same occurrences gave different accounts of them, as they remembered or were interested in the actions of one side or the other."

This passage has been frequently quoted, but it is hardly possible for any one wishing to appreciate the high standard of historical truth set up by Thucydides to meditate too often on the words we have cited. Neither Livy, nor Plutarch, nor Tacitus, nor, indeed, any Greek or Roman author, has exhibited anything like the same desire to make his narrative correspond with actual fact. We may, indeed, go a great deal further than this, and safely assert that down to quite modern times historians did not attain to the conception of historical accuracy proposed to himself by Thucydides. The notion that a writer should not, so to speak, "improve" his narrative, and in fact treat history as a branch of moral rhetoric, is more or less a modern conception; and among authors who would now acknowledge that the method of Thucydides is the only true and justifiable mode of narrative, there are few who rigidly adhere in fact to principles which they own to be theoretically valid. The names, at least, of Froude, Lamartine, and Thiers suggest that even in the nineteenth century authors of great talent may be content to write mere "prize compositions," and cannot boast that they have never written "according to any notions of their own."

In the second place, Thucydides has clearly discovered the use of that "comparative method" which is often treated as something like a modern invention. He sees, that is to say, that the condition of more or less uncivilized races, or the surviving customs of earlier times, throw a distinct light upon the early history of what were in his day the civilized countries of the world. Thus, he points out that the unsettled condition of early Greece

"is proved by the practice of certain tribes on the mainland who, to the present day, glory in piratical exploits, and by the witness of the ancient poets, in whose verses the question is invariably asked of newly-arrived voyagers whether they are pirates; which implies that neither those who are questioned disclaim, nor those who are interested in knowing censure, the occupation. The land, too, was infested by robbers, and there are parts of Hellas in which the old practices still continue. . . . The fashion of wearing arms among these continental tribes is a relic of their old predatory habits. For in ancient times all the Hellenes carried weapons because their homes were undefended and inter-

course was unsafe; like the Barbarians, they went armed in their every-day life. *And the continuance of this custom in certain parts of the country proves that it once prevailed everywhere.*"

These last words contain the gist of the whole matter. When theorists draw from the condition and the laws of barbarous races, or from "survivals," inferences as to the past condition, say, of early England, or it may be of early Rome, they simply apply with more or less ingenuity to newly-noticed facts the canon that the continuance of a custom in certain parts of the world tends to prove that it once prevailed everywhere. Our latest investigators into the past have before them a far wider field of experience and of knowledge than that which opened itself to the gaze of Thucydides, but they have not advanced a step beyond his principles of historical comparison.

Thucydides, thirdly, from his use of the comparative method, shows, what is indeed apparent from other features in his work, his perception of the identity (or one should rather say similarity) of human nature among different races and peoples. This is the most extraordinary mark of his profound originality. All the principles, beliefs, and sentiments in which we are educated tend to impress upon us the unity of the human race. In this respect religious belief in the descent of all mankind from common parents has aided and facilitated scientific speculation; for it has made it easy for modern theorists to accept the fact that the condition of races in different stages of civilization throws light on the steps by which the civilization of the most civilized countries has been developed. There was, on the other hand, nothing except the insight of genius to suggest to an ancient Greek that all mankind were so united together that the state of uncivilized races illustrated, or might illustrate, the history of the Hellenic race. This perception of something which may almost be described as the unity of mankind, or at lowest the universal influence among all men and among all races of the same principles of action and of feeling, is closely connected with the constant attempt on the part of Thucydides to refer all events to "the order of human things"—or, to use modern expressions, to the laws of human nature. Happily, in his time the much-abused term "law" had not come into use as describing a real or supposed principle of science; but no human being can doubt that the whole mind of Thucydides was turned toward discovering the laws of history:

> "Very likely the strictly historical character of my narrative may be disappointing to the ear. But if he who desires to have before his eyes a true picture of the events which have happened, and of the like events which may be expected to happen hereafter in the order of human things, shall pronounce what I have written to be useful, then I shall be satisfied."

Here we have, ages before its time, the notion so prevalent in our own day, that from the past you can predict the future, and base a science of history on the knowledge of past events combined with an analysis of the motives of human action. How far this attempt to lay down historical laws will ever be practically successful, is a matter on which dogmatists of rival schools pronounce contradictory judgments with equal confidence. Sensible men will long, probably, prefer to leave the speculative question whether history can be made into a science unanswered, and at the same time to welcome with gratitude any plausible historical generalizations which can be shown, at any rate, not to be at variance with known facts. The one thing, however, which is certain is, that the only chance of giving any certainty to general historical conclusions is, that inquirers should enter upon historical investigations with the absolute calmness and impartiality which befits men whose sole object is the acquisition of knowledge. As regards this attitude of impartial indifference, Thucydides is assuredly the most scientific of all historical writers. To inquire, to know, and to present to the world the results of his knowledge appears, as far as modern readers can judge, to have been the sole aim and reward of his labors. To assert that he has been perfectly fair in his judgments or statements is, of course, absolutely impossible: you cannot, though men as able as Mr. Grote have attempted to do so, correct the assertions of your sole witness. But a critic will hardly go far wrong who assumes that in the main Thucydides preserved the attitude of a calm scientific observer. It is difficult to say whether his sympathies, if any, were really with Athens or with Sparta. If it were not for the funeral oration of Pericles, which is in reality a eulogy of Athenian freedom in contrast with the dull severity of Spartan discipline, one might suspect that Thucydides inclined to the view that the cause of the Lacedæmonians was, so to speak, the cause if not of justice yet of order, and that he looked upon that cause with something like the approval with which, toward the beginning of this century, all respectable persons regarded the opponents of revolutionary principles.

But, in truth, such conjectures are utterly vain. Thucydides remains for ever the model of the passionless historian. He analyzes the horrors of the Corcyrean reign of terror as calmly as he analyzes the symptoms of the plague at Athens. It is hardly possible to discover a trace of moral blame, or of moral eulogy, throughout his pages. Goodness and badness are each facts of human nature. He notes them as facts, and, having done this, has performed the task of scientific narration. Whether this attitude be an attitude which any writer of modern times, imbued with the moral sentiments which are the growth of centuries, can take up, may admit of doubt. What does not admit of doubt is that this attitude of genuine moral indifference is the only position which becomes a theorist who is honestly bent on treating the facts of human nature as simply an object of knowledge. For the science of history, as for every other science, you need the guidance of perfectly "dry light." Your observation must not be distorted by passion or sentiment. It is because Thucydides could bring this passionless analysis of facts to the study of events which had excited passions as violent as those kindled by any revolutionary era, that he not only anticipated historical principles of later ages, but also, in a certain sense, was a more scientific historian than any of the writers who have followed him. He invented a *novum organum* for the study of history which his contemporaries hardly valued, and which later ages have valued without possessing the power to give full effect to its canons.

He is the most solitary genius of the ancient world; and it should be fairly noticed that his fate has been the fate which inevitably befalls men greatly in advance of their age. His speculations assuredly did not guide the historical theories of Greek or Roman writers, nor have his works exerted anything like the influence on the modern world which has been exerted by the books of authors intellectually far his inferiors. Plutarch, Cicero, and Livy have each in different manners profoundly affected the sentiments and even the actions of later generations. They have guided, or have misguided, all the enthusiasts who fancied they could find a democratic Old Testament in the annals of the classical republics. Plutarch has at times been a real power in Europe. The lessons of Thucydides have roused no one's enthusiasm, and have given instruction only to thinkers here and there, such as Hobbes, who brought to the study of mankind a spirit congenial to the genius of the great Athenian. Nor does the fact of an author being before his age make him preëminently useful to future times. His principles by degrees become admitted, but he is inevitably wanting in the knowledge acquired by the generations who at last appreciate his principles. To modern investigators, a chronicler and traveller such as Herodotus presents information of far greater value than the speculations of Thucydides. Though his genius cannot be understood unless it be recognized as emphatically the genius of a man of science, it is by his art that Thucydides has lived and will live. He has accomplished his object: he has produced a work which "is an everlasting possession, not a prize composition which is heard and forgotten."

AYRES'S VERBALIST.

The Verbalist: A manual devoted to brief discussions of the right and the wrong use of words, etc. By Alfred Ayres. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1882.

Of the many wretched works of this kind which have come under our observation, we are disposed on the whole to give this one the credit or discredit of being the most wretched. Its poorness of execution is made unusually conspicuous by the tone of pretension which runs through it. To prepare properly a work treating of correct usage would be one of the hardest of achievements. It would need not merely the most cultivated literary taste, but also a thorough acquaintance with the origin and history of the language, and the words and grammatical forms and idioms belonging to it; an intimate familiarity, moreover, with the usage of the best writers both in past and present times; and, in addition to all this, a certain degree of general knowledge of the principles of linguistic science, and a certain degree of special knowledge of the tongues allied to our own. As a matter of fact, works of this kind have usually, if not invariably, been written by men who had not the slightest claim to any of these qualifications. The author of this volume is no exception to the rule. He not only lacks the general or special knowledge that is required, he has not even the slightest conception that any such knowledge is required. He has accordingly pitchforked into this volume a lot of crude statements about words and idioms from every author he has come across, who has treated of the subject. Many of the writers he quotes are nearly, if not wholly, as ignorant as himself. Of course it would be impossible to get together such a collection of matter without its containing some things that were true, and a few things that were valuable. But the rubbish in this case immensely exceeds the portion which has any excellence, for if there is anything especially absurd that any one else has said, the author of this volume seems to have had an unerring instinct for getting hold of it and adopting it as his own.

This may seem harsh criticism, yet it is not only true, but it is needed. Books of this kind, compiled by men who have no real knowledge of the subject, are coming to be intolerable nuisances. They misstate facts, they lay down distinctions that do not exist, they teach the ignorant to criticise others without knowledge and to live themselves in mortal terror of their own tongue. We are told, for instance, in this volume, under "done," that "this past participle is often very inelegantly, if not improperly, used thus: 'He did not cry out as some have *done* against it.'" Of course the impropriety, if there be any, belongs to all parts of the verb *do*, and is not con

fined, as would be inferred from this extract, to the past participle. Now, the employment of *do* to supply the place of the preceding verb is a usage that goes back to the very beginning of the language. It is as common in the English of the ninth century as it is in that of the nineteenth. It gave rise after the Norman conquest to verb-phrases of the kind represented by "I do love," "I did love," though these inflections were never common till the fifteenth century. There is no writer of repute in any period who has not made use of this so-called impropriety, nor has probably any educated speaker failed to employ it who has spoken the English tongue during the past thousand years. We now learn that it is at any rate inelegant, if not worse. A similar statement may be made of the adverb *no* in the phrase "whether or no," though our limits do not allow us to go into its special history. But the special qualification of the author of this volume for deciding upon its correctness may be inferred from the fact that he calls the adjective *no* in "no grace of diction" an adverb. So, also, we are told that "at length" is often used instead of "at last," as if there were something extremely improper in attributing length to time as well as to space, and as if in good usage the phrase was not as a matter of fact far more often employed in the sense of "at last" than in that of "to the full extent," or "fully."

The author has a good deal to say in denunciation of a supposed prevalent fondness for the use of big words—a fondness which, so far as cultivated men are concerned, exists entirely in the imagination of men who write books like this. At the same time it is hard to find the line he draws. For instance, in the case of *loan* as a verb, we are informed that "it is quite certain that it is only those having a vulgar *penchant* for big words who will prefer it to its synonyme *lend*." There may be objections to the word; but this is certainly a singular reason for not using it. *Loan* and *lend* have each four letters; the former, indeed, could get along comfortably with three. They both come directly from the same Anglo-Saxon verb, *lænan*, "to lend," unless one is disposed to regard the former as coming from the corresponding noun *læn*. Of the two, *loan* is etymologically more correct: for *lend*, instead of being *len*, as it ought to be from the point of view of the purist, assumed in Early English a *d* to which it is not entitled, in consequence of a false analogy with *rend*, *send*, and similar words. This *d* it has since retained without protest, our amateur philologists not having as yet found out the fact of its intrusion. Similarly, we fail to see why *allude* is any bigger word than *refer*. The special signification of the former is breaking down, not on account of its size, but because the distinction conveyed by it is pretty certain to be missed by any one who is not familiar with the Latin primitive from which it came.

But it is not alone with the established idioms and usages of the language that Mr. Ayres wages relentless war. He is equally hostile to individuals—to persons as well as to that particular word. Under *Swosh* he exposes Ralph Waldo Emerson in a way that ought to make the admirers of the Concord philosopher hang their heads in shame. Under *Diction* he pounces upon Professor Dwight of Yale College, and shows that reverend theologian how to revise the Bible by revising for him one of his own paragraphs. Under *Amount of Perfection* he lets us know he could tear Matthew Arnold in pieces if he had the mind; the actual performance is doubtless reserved for a future edition. But it is toward Dr. L. T. Townsend, Professor of Sacred Rhetoric in Boston University, that he displays the greatest animosity—why, it is hard to see. The professor has written a treatise on the art of speech which exhibits a good deal of the same miscellaneous misinformation that is to be found in this volume. Emerson's writings assume for their appreciation a certain degree of ability and cultivation on the part of the reader. It is not so with the 'Art of Speech'; and as its author is just as accurate as some of the other authorities quoted in this work, we are at a loss to understand why he should be so persistently attacked.

We have given far more space to this volume than it deserves, because it is a specimen of a class which needs to be suppressed. They may, and do, furnish amusement to students, but they bring little but misery to the half-educated, who are the ones that consult them. Let him who wishes to use his own language properly study its greatest masters, both the living and the dead. What they say he may feel himself justified in saying, no matter how much it may be condemned by grammarians or newspaper correspondents, or those pests of domestic circles who concentrate their linguistic energies on the denunciation of some word or meaning or phrase to which they have taken a dislike, but the origin and history of which they do not make the slightest pretence to know.

SCHOULER'S UNITED STATES UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

History of the United States of America under the Constitution. By James Schouler. Vol. i., 1783–1801. Washington: W. H. & O. H. Morrison. 1880.

With all its faults, Hildreth's has as yet kept its place at the head of our general histories of the United States, for our other historians have either copied or exaggerated the faults of Hildreth's method, while they have lacked his multifarious sources of supply or his painstaking completeness in the use of them. He and his imitators have given us beautifully articulated skeletons, every part in its exact place, every incident chronologically correct; but the spark of genius which shall yet make these dry bones live, is not there. He who reads Motley's histories rises at least with a tangible idea of the specific differences of feeling and thought, as well as of action, which distinguished the Dutchman from the Spaniard; but he may read all our histories of the United States without gaining any such living conception of the differences which distinguish the American people of 1870–80 from the American people of 1850–60, of 1820–30, or of 1790–1800. If he reads the declaration of Jay, that a king of the United States might be necessary as a last resort; of Hamilton, that corruption was the most valuable element in the British political system; or of Jefferson, that there was nothing objectionable in "a little rebellion now and then," since blood was "the natural manure of the tree of liberty," he will probably be impressed very much as if they had come from Edmunds, Blaine, or Bayard respectively, and be dumfounded or disgusted accordingly. He will find similar causes producing the most bewilderingly diverse effects at different periods, and will probably take final refuge in the conclusion that American history is, like the Ptolemaic system, a chaotic record of undigestible observations.

There are, however, strong indications that historical realism is soon to evolve the needed history of the United States. Dr. Draper's 'History of the Civil War,' in its introductory chapters, was the first effort to give the reader some clear idea of the life and limitations of the people of our earlier period before narrating their actions as a state; but the space was limited, and the effort can only be regarded as a first step on the road which our history must finally take. Since its publication, almost every year has been giving us such monographs as Johnston's on the Yorktown campaign, and Draper's on King's Mountain, which are very largely shaped by the same idea. Now, in Mr. Schouler's first volume, we have an attempt to make this principle of realism the foundation upon which a complete history of the United States shall be erected, and to carry the reader into the very centre of events, so that he may not only judge the results from the standpoint of the present, but may realize the moving causes from the standpoint of the past. Mr. Schouler enters in detail into the social and economical life of the people; their recreations; their habits of thought and action; their municipal arrangements; the character and influence of the immigration; the influence of classes and families upon the mass of voters; the difficulties of intercommunication; and the provincial peculiarities of the newspapers and other sources of popular information. And the result is a book which, though very far from perfection, is in many respects the most real history of the United States yet produced for the period which it covers. It would be difficult to show the prevailing tone of the volume without quoting too extensively, but the following extract (*anno* 1789) may serve as an example:

"One must admit that the venerating applause at this period of 'the man who united all hearts' had a modicum of foolish adulation. The tributes paid him in his day were quite often dictated by bad prosers and worse poets. Birthday and procession odes became the favorite doggerel of the day, many of them having that smack of Tate and Brady which bespoke a psalm-singing age. One song began:

> 'Arrayed in glory bright,
> Columbia's saviour comes.'

Another proceeded in like strain:

> 'His glory shines beyond the skies,
> From heaven proceeds.'

With stanzas like these, set to appropriate music, a choir would stand before the President when he appeared upon a public tour, and launch the loud pæan at a face which relaxed nothing of its habitual expression of calm serenity. This was an age over which the royal atmosphere still hung. Such ascriptions were heard as 'Long live George Washington!' or 'God bless your reign!' Religious, municipal, and social bodies continually preferred their addresses of congratulation for a gracious acknowledgment. All were obsequious. Indeed, the plain words with which the Quaker selectman of Salem welcomed the President to that town contrasted very strongly with the other speeches made upon his Eastern tour: 'Friend Washington, we are glad to see thee, and in behalf of the inhabitants bid thee a hearty welcome to Salem.'"

The period covered by the larger part of this volume (1789–1801) is in many respects the most important in our political history, and he who takes into consideration the shortness of the time must find some reason for wonder in the amount and thoroughness of the work which was done in it. Of no other people can it be said that in a single decade, and that too so early in its national history, it produced a written constitution so exactly suited to the genius of the people that there was no further apparent need for extensive change, except in the abnormal influences of slavery; an exhaustive constitutional commentary, which still stands at the head of works of its kind; a smoothly working national government complete in all its parts—in treasury, state, war, navy, and postal departments; and last, but not least, a plainly marked political line, on which two great parties could safely divide, so as to make permanent constitutional government not only possible, but almost a certainty. All this was secure before 1799. Succeeding generations, finding the work of organization done to their hand, and only the

work of administration left for them, naturally almost apotheosized the founders of the republic. "Inspiration" and "almost divine prescience," instead of plain common sense and political capacity, have been credited with the success of the experiment. The consequence is that the thoughtful political student is as apt to err in the opposite direction, by forming too low an estimate of them. Approaching them as demigods, he finds their human infirmities more glaring; had he approached them as men, he would have been more likely to rate them fairly.

The very permanence of their work, too, has done much to distort our ideas of them. To Jefferson, for example, the individual citizen is indebted for at least one-half of his political stature; but Jefferson was unfortunate in living so near the time of the organization of national government that he could see no *locus standi* for the defence of individual rights except in State sovereignty. There are therefore thousands who know Jefferson as the father of nullification and secession to one who knows him as the father of the democratic idea, to whose steady extension we owe exemption from class and family influence, the public-school system, universal suffrage, the abolition of slavery, national conventions, rotation in office, and countless other dispensations of more or less doubtful advantage, which have grown to seem, to the modern American, as natural as the air. Hildreth gives hardly any personal attention to the actors of the period of which he treats, with the exception of Jefferson; to his portraiture, mental and moral, he returns again and again, and is hardly willing to consider his work finished when its subject has formally retired from politics. Mr. Schouler, on the contrary, has attempted to make the men of the time real to the reader's eye, not lay figures. Hardly any one of importance is mentioned without a few touches of personal description, drawn apparently from the contemporary newspapers; and the characteristics of the leaders, Washington, Hamilton, Jefferson, Adams, and others, are treated minutely and largely. An extract from the dozen pages devoted to Washington will show the minuteness of the descriptions:

"It appears certain that Washington had neither wit nor a salty humor. He conversed sensibly and well with the guest at table, but a witty sally disturbed him, and to any thrust of ridicule he was keenly sensitive. No *bon mot* is known to have escaped his lips. Young ladies pleased him with their vivacity, and in one or two burlesque scenes on his plantation, which cannot be funnily described, he astonished the household by breaking out into a long and hearty laugh. Otherwise his face, unless he was angry, wore that calm and placid expression of repose with which his pictures make us so familiar. And yet a dry, almost sardonic, sense of humor peeps out of his correspondence in by-places, of a quality still better illustrated, perhaps, by the authenticated instance where he turned sharply upon a little boy who was running after him admiringly from his tailor's, through a retired street of Philadelphia, and, taking off his hat, made him a profound salutation. Unless the ludicrous aspect of the curiosity he everywhere excited sometimes amused the great man, he cannot have been human."

Mr. Schouler's style is sometimes harsh, as the extracts given will show; but his first volume has a higher merit in its exactness, its minuteness, and the realism with which it delineates the persons and places, as well as the events, of our first twelve years of national life.

Encyclopædia Britannica. Ninth edition, vol. xiii. Inf.-Kan. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

A LARGER number of weighty contributions interesting to specialists and scholars will be found in this than in most of the preceding volumes. There are: "Italy," by five writers, including Symonds, Prof. Ascoli, and Prof. Bartoli; "Iron," by Dr. Wright; "Infinitesimal Calculus," by Prof. Williamson; "Ireland," by Henderson, Sullivan, and Bagwell (each of which articles would fill a small octavo volume); extensive articles on "Insanity," "Inscriptions," "Insects," "Insurance," "Japan," "Java," etc.; and numerous essays on Biblical subjects, all remarkable for familiarity with the latest results of inquiry, and some for original research. The biography of the volume is perhaps less rich than that of others, though including lives of Isæus and Isocrates, by Prof. Jebb; Jefferson, by Bigelow; Jenghiz Khan, by Prof. Douglas; Justinian, by Bryce; Juvenal, by Prof. Sellar; Kant, by Prof. Adamson; and Macaulay's "Johnson," a remnant of former editions. Among the more important geographical contributions are Henry Rawlinson's "Ispahan," Col. Yule's "Kafiristan," Capt. Holdich's "Kandahar," and "Jerusalem," by Lieut. Conder and Robertson Smith. The bibliography attached to the longer articles is generally very full and fresh, and marked by great typographical correctness in the foreign titles. Less satisfactory are most of the portions of reçent historical interest in geographical articles—a defect particularly striking in a cyclopædia excluding the lives of all living men. Thus, the history of Italy from 1861 to 1881 is quite too "briefly told" in one column, while the work contains no "Garibaldi," no King "Humbert," no "Depretis," etc., and "Victor Emanuel" is still so far off. Under "Kandahar" there is no mention of the battles fought before that town within the last few years, though "Afghanistan" was finished long before they took place, and the work will naturally ignore Gen. Roberts, as living, as it did the present Amir Abdurrahman and his enemy Ayub Khan, and thus probably leave the most interesting portion of recent Afghan history entirely untold.

A worse instance, but fortunately an exceptional one, of ignoring late events is the entering of "Ismail" as still "a town of Roumania," "in accordance with the treaty of Paris (1856), by which that part of Bessarabia in which Ismail was included was made over to Roumania"—though the town and the district were restored to Russia in 1878, in accordance with the treaty of Berlin. "Joséphine" is one of the old sketches left unrevised, we presume, in spite of much that is new on the subject in late publications on Napoleon I. and his court. "Inquisition" and "Isabella I." are other samples of inadequate treatment, while "Jackson" ("Stonewall") is a specimen of gross superficiality. In the whole sketch of the Confederate general, only two chronological dates referring to the campaign in Virginia are given, one of them contained in the following: "Jackson's first exploit in the war of secession was the capture, on May 3, 1861, of the Federal arsenal at Harper's Ferry"—a false statement from beginning to end, as Harper's Ferry was evacuated, after the burning of the arsenal, by Lieut. Jones, of the Federal Army, on April 18, 1861, and immediately occupied, without striking a blow, by the Virginia militia, before the secession of that State. Other notices of American subjects are much better, though "Johnson, Andrew," "Johnston, Albert Sidney," and a few more are rather meagre. Hindostan is particularly well represented under geographical titles. The worst omission in European geography is that of Jutland, which is not even entered in a reference to "Denmark." Lack of symmetry strikes one unpleasantly in some of the joint productions, especially in "Inscriptions," of which the Roman division, by Prof. E. Hübner, is exceedingly learned and comprehensive, while the Semitic, by Prof. Sayce, only rouses the reader's curiosity, without in the least satisfying it, by fugitive statements like this: "The earliest Hebrew inscriptions are three from Siloam, one of which is addressed to 'Baal of the temple,' a fragment found in the streets of Jerusalem by M. Vernes, and a boundary-stone discovered by M. Ganneau near Gezer."

On the whole, however, it is Hebrew subjects that have received the most careful elaboration. The editor of any cyclopædia not specially Biblical might justly be proud of such a series of articles in one volume as is formed here by Prof. Wellhausen's "Israel"; Cheyne's "Isaiah," "Jeremiah," and "Jonah"; Robertson Smith's "Joel" and "Judges"; Davidson's "Job," and Ginsburg's "Kabbalah"—to which may be added the unsigned smaller notices. "Jacob," "Jehovah," "Jephthah," "Joshua," "Judah," etc.—all breathing the same spirit of untrammelled critical investigation. The results are such as the editors of former editions of the 'Britannica' would never have thought of popularizing had they been then sufficiently matured. Wellhausen's "Israel" will be exceedingly welcome to all who possess the first volume of that learned author's 'Geschichte Israels' (Berlin, 1878)—a volume mainly introductory—and have been so long anxiously waiting for the appearance of the continuation. In the earlier history of the Hebrews he occupies a standpoint fully as radical as Kuenen's, as may be seen from the following:

"If the legislation of the Pentateuch cease as a whole to be regarded as an authentic source for our knowledge of what Mosaism was, it becomes a somewhat precarious matter to make any exception in favor of the Decalogue. In particular, the following arguments against its authenticity must be taken into account: (1) According to Ex. xxxiv., the commandments which stood upon the two tables were quite different. (2) The prohibition of images was during the older period quite unknown; Moses himself is said to have made a brazen serpent which down to Hezekiah's time continued to be worshipped at Jerusalem as an image of Jehovah. (3) The essentially and necessarily national character of the older phases of the religion of Jehovah completely disappears in the quite universal code of morals which is given in the Decalogue as the fundamental law of Israel; but the entire series of religious personalities throughout the period of the judges and the kings . . . make it very difficult to believe that the religion of Israel was from the outset one of a specifically moral character. . . . (4) It is extremely doubtful whether the actual monotheism . . . could have formed the foundation of a national religion. It was first developed out of the national religion at the downfall of the nation."

Cheyne and Robertson Smith virtually occupy the same radical standpoint, but their enunciation of critical results is cautiously slow, and almost timid, while Wellhausen's tone is always independent and energetic, and here and there, where much doubt is justified, exasperatingly positive. A diametrically opposite standpoint in religious history, it is hardly necessary to state, is that occupied by Canon Farrar in the article "Jesus Christ."

Cuban Sketches. By James W. Steele. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1881.

MR. STEELE'S sketches seem rightly named, in that they are of a free and light texture. It may be that they would have been more pleasing had they merited the designation of sketches at certain particular localities—"sketches on the spot." They are admitted to be the impressions that have abided with the author since his return to this country from the island, where he resided a number of years as a United States Consul. He therefore deals mainly in generalizations.

However, if somewhat wanting in truth to localities, he is not, judged by the sharpness of the characterizations in his light essays, without realism of a larger kind. His study of the Cuban seems to result in confirming what is probably the ordinary view of those enjoying but a slight acquaintance with the subject; which may either show that the author is not a profound investigator, or that the ordinary view is correct. "He [the typical young Cuban] appears to you at first a man all eyes, hair, teeth, and shirt-collar." He is an irreclaimable fop, has a rooted antipathy to labor, and is lacking generally in the positive and manly qualities. In particular the author finds, as other authors have found who have written about the inhabitants of Spanish-American countries, that he has not before him the ideal of "doing as he agrees." Now, there are plenty of us of the Anglo-Saxon race who do not do as we agree, and if a Spanish-American traveller should judge us by such a collection of instances as he might easily gather in a sojourn of moderate extent among us, we should not make an exemplary showing. At the same time, if there be any one virtue more than another that we aspire to cultivate, it is that of fidelity to a word; and to represent a class of people as without it is to give them as bad a character as we know how. The virtue or trait may have its support largely in our commercial necessities as well as in a higher morality, and may perhaps be expected to grow in other communities with the introduction of more extensive commercial dealings than have hitherto prevailed. Mr. Steele writes with a fatigued if not an openly ill-natured air. His opinions of almost everything are very unfavorable. The whole system of things in the island offers material enough for criticism, as everybody who has been there knows; at the same time this writer does not give the impression of looking for the best that is to be seen. He hardly does the scenery justice. He fails to except from his sweeping derogation even such charming bits as are to be found at Chorrera, Marianao, Tulipan, and the like suburban villages of Havana. A person with more of the artistic feeling would have let the bright colors and queer shapes of the place atone to him somewhat for its backwardness in the march of modern ideas. A more ingenious literary man, too, could perhaps have found further material, a little recondite—the poetry and poets of the island, for instance—which would not have been without interest. Mr. Steele has a mild vein of drollery and a quite vivid descriptive talent. His style is carefully elaborated.

Capturing a Locomotive: A History of Secret Service in the late War. By the Rev. William Pittenger. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1881.

THIS story is founded upon what was unquestionably one of the most remarkable of the minor incidents of the War. About the time of the battle of Shiloh, Mitchel's division of Buell's army was detached to advance from Nashville toward the railroad connecting Memphis with Chattanooga and Richmond. It was then planned to destroy the bridges on the railroad from Chattanooga to Atlanta, thus cutting off the former place from all reinforcements in Georgia and permitting its easy capture by Mitchel. If Mitchel could fortify and hold his position until reinforced, the connection between the eastern and western armies of the Rebels would be completely broken. The destruction of the railroad was entrusted to twenty-four soldiers, under the leadership of J. J. Andrews, a citizen of Kentucky. These men penetrated the Southern lines, in disguise, almost to Atlanta, and at a small station where there was no telegraph-office they seized a portion of the railway-train while its officials were at breakfast, and ran with it at full speed toward Chattanooga. They were pursued by the conductor and engineer, at first on foot, then in a hand-car, and finally with successive locomotives. But for delays caused by trains running out of the schedule time, it is probable that Andrews would have accomplished his purpose. But these delays at the stations were so great that he was unable to gain a sufficient start to be able to stop and destroy the bridges; his pursuers gained on him so rapidly that he was obliged to abandon the object of his expedition, and simply endeavor to escape. The chase continued for ninety-eight miles, and ended by the breakdown of Andrews's engine, about ten miles south of Chattanooga. Here his party dispersed and sought to regain the Union lines; but they were all captured. Andrews and seven others were hung; the rest were confined in various jails, loaded with chains, and subjected to every possible hardship and indignity, including flogging. Some of them escaped after six months of this torture, and the rest were finally exchanged five months later.

This bold enterprise is well characterized by the Comte de Paris as an example of "the peculiar kind of warfare which served as an interlude to the regular campaigns of the large armies," and as showing "what a handful of daring men could attempt in America." The story has been briefly told several times before; it is to be found in Moore's 'Rebellion Record' and in other publications. The author (one of the survivors) has himself told the story once before, in a book entitled 'Daring and Suffering; or, The Great Railroad Adventure,' which was published in 1863 by J. W. Daughaday, Philadelphia. This publishing house is, we believe, no longer in existence, and the first book is doubtless out of print. In rewriting it the author has retained some of the old illustrations and much of the original text; but he has enlarged and amplified the story, and has told it much better than he did twenty years ago.

The Sun. By C. A. Young, Ph.D., LL.D., Professor of Astronomy in the College of New Jersey. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.

AMONG Prof. Young's earliest popular writings on the sun was a little pamphlet published some ten years ago ("University Series," No. 8, New Haven), being the substance of a lecture delivered before the Yale Scientific Club. The present work has fewer points in common with the earlier paper than might be expected: the order of treatment is more logical, and the greatly fuller presentation gives to a mere lecture quite the proper proportion of a compendious treatise. With an author who, like Prof. Young, has so little knowledge of his theme at second hand, we expect precisely that clearness of exposition which is a characteristic feature of this book. His profuseness of verbal illustration is notable, and the pleasing appropriateness of his comparisons is at times striking. What, for instance, could better describe in a word the scope of spectrum analysis than to say that the study of spectra has "added some such reach to our physics and chemistry as the telescope brought to vision"? In his evident anxiety lest the reader should miss his meaning, too many points may have been insisted upon by way of explanation of allied topics; but these are stated in accurate scientific language, and their insertion is probably much less harmful than their omission would have been. Occasionally we come upon the instance of a scientific specialist who is generous enough to devote a portion of his time to the making of a book for the people; but the work itself too often shows how fitful and desultory it was. It was a genuine pleasure to find that so little of this book—if we may judge by its speaking for itself—must have been written in intervals which otherwise would have been unoccupied. The soberest misfortune of the work is that it should have been issued so long after many of the more important portions were put in type. It seems to us hardly worth the while to send out a book which, almost at the moment of its issue, is, in very important points, as good as out of date; and those interested in the success of this book would have done better to apply the remedy of a few new plates—and printed signatures, if need be.

Much the most satisfactory chapters are those on the sun's light and heat, and the summary of facts and discussion of the constitution of the sun. The appendix containing Prof. Langley's account of his bolometric observations will have no little interest, as his method is yet so new, and the conclusions he derives are so remarkable. Most people, surely, are unprepared to be told that if they could see the sun as it really is, they would pronounce it to be *blue*. The chapters on the solar surface, the sun spots, their periodicity, etc., are excellent. The author's vigor of expression in setting aside (and yet most cautiously) no small number of theories of solar phenomena tends to make conviction sure, and is most characteristic of a man who knows of what he speaks. We should quote, if there were room, his belief as to the cause of the periodicity of the solar spots—that it is in the sun itself; and the outburst is only the necessary relief of the internal fury which is pent up during the gathering of deep-lying forces throughout a season of external quiescence; therefore not necessarily regular, as most maintain, nor likely to repeat itself according to given planetary positions.

The inaccuracies of the book are few. We note, page 43, that the 'British Nautical Almanac' dropped Le Verrier's value of the solar parallax, 8".95, more than three years ago, and has since used Newcomb's value—first in the volume for the year 1882, issued in the autumn of 1878; and that the date of publication of Newcomb's classic on the solar parallax is 1867, not 1865. These, however, are the merest trifles; and of the book as a whole we should say that, from a great mass of recent semi-popular scientific literature, it will give the best return for a careful perusal.

Prof. Young summarizes thus the belief of astronomers as to the constitution of the sun—we cannot forbear quoting it here:

"(1) The central portion is probably for the most part a mass of intensely heated gases. (2) The photosphere is a shell of luminous clouds, formed by the cooling and condensation of the condensible vapors at the surface, where exposed to the cold of outer space. (3) The chromosphere is composed mainly of uncondensible gases (conspicuously hydrogen) left behind by the formation of the photospheric clouds, and bearing something the same relation to them that the oxygen and nitrogen of our own atmosphere do to our own clouds. (4) The corona as yet has received no explanation which commands universal assent. It is certainly truly solar to some extent, and very possibly may be also to some extent meteoric."

And as for the future of solar physics, the fundamental problems now pressing for solution are, "first, a satisfactory explanation of the peculiar law of rotation of the sun's surface; second, an explanation of the periodicity of the spots, and their distribution; third, a determination of the variations in the amount of the solar radiation at different times and different points upon its surface; and fourth, a satisfactory explanation of the relations of the gases and other matters above the photosphere to the sun itself—the problem of the corona and the prominences."

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 19, 1882.

The Week.

In Wall Street, speculative interest was divided during the week between the affairs of the trunk-line railroads and the Reading election. The negotiations for a settlement of the railroad war were the foundation for all manner of reports, and at the close of the week, in the absence of official declaration, the utmost confusion prevailed as to the situation. The foreign bankers who have been prominent in the negotiations, confined their statements to such declarations as that there was more than reason for hoping for a settlement. Directors of the companies, who, however, speculate freely in stocks, asserted positively that a settlement had been reached; that it was in the form of "a money pool" for five years on the basis of the profitable business of the year 1880, and that an official announcement of the fact is withheld for the present for sufficient reasons which cannot be divulged. On the other hand, the minor but nevertheless important officers of the various companies have denied that there is even a prospect of a settlement; and what seems to confirm their utterances is the fact that on Monday west-bound freight rates were again heavily reduced. The week closes with nothing positively known on official authority respecting the situation, but with most diverse opinions held on the subject. The course of prices at the Stock Exchange varied as one opinion or the other prevailed, but at the close uncertainty was the chief feature of the stock market.

The election of the Philadelphia and Reading lasted for several days, and finally resulted in the triumph of Mr. F. B. Gowen, for whom Mr. Vanderbilt cast votes on about 80,000 shares, which gave Mr. Gowen for President a majority of about 48,000 shares. When the polls closed, the market price of the stock was about 67 per cent.; it has since fallen below 59 per cent., and this decline has surprised the partisans of Mr. Gowen, who charge it to the sales of the stock of the Messrs. McCalmont, of London, who held about 186,000 shares, which were voted for Mr. Frank Bond for President. On the other hand, it is said that Mr. Vanderbilt, having practically obtained control of the property, has no further use for his stock and has been selling it. Neither of these explanations is necessary to account for the decline. The money market is working very easily. Foreign exchange has advanced another point toward gold exports, but the latter are not imminent.

On Wednesday Mr. Orth made an attempt to have his resolution of inquiry into the expediency of providing a new mode for the appointment of the committees of the House of Representatives referred to the Committee on Civil Service Reform, of which he himself is chairman. The influence of the Speaker was, however, in spite of the general unpopularity of his appointments, strong enough to secure the reference of the resolution to the Committee on Rules, of which the Speaker himself is *ex-officio* chairman, and which counts among its members his friend Mr. Robeson. A favorable report upon Mr. Orth's resolution appears now out of the question, and we shall have to wait for a future Congress to accomplish a change in the methods of forming the committees which appears eminently desirable. It is to be hoped, however, that the movement started at this time may have the effect of making the next Speaker more cautious in his action, and especially in contracting obligations and striking bargains, before his election, by which his action might be bound.

Judge Cox's decision not to allow Guiteau to make a speech to the jury has not prevented its publication in full in the newspapers. It is of course a hideously ribald production, and contains nothing in the way of argument that is of any importance. Guiteau produces as part of his defence a quantity of letters expressing deep sympathy for him, some of which bear internal evidence of having been composed by the prisoner himself, as, for instance, one from a "high-toned American citizen," who tells him that his example "will go thundering down the ages and do more to extinguish gag-law than was ever done before." He insists with some plausibility that he is far more entitled to an acquittal on the ground of insanity than Sickles, McFarland, or Hiscock ever was, and if they were discharged why should he be hung? Why indeed? There is no doubt that his hanging will have a good incidental effect in preventing the recurrence of such verdicts for some time to come even in "women cases."

The force of Mr. Davidge's address to the jury in the Guiteau case on Thursday lay in the admirable manner in which he analyzed the formation of the criminal design in the prisoner's mind. It is, as he pointed out to the jury, very seldom that the proof of deliberation in a case of murder is so complete, while all the steps in the process seem to have been perfectly sane. On the 16th of May, just after he has been refused the Paris Consulship, the thought of getting the President out of the way flashes across his mind. Then he goes about for two weeks revolving it in his mind. Then, on the 23d of May he has an access of remorse, and thinks perhaps it would be better to make one more attempt to get an office. Therefore he urges the President to remove Mr. Blaine. Then he purchases the pistol, practises with it, dogs the President, is deterred from killing him on one occasion by the presence of his wife (a perfectly sane impulse), and finally shoots him down in cold blood. All this was well presented to the jury, and there has been nothing better in the case except Mr. Porter's skilful cross-examination of Guiteau, which may be said to have been the turning-point of the trial, so far as a successful demonstration of the man's responsibility goes.

We presume there is no serious intention in either Senate or House to adopt Senator Plumb's amendment to the Funding Bill providing for the disbursement of all the gold in the Treasury in excess of $100,000,000 in the purchase of bonds. The gold in the Treasury was accumulated as a greenback redemption fund. The Government is already getting its interest on this gold and a great deal more through its "demand notes" in the hands of the people. These notes were issued for value, and they stand to-day, as they have always stood, in the place of $356,000,000 of bonds. They are properly classified in the monthly Treasury statements as "debt bearing no interest." The Government is therefore deriving all the advantages from them that it is possible to derive, and the proposition to deplete or lessen the redemption fund is a device to put these advantages in jeopardy, by awakening distrust among the holders of greenbacks and prompting the public to present them at the Treasury for redemption. It must be borne in mind that Mr. Plumb's proposition if passed would not be a finality, but would lead more intrepid financiers to demand that the remainder of the gold reserve be disbursed in the same way. As we have frequently pointed out, the continued existence of greenbacks in the circulation, necessitating a gold reserve for their protection, will always give rise to political movements either for more greenbacks or for less gold. Since even the wisest man cannot tell with certainty what is the least amount of gold that will carry the business of the country safely through bad times as well as good, ample room is left for the imagination of fools to wander between zero and infinity. Mr. Plumb is not a fool, but he is paving the way for regiments of such to come after him.

Some of the "advanced thinkers" in the Senate of the United States, Mr. Plumb among the number, propose that whenever the amount of national-bank notes shall be diminished, either by liquidation or other process, the Secretary of the Treasury shall be required to issue an equivalent amount of greenbacks. The presumption is that the proposed new greenbacks are to be, like the old ones, legal-tender notes. To execute and issue such notes is no more difficult to the advanced thinkers than it was for Nick Bottom to play the lion: "it is nothing but roaring." The right of the Government to issue its notes and to make them legal tender has been adjudicated upon by the Supreme Court and declared to be a war power. The validity of the existing greenbacks rests upon the fact that they were issued in a time of war, and were deemed by Congress necessary to obtain the means for carrying on war. The Court did not explicitly declare that Congress could not issue legal-tender notes in time of peace, because that question was not before them, but all the reasoning and analogies of the decision went to that conclusion. If Congress should

do so extraordinary a thing as to issue a new lot of greenbacks, nobody would be obliged to accept them on a footing of equality with the old ones. They might pass for what they were supposed to be worth from day to day, but they would be nondescript uncurrent funds. Not being legal tender, the public creditors would not be obliged to receive them. In order to issue them at all the Secretary of the Treasury would be obliged to buy the four and four and a half per cent. bonds with them at a high premium. Mr. Plumb couples with this unique proposition another to disburse all the gold in the Treasury in excess of $100,000,000; that is, to increase the gold liabilities of the Treasury and to diminish its resources at the same time. This also is probably "nothing but roaring."

There probably has never been a question more thoroughly discussed than the revival of American shipping. The Chamber of Commerce takes a little turn at it nearly every year. It took one on Monday. It proposed to ask for the abolition of the tax on capital and the removal of all disadvantages of every kind under which American shipowners now labor as compared with foreign shipowners, including the admission of shipbuilding materials free of duty. These materials of course include iron, and any recommendation of this kind is pretty sure to be opposed by the iron interest with sufficient vigor to secure its failure. The iron interest is also strongly in favor of the revival of American shipping, but it would revive it through bounties pure and simple. It would not allow any man to get his ships cheap, but if after they were built they were found to be too dear to be sailed at a profit, it would pay him a salary for sailing them at a loss. In opposing remissions of duty for the benefit of any one industry there is no doubt the iron men are right from their point of view. There is no room in the protectionist system for exceptions in favor of a particular manufacture. Why should shipbuilders be allowed to have cheap iron any more than railroad men?

The Chamber of Commerce also recommended not subsidies, but high pay to steamboats for carrying the mails—following in this, the report said, the example of England. It is to be observed, however, that England never paid highly for carrying the mails any longer than was necessary in order to get the mails carried. All the highly-paid English lines were so paid only as long as they had no competitors which could be relied on to do the service with promptness and regularity, or, in other words, only as long as the commercial demands of the route would not have supported a line of steamers. Our subsidy plans are entirely different. Their object is not to establish communication where none exists, but to give some American capitalist a chance to make money in a losing business. There is no difficulty in getting our mails carried regularly and cheaply to any point to which any American shipbuilder or owner would like to run a line, or with which there is any pressing need of communication. It is not necessary, either, to employ foreigners to run it. All we need is to let Americans know that, if they appear on the line with a proper fleet, they shall have the carriage of the mails at the market rate, and no questions will be asked as to where they get the ships. The report of the committee concluded with a paragraph in which the high rate of interest in this country, as compared with England, is mentioned as a great difficulty which American shipowners will have to contend with, even if all the suggestions of the Chamber be adopted; and it apparently considers this insurmountable. But why should it be so considered? Why cannot the Government lend money to shipowners at the English market rate, or at the rate at which the Clyde shipbuilders borrow? If it be objected that if it began lending money to shipowners to be used in their business, it would have to lend to others, the answer is that it does what is the equivalent of this for other industries by giving them exclusive command of the American market. It really makes no difference in principle whether a government puts prohibitory duties on foreign products, or lends the native manufacturer capital at a low rate of interest, or pays him a salary, in the shape of a bounty, for carrying on his business at a loss. What is most needed now in the shipping agitation is some decision by those who are interested in the renewal of American shipping as to which they desire more—the encouragement of American sailors, or of American iron workers. Progress is much obstructed by the practice of treating them as if they were identical, and as if one could not be had without the other.

The debate on the Arrears of Pensions Act in the Senate on Monday was partly emotional and partly critical. What Mr. Voorhees said about paying the widow "from the day and hour when her husband sealed his measureless devotion to the Government with his death," and about the duty of that Government not "to haggle with its preservers about the price of their blood," may be fairly described as sentimental. Mr. Beck's reference to the fact that the bill had passed the House of Representatives under a suspension of the rules, that it was pressed upon the eve of adjournment, that in the Senate nobody knew what amount of money was involved, the highest estimate there being $20,000,000, and that he himself was induced to vote for it by representations which afterward turned out to be unfounded, was more practical; and his views are likely to be shared by the country. The cost of this extravagant measure exceeds even the figures of some of its determined opponents outside of Congress. The people are quite as sensitive as any Senator can be to the claims upon their sympathy of the widows and orphans whose husbands and fathers perished for the Union, and they put as high a value upon the blood shed for it, but they are not willing to be taxed hundreds of millions of dollars, of which, in the words of Mr. Beck, ten per cent. "would be paid out in fraudulent claims"; while as to cases which have some foundation in truth, it is impossible to say how much of the appropriation would go to the soldiers' representatives, and how much to agents by whom the Senate, about the time of the passage of the law, "was flooded with petitions with printed headings, purporting to come from various parts of the country."

Judges who think that the power to punish for contempt of court is obsolete, will be interested in the proceedings which took place in the Randall murder case in Mount Vernon, Kentucky, on Wednesday. John Mullins came into court somewhat the worse for drink and leaned against the bar. Judge Bradly asked him if he were not a witness, and John replied in the affirmative. On being further asked what he was doing in the court-room, he answered, "Standing here, I reckon." The Judge regarded this as insulting and fined John ten dollars; but John, who had no doubt been reading the Guiteau trial, apparently thought the fine a joke, and made another insulting remark, for which the Judge fined him ten dollars more. Even this did not convince John that the Judge was in earnest, for he insulted the Court again. On this the Court ordered him to be taken into custody, when John, finding that matters were really becoming serious, ran out of the court, pursued by the jailer and two deputy-sheriffs. He shortly turned and fired upon them, but they were armed and gave him as good as he sent. After a short chase John was captured and brought back accompanied by his father, "Champ" Mullins, said to be "one of the most powerful of men physically," and also drunk. When "Champ" saw John being actually carried off to jail his feelings were too much for him, and he resisted. The crowd in the court-room broke out into the wildest disorder. The Court left the bench and shouted, "I call on every man in this house to help arrest these men, and I'll assist myself," and he did too. Men were knocked down, pistols drawn, the guards ran in with shotguns, the jury in the Randall case became "scattered," and the Mullinses fought their way through the crowd to the door, where they were again arrested. Nobody was hurt, strange to say, and it is the general opinion in Mount Vernon that the power to punish for contempt will not be questioned in Judge Bradly's court for some time. We trust that the Philadelphia correspondent of the London *Times* will not fail to draw the attention of the English public to the case, and point out how differently it would have been conducted in the Queen's Bench.

The King of Italy, in receiving the Chambers on New Year's Day, took occasion to say that, while he had no reason to believe that anybody meant to make any suggestion disrespectful to Italy, it was well to make known, in order to prevent all misunderstanding, that the Italian Government was firmly resolved not to permit the slightest discussion with outsiders about the internal affairs of the kingdom. The King's words are said to have produced a great sensation. They are substantially notice to Prince Bismarck that it is useless to talk of an international guarantee for the Pope's benefit as long as he remains in Italy, and notice to the Pope that if he means to remain in Italy and be happy, he must come to terms with the Italian Government. Apropos

of all this the latest reports of the condition of the Italian army describe it as becoming, even in the estimation of French critics, very formidable.

Prince Bismarck, in trying to make peace with the Church, and so to attach the Clericals to his policy as with their aid to build up a reliable majority in the German Reichstag and the Prussian Legislature, or Landtag, finds a difficulty in his way which it seems almost impossible to overcome. To satisfy the Clericals he will have to concede to the Church all it asks for—that is, all the rights and privileges it enjoyed before the "Kulturkampf." But by making this concession he will offend a strong public sentiment, and dissatisfy so large a number of people who are not Clericals that the Conservative vote will be cut down and the opposition vote increased in consequence, and the much desired majority will not be obtained. If, on the other hand, he defers to any appreciable extent to the strong anti-church sentiment, he will fail in satisfying the Clericals, and the coalition between the latter and the Government party will come to naught. This difficulty is fairly illustrated by the reception the Ecclesiastical Bill prepared by the Prussian Government for the Landtag is encountering. A bill authorizing the Government to dispense with the oath of allegiance from bishops, readmitting the deposed bishops to their benefices, providing for the resumption of the monetary grants from the state to ecclesiastical establishments and limiting the power of the state to reject the appointments of priests, is just the thing to displease the Liberals by too large, and the Clericals by too small, a measure of concession. It would not be surprising if it sometimes occurred to Prince Bismarck, in his vain attempts to construct a faithful majority, that after all he could have secured steady, reliable, and well-organized support only through a faithful alliance with the Liberal sentiment of the country, and by shaping his measures for the consolidation of the German Empire in the utmost possible harmony with that sentiment, which, if well treated, would not have been unreasonably exacting. As it is, the Chancellor is constantly swimming against the stream, and although he is a strong swimmer, he has also to do with a strong stream. His recent outgivings, especially the famous "rescript," indicate a deplorable relapse into the narrow absolutistic views and the violent prejudices of his younger days. Such a relapse in old age, after his long flirtations with Liberal sentiments, reminds us of the English Chief Justice, of Scottish birth, who when a barrister took the utmost pains to acquire a correct English pronunciation, and succeeded perfectly after a regular course of training under an experienced elocutionist. But when he sat on the bench in his old age the old Scotch accent came back to his tongue with all its native hardness, as if he had never had any other.

The motion of Mr. Windthorst, the leader of the Clericals in the German Reichstag, to abrogate the law forbidding the exercise of ecclesiastical functions without Government authorization, one of the principal points of the so-called Falk Laws, has, like the turning of a kaleidoscope, suddenly changed the aspect of party combinations. It was supposed that there was a prospect of cordial coöperation on all important questions between the Conservatives and the Clericals, and that the different "fractions" of the Liberal party would also act together as a united Liberal opposition. The reception Mr. Windthorst's motion met with has shown the uncertainty of political alliances in Germany. The leader of the Conservatives rose in opposition to the motion of the leader of the Clericals, and in that opposition he was joined by the spokesman of the National Liberals. On the other hand, Professor Virchow, in the name of the Progressists, the more advanced wing of the Liberals, supported the motion of the Clericals. The motives at the bottom of these apparently strange combinations are probably the following: The Conservatives do not want to give up the power of the state to regulate the exercise of ecclesiastical functions. The National Liberals, under whose auspices the Falk laws were made, do not want to abandon what was in great part their work and thus give up the point gained against the clerical power. Hence the Conservatives and National Liberals act together on this question. On the other hand, the Progressists, or more advanced Liberals, are in favor of the divorce of church and state on principle, and therefore on this occasion take sides with the Clericals who want to escape from Government control. The Government, through the Imperial Secretary of State for the Interior, spoke in an uncertain manner, committing itself neither way, and will, before taking a decided attitude, probably wait until it appears with sufficient clearness which combination is the strongest in the Reichstag. Evidently, the day of united and powerful political parties in Germany has not yet come.

The Austrians, after an occupation of three years, have decided on introducing their conscription into Bosnia and Herzegovina, and find themselves face to face with an insurrection calling, according to the latest accounts, for the despatch of a corps d'armée. Their conscription is obnoxious to the Christians, because they have for centuries escaped it under Turkish rule, this exemption being the benefit which they derived from this rule. It is obnoxious to the Mussulmans, who, in Bosnia, form nearly half the population, because Mussulmans in that part of the world have never served under Christian officers or flag, and still think it foul scorn to do so. In India, however, they find no difficulty in doing so, and make some of the best troops in the British service, and they will come to it cheerfully in Bosnia after a few good thrashings from the Austrians. They have, however, a diplomatic as well as a religious question at their back. Bosnia and Herzegovina were transferred to Austria by the Berlin Treaty to be "administered" simply. Everybody knew what this really meant; but the Porte has always contended that it only meant temporary occupation, and that the people are its subjects. Accordingly the men contend, with a certain technical justification, that they are not liable to Austrian conscription.

In consequence of the trouble the Pope has with the Italian Government and with the Roman populace, it is from time to time reported that he wants to leave the city of Rome and seek some other more comfortable place of residence, where his dignity will not be exposed to any disrespectful demonstrations. It has also been suggested that he might perhaps find in the United States as suitable an abode as anywhere. It would be well, however, for the Pope to consider carefully before taking so risky a step. A despatch from Indianapolis informs us that "Dennis O'Donahue, a Catholic parish priest of Brownsburg, Ind., has instituted a suit for $5,000 damages against Bishop Chatard, of that diocese, for suspending him from his priestly duties, as alleged, without just cause." It would be an awkward thing for the Pope to reside in a country where he might be sued for damages if he deprived a priest of his living in the way of church discipline, and where his very tiara might be attached for debt unless exempted as one of the necessary parts of his professional outfit.

It has long been a cardinal maxim of English Tory politics that the foreign policy should be quarrelsome, and that it should be more quarrelsome with Russia and the United States than with any other power. On this view the Treaty of Washington was a humiliating mistake, and friendliness toward either the Czar or the United States a sign of weakness. This also explains in a large degree the strong ground taken by the *Standard* against the American claim to the exclusive protectorate of the Panama Canal, as it explained the recent indignant protest of the *St. James's Gazette* against the cordial manifestations of feeling called forth in England by President Garfield's death. If the Canal question should be settled amicably by the Liberals, it would form a favorite topic of denunciation in Tory papers along with "the surrender" to the Boers and the abandonment of Candahar. One of the worst features of the discussion raised by Mr. Blaine was its prematureness. Beginning it now, before the money is raised to dig the Canal, and beginning it in this acrimonious tone, is likely to scare capitalists away from the enterprise. The American claim will, when the Canal is nearly finished, be just as good as, and will undoubtedly be more difficult to resist than, it is now. So that the late Secretary's spirited exploit is a fresh illustration of the inexpediency of "hallooing before you are out of the wood," and also of "fording a river before you come to it," not to speak of other adages ancient and modern. It also resembles the quarrel and separation of the young couple, immediately after the birth of their first boy, over the question as to whether he should go to Yale or to Harvard. The latest accounts of the Lesseps scheme are very dismal, and make the prospect of a canal to be controlled by any power very remote. Admiral Ammen writes to the *Herald* that, in his opinion, if the Canal is constructed with foreign money, it would be piratical to attempt to control it; that it must be dug with American money.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

On Thursday, Mr. Davidge began his address to the jury in the Guiteau case. He reviewed the evidence on both sides, and said that the testimony for the defence had merely shown slight collateral, and not hereditary, insanity in Guiteau's family. He declared that there had been no evidence to show that Guiteau was irresponsible. He reviewed Guiteau's whole career, and said that a more uniform life had never come under his observation, and the "culminating act of wickedness" was a fit sequel to it. Some excitement was caused on this day by Guiteau's request to be allowed to make the closing speech in the case himself. The prosecution protested vehemently against his being allowed this privilege, and some discussion ensued. Judge Cox seemed at first inclined to permit Guiteau to address the jury, but did not render any formal decision. Mr. Davidge concluded his address on Saturday. He dwelt with considerable effect on the testimony of John W. Guiteau, and reviewed one by one the list of witnesses who had seen nothing insane in the prisoner. He pointed out that the defence had failed in endeavoring to show that Guiteau was a "moral and kindly" man and that the assassination was in contradiction to his whole life. He concluded by exposing the claim of "divine pressure." On Saturday Judge Cox announced his decision not to permit Guiteau to address the jury. This enraged Guiteau greatly, and, for the first time in the trial, he abused Judge Cox. Mr. Reed then delivered his address to the jury, which is reported to have been very effective, principally owing to Mr. Reed's earnestness of manner and sincerity. He said that Guiteau's conviction and execution "would be an infamy beyond description—an indelible stain on American jurisprudence and American juries.' On Monday Mr. Scoville began his address. He charged that there was a conspiracy on the part of the counsel for the prosecution and the expert witnesses, Drs. Hamilton, MacDonald, Kempster, Gray, and Worcester, to hang the defendant, and he was particularly severe on Judge Porter. His speech was long and rambling, and will probably last one or two days longer. On Sunday Guiteau gave the address he had prepared, in expectation of being permitted to address the jury, to the Associated Press for publication. It is just such a one as might have been expected, containing some cunning, much nonsense and blasphemy, and displaying throughout the extraordinary egotism which is one of the prisoner's most prominent characteristics. In continuing his argument on Tuesday, Mr. Scoville dealt largely in personalities. He attacked the opposing counsel, accusing them of having been unfair and dishonest in their review of the evidence. Mr. Scoville warned the jury against Judge Porter, who is to speak after him; he wanted the jury to take into consideration the fact that he "had come here for a large fee, and was prostituting his fine attainments in an effort to hang an insane man."

A bill was introduced into the Senate on Tuesday by Mr. Blair, proposing to grant a pension of $5,000 a year from September 19, 1881, to Mrs. Garfield, the wife of the late President.

Mr. Wolf, Consul-General of the United States at Cairo, has forwarded to Treasurer Gilfillan another contribution of 3,800 francs for the Garfield Memorial Hospital at Washington, making a total of about $1,200 subscribed by the Khedive and other persons in Egypt.

The President has approved the joint resolution tendering the thanks of the people to the Khedive of Egypt for the gift of the Obelisk.

Senator Sherman's Funding Bill occupied the Senate on Wednesday and Thursday. On Wednesday Senator Vest, of Missouri, delivered a long speech denouncing both the bill and the national banks, and demanding the remonetization of silver. On Thursday Messrs. Garland and Plumb also made speeches in opposition, and a number of amendments were offered. The Senate then adjourned till Monday.

In the House on Wednesday Mr. Orth followed up his recent remonstrance against the committee assignments by offering a resolution instructing the Committee on Civil-Service Reform, of which he is chairman, to inquire into the expediency of providing a new mode for the appointment of the committees of the House. The Speaker, however, decided that the resolution must be referred to the Committee on Rules, of which he is the chairman. This ends the matter for the present session. On Thursday, the committees not yet having prepared sufficient business, the House adjourned until Monday.

The first appropriation bill of the session was passed on Thursday without amendment and with scarcely any opposition. It was the bill to appropriate $450,000 to complete the work of the Tenth Census.

Notice has been given by the committee appointed to audit the bills incurred during President Garfield's illness that all claims must be presented before February 10th. Dr. Bliss and the other physicians will, it is said, present no bills, but are content to receive whatever Congress may decide to give them.

A bill has been introduced into the Senate providing that Justice Hunt, of the Supreme Court, who has been physically disabled from fulfilling the duties of his office, shall receive the regular pension to which the judges of the Supreme Court are entitled if disabled after serving ten years. Justice Hunt has not yet served the prescribed time.

In the House on Monday a motion for immediate action on Mr. Robeson's bill to increase the membership of fourteen of the most important standing committees and to create a new one, was defeated.

In the Senate on the same day Senator Voorhees made a speech in defence of the Arrears of Pensions Bill. He attacked the bondholders vigorously, and announced that they were in league to secure the repeal of the act. Senator Beck replied to him and continued his speech on Tuesday.

More than four hundred bills and joint resolutions were offered in the House of Representatives on Monday. The House has now about 3,300 measures on hand.

The widow of A. O. P. Nicholson, of Tennessee, who was one of the United States Senators expelled from the Senate in July, 1861, on the ground that they were engaged in a conspiracy to destroy the Government, has petitioned Congress for whatever salary may be due to him. His term would have expired March 4, 1865.

A memorial, signed by six of the chiefs of the Sisseton Sioux, of Dakota, was presented in both houses of Congress on Monday. The memorial sets forth the advance made by the tribe in civilization, and asks that they may have lands granted to them in severalty, and that they may be treated with common fairness and honesty.

On Wednesday proceedings were begun in the Police Court at Washington against the persons arrested for having conspired to defraud the Government by means of worthless bonds guaranteeing bids for the Star-route contracts.

Mr. Ivan Petroff, special agent for the Census Bureau for Alaska, who completed his work in September, has reached Washington, and an account of his experiences was published in the New York *Tribune* on Tuesday. He made a journey of 8,000 miles in Alaska and the Aleutian Islands, 2,500 miles of which was through a portion of Alaska never before penetrated by civilized man. He had a number of hairbreadth escapes and was a prisoner with a tribe of Indians, known as the Koloshes, from the 8th of August till the 28th of September. Mr. Petroff examined the islands and the western portion of the peninsula as far as Cook inlet, and secured the data required for the census publications.

The circulation of standard silver dollars for the week ending January 14 was $80,500, against $118,984 for the corresponding period of 1881.

The smallpox has been steadily spreading in the West. The disease is said to be extending southward, following the main lines of railroad travel between Chicago and St. Louis and along the Mississippi River. The Illinois State Board of Health is enforcing a rigid isolation and quarantine of patients, and the result is said to be very satisfactory.

A disastrous accident, causing the death of eight persons, occurred on the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad on Friday. The Albany express for New York was run into by a local train at Spuyten Duyvil. The six rear cars of the express train were Wagner drawing-room cars, two of which were telescoped and set on fire. Among the killed were Senator Webster Wagner, the inventor of the drawing-room cars. The accident seems to have been due to the carelessness of the brakeman of the rear car, whose duty it was, the moment the train stopped, to go back for half a mile with a red signal to stop any approaching train; this he omitted to do.

Governor Cornell, of New York, sent his annual message, which is a very full account of the affairs of the State for the past year, to the Legislature on Wednesday. Some of the facts in regard to the financial condition of the State which Governor Cornell sets forth, have already been published. It is expected that, with sound economy, the rate of taxation can be still further reduced for the coming year. A reform in the laws relative to assessment and taxation, and a constitutional amendment relieving the restriction on canal expenditure, are urged by the Governor. The number of scholars in attendance at the public schools fell off more than ten thousand during the past year. Governor Cornell ascribes this fact to the increased demand for labor. For the first time in their history, the State prisons have been self-supporting. Biennial legislative sessions are recommended.

Governor Murray's message to the Territorial Legislature of Utah states "that political power is wielded by church authority throughout Utah; that officers of the church exercise authority in temporal affairs; that the sovereignty of the church is supreme, and its practices are followed." In regard to polygamy he recommends State legislation in conformity with the act of Congress of 1862, which denounces this system of plural wives as a crime.

The last act in the settlement of the old railroad debt of the State of Minnesota was completed on Monday, by the burning of the redeemed bonds by the State Auditor, in the presence of the Governor and other State officers.

There has been a great exodus of colored people from certain counties, particularly the county of Edgfield, in South Carolina. The incident has created much excitement in the State, and it is feared that the agricultural interests of the entire State will suffer great injury the coming season through lack of labor. The total number of persons who have emigrated thus far is estimated at 10,000, two-thirds of whom are represented as able-bodied men above the age of twenty-one. A "prominent representative of the colored race" attributes the exodus to the fact that "our people are suffering under a worse bondage in this State than they did before the war." Other causes assigned are the enactment of the Stock Law, high rents, short crops, and heavy and unjust liens.

The committee of thirteen, appointed at the

last meeting of the general committee of citizens on the project of having a World's Fair in Boston, to consider ways and means, has reported against the project for the present, on account of the failure to receive sufficient subscriptions to warrant the undertaking.

The annual report of the President of Harvard University states that the financial condition of the College proper gives much concern to the corporation. The deficit for 1880-1881, amounting to $34,469 19, is the largest which the College has ever incurred.

FOREIGN.

Despatches from Paris on Wednesday and Thursday indicated that Gambetta was anxious to bring matters to a crisis in regard to his bill for the revision of the Constitution. The Ministerial papers stated that he had decided to tender his resignation should the Chamber of Deputies reject the proposal for the establishment of the *scrutin de liste* system. The opposition to the proposed revision, however, seems to be very strong, and many of the members of the Chamber of Deputies who were elected on the revision ticket are reported to have written to their constituents asking to be released from their pledge. The ground taken by the opponents of the measure is that the revision is unnecessary, now that the Senate is in harmony with the Chamber of Deputies. On Saturday M. Gambetta read his bill to the Chamber of Deputies. The preamble states that France has manifested by the recent election a desire for a revision of the Constitution; that the principle of *scrutin de liste* is a corollary of universal suffrage; that it is therefore necessary to settle this matter promptly, but that the matters of detail and application are reserved for the end of the present legislative session. The principal points of the bill itself are as follows: The election of Senators who are to sit for nine years, instead of for life as at present, by both chambers voting separately, instead of by the Senate alone; the Senatorial delegates to be chosen one by each 500 electors, instead of by the Communes; the adoption of the *scrutin de liste*; and the Senate to be deprived of the power of restoring items stricken from the budget by the Chamber of Deputies. M. Gambetta said that he did not ask for urgency, but that they could decide as to that after the preliminary consideration of the bill A committee of thirty-three, namely, three members from each bureau of the Chamber of Deputies, has been appointed to examine the bill.

On Monday the French Government introduced its bill in the Chamber of Deputies prescribing regulations for the admission of foreign pork. It provides that the pork must be accompanied by certificates from the French consular agents at the place from which it comes, attesting that it has been fully prepared, and is of the description known as "fully cured." The importation of uncooked chopped meat, such as sausages, remains absolutely prohibited.

General Campenon, Minister of War, has announced the proposed modification of the French military system. It contemplates the reduction of the term of service to a minimum of three years, with a more equitable distribution of military service. General Campenon also asks power to call out the reserve without the sanction of Parliament.

It is stated that the utmost that can now be hoped from the negotiations for an Anglo-French Treaty of Commerce is a temporary renewal of the existing treaty.

The census of Paris, taken on the 18th of December, gives a population of 2,225,900, against 1,988,800 in 1876.

The Austrian Government has been informed that a general rising has been planned in the northwest of the Balkan Peninsula. The situation in the southern part of Herzegovina is said to be very grave. The Vienna *Presse* says that 1,000 insurgents on Thursday overpowered the military posts near Nevesinye. The Government will ask for two million pounds for the expenses of the campaign, and extra military precautions will be taken immediately.

It is stated that there has been an active interchange of despatches between the German and Austrian Cabinets, with reference to the Anglo-French note to Egypt, and that Austria regards the understanding between France and England with disfavor. It is also said that the German Foreign Office regards the note as a "grave diplomatic mistake."

The Porte has addressed a note to the Powers declaring that foreign governments have no right of intervention in Egypt, and demanding an explanation of the Anglo-French note.

The Sultan of Turkey has deputed a number of German officials to reorganize the Turkish *gendarmerie*.

The Alexandria correspondent of the London *Times* telegraphed on Monday that the situation in Egypt is becoming very grave. The Parliament refuses to surrender the right of voting the budget, and if it persists in its attitude, it is asserted that Sherif Pasha, the Prime Minister, will resign. The Anglo-French note has not overawed the national party, and precipitate action on the part of England and France "might produce danger."

General Logerot has seized several prominent men at Sfax as hostages for the payment of the war indemnity exacted by France. He threatens severe measures if the money is not forthcoming by January.

A sensation has been caused in Tunis by the arrest of the second brother of the Bey on the charge of conspiring against the Government.

In the German Reichstag on Wednesday, Herr Windthorst introduced a motion abrogating the law forbidding the exercise of ecclesiastical functions without Government authorization. The Progressists supported, and the Conservatives and National Liberals opposed, the motion. It was carried through the second reading on Friday by a vote of 233 to 115.

It is stated that, at the instance of the Prussian Ministry, Prince Bismarck has resolved not to submit the rescript to the Reichstag. It is also said, notwithstanding statements to the contrary, that the Crown Prince Frederic William was only apprised of the rescript by its appearance in the official gazette.

The Prussian Parliament was opened on Saturday. Herr Puttkamer read the royal speech, which set forth the continued improvement in the financial situation; made congratulatory reference to the friendly relations existing between Prussia and the Vatican; announced a moderate loan for productive works, and an ecclesiatical bill similar to that known as the July law, granting the Government discretionary powers.

The ecclesiastical bill to be presented in the Prussian Landtag permits the Government to dispense with the oath of allegiance from bishops, readmits the deposed bishops to their benefices, allows foreign priests to assume ecclesiastical functions, and provides for the resumption of the monetary grants from the state. The bill is said to give satisfaction in no quarter. It does not go far enough to satisfy the Centre, and makes too many concessions to please the Liberals.

It is stated that Germany has made certain demands on Holland in regard to the navigation of the Rhine and the protection of the German fisheries on the river. The demands were coldly received. The German Minister at the Hague has been recalled on account of his want of firmness in supporting the demands.

A despatch from Rome says that the Pope declined to comply with the law requiring him to fill up a census paper; but a monsignore filled it out, showing that there were 500 persons living in the Vatican, one-third of whom are women.

At a banquet given in honor of veteran soldiers at Rome, the Mayor of the city declared that the people of Rome would rather see the city laid in ashes than again subject to Papal domination.

The King and Queen of Spain have been making a visit to the King and Queen of Portugal at Lisbon, where there have been great festivities during the week in honor of the royal guests.

The censorship at Madrid has removed the restriction upon the transmission of cipher despatches by cable.

Little news has been received from Ireland during the week. Disturbances still continue, but Land League outrages do not seem to be as frequent as they have been. A large force of military and constabulary went to Edenberry, County Kings, on Thursday, to protect persons engaged in carting oats bought at a sheriff's sale, and a mob there tore up the road and destroyed the bridges. This is the only disturbance of importance reported during the week.

Mr. Gladstone, speaking at Hawarden on Thursday, compared the condition of agriculture in England before and since the establishment of free trade, and said that the results of free trade would be sufficient to arm the farmers against the efforts to revive protection. He deprecated the proposal to introduce the principle of the Irish Land Court Bill into England, but said it was necessary to cheapen and facilitate the transfer of land. The reform of Parliamentary procedure he considered the first and most important question to be taken up by Parliament.

Mr. Gladstone is reported to have again remitted ten per cent. of the rentals on his Hawarden estates.

On Thursday Mr. Frelinghuysen received a despatch from the American Chargé d'Affaires at St. Petersburg saying that Lieutenant Danenhauer, of the *Jeannette*, with five sailors, had arrived at Yakutsk, and that Melville and six men were expected soon. Captain De Long and the crew of the first cutter have not been heard from since November 16. The despatch also states that it is reported that the *Jeannette* was caught in an ice pack about the 1st of October, 1879, and drifted with the winds and currents until June last, when she was abandoned.

It is stated that Professor Nordenksiöld's arrangements for his polar expedition will not be finished before 1884, as a vessel cannot be got ready before that time. The King of Sweden and Oscar Dickson will each contribute one-third of the expenses.

Lord Lorne, the Governor-General of Canada, sailed for Halifax on Wednesday. The Princess Louise did not accompany him.

Despatches from South America announce that the American Commissioners have left Lima for Chili. The Peruvians had built great expectations on the arrival of the Commissioners, but they gave no indication of their intended course in the Chili-Peru complication before leaving Lima. The Chilians are reported to be determined to carry out their schemes of territorial acquisition at the expense of Peru. Work on the Panama Canal has been wholly interrupted during the week ending January 8, owing to a general strike among the laborers.

Señor Martinez, the Chilian Minister at Washington, has received advices from Santiago giving an account of the unusual demonstration which occurred in that city on the occasion of the funeral of General Kilpatrick, late United States Minister to Chili. The funeral ceremonies were ordered by the Chilian Government, and conducted by the Chilian Secretary of State, assisted by the President of the Chilian House of Representatives and others.

TUESDAY, January 17, 1882.

THE FUNDING BILL AND THE NATIONAL BANKS.

How the national-banking system may be kept alive after the public debt is paid, is a problem now engaging attention at Washington. Senator Sherman's Funding Bill is not so much a bill for refunding the three and one-half per cent. bonds at a lower rate of interest as for extending by a definite period the national-bank note system. This is a laudable end, but it is only a temporary makeshift. It postpones for a time—perhaps five years, possibly longer—a definite solution of the problem. The proposed repeal of taxes on bank circulation, capital, and deposits is likewise a concession in favor of the continuance of the system. If the $7,000,000 per annum now paid into the National Treasury by the banks is remitted to them, they can issue notes on bonds bearing a correspondingly lower rate of interest, but no remission of taxes can enable them to go on as at present after all the bonds are paid off. Therefore the proposed repeal of taxes is only another temporary makeshift. But even though the present bank-note system should come to an end by the gradual calling in of the bonds held as security for circulation, a large part of the National Banking Act should remain in force. The Government ought never to release its hold upon the machinery of bank issues even though the security for such issues be something different from its own bonds. The people will never be content with any banking system under which any question can arise as to the solvency of the circulating notes. They ought never to be content with any system under which the rate of exchange between different points can exceed the cost of transporting the notes between the same points, plus a trifling commission for the banker's services. Heterogeneousness in banking as it existed before the war ought never to be tolerated again, and probably never will be.

So long as Government bonds are obtainable at rates which make it profitable for banks to issue notes upon them, we need do nothing except renew the charters which are soon to expire. That this will be done by Congress we have no doubt, since the necessity of finding something to take the place of the present system before abandoning it, or allowing it to lapse, is imperative. Looking, however, to a not remote future, we may inquire whether there is any available method to ensure perfect solvency of bank notes, and as much uniformity of value as now exists, without the pledge of Government bonds. It is obvious that if a bank held in its own vaults the capital represented by its Government bonds now on deposit at Washington, its ability to redeem its outstanding notes would be unimpeachable. It would have the same amount of property to accomplish that object which the Government now has, with this difference, that instead of lending it to the Government for an indefinite time at three and a half per cent. it would lend it to its customers for short periods at a somewhat higher rate. Aside from this the only difference is that at present the Government undertakes not to lose any part of the capital pledged for the security of bank notes, while banks themselves do sometimes lose not a part merely but the whole.

In order therefore to perfect a system in which the security of Government bonds is wanting it is needful to arrange so that either (1) the bank's capital shall not be lost or impaired, or (2) that if lost or impaired the deficiency shall at once be made good, or (3) that any failure to make it good shall not result in loss to the noteholders. We think it is quite feasible to attain this end with the machinery of the present National Banking Act. In requiring a pledge of Government bonds as security for circulating notes, the law gives a preference to the noteholder over all other creditors of a bank. This is entirely proper, but we believe it is a fact shown by the reports of the Currency Bureau that if the law had exacted no pledge of bonds, but had merely given the noteholder a preference in the distribution of the assets of banks, all the notes of suspended banks, since the National Banking Act went into force, would have been paid in full out of the assets of the institutions and the personal liability of the shareholders. Moreover, under the act as it now stands, no delay or inconvenience could have happened to the noteholders, since all the notes are receivable for all dues to any and all national banks. This provision of law amounts to a mutual insurance of the national banks by and for each other so far as their circulating notes are concerned, but it rests of course upon the higher security of the bonds held in pledge by the Treasury at Washington. Whether this system of mutual insurance could be continued without such security cannot be affirmed, but it exists practically in Scotland, where bank failures never result in discrediting the notes of the suspended institutions. Among the Scotch banks, however, the liability of shareholders is unlimited. In this country it is fixed at a sum equal to the shareholder's interest in the bank, in addition to the amount of his shares. But the National Banking Act might be so amended that the liability of shareholders as to bank notes outstanding should be unlimited. As the right to issue notes to take the place of money is a valuable franchise, there would be no injustice in such a provision. It would not compel any bank to issue notes, but if any should choose to issue them, it would put directors and shareholders under greater responsibility, and would tend to make them more watchful than they have been heretofore.

No analogy can be drawn, as to the workings of such a law, from the condition of things existing before the war. Bank-note systems were then as numerous and various as the States and Territories which authorized them. The Western States ran wild on the subject of "free banking," which they construed to mean the right of every man to issue notes who could buy or borrow a few State bonds to pledge with the local Auditor or Comptroller. Capital was not deemed necessary to the establishment of a bank. Banks in that quarter were, with few exceptions, institutions not to lend money to the public, but to borrow from them. Such abuses would be and are impossible under the National Banking Act. Errors may occur, frauds may be committed, under and in spite of the act, but they are reduced to the minimum, as is shown by the fact that all the losses incurred through bank failures, by depositors and all other creditors of national banks since its system went into operation, eighteen years ago, have been less than $7,000,000. No loss has occurred to noteholders, nor would any have occurred even without the bond security if the noteholders had been made in all cases preferred creditors. We are, therefore, of opinion that while the Funding Bill may be useful to bridge the national-banking system over a few years' time, it is not essential to the maintenance of what is most valuable in the system.

YALE AND HARVARD.

YALE COLLEGE has apparently taken up the practice begun by Harvard of issuing an annual report, in which the president not only gives an account of the actual condition of the college, but briefly discusses various university problems. The appearance of the two reports simultaneously will hereafter furnish those who are interested in the higher education with materials for a very instructive comparison of what may be called the two rival methods in university administration. The prominent part which Harvard has taken in introducing the elective system and the system (among the higher classes at least) of voluntary recitation, makes her in a certain sense the representative of those who think that the true function of a university is simply to provide the means of learning for those who wish to learn, and that no part of the energy or ability of its instructors should be expended either in stimulating the stupid or inert, or in bringing to punitive justice those who neglect their opportunities.

Yale, on the other hand, has hitherto represented, and, if we may judge by President Porter's report, still represents, those who consider a university a place for general training, moral as well as intellectual, in which the professor should stand literally *in loco parentis*, and not only provide the student with the means of instruction, but see that he gets it whether he likes it or not. The former is the European idea, and it is to the European type that Harvard is gradually approximating. The latter may be called the American idea, and in preaching it President Porter seeks to uphold what may be called the distinctively American college. There is nothing on the Continent exactly like the Yale view of the "college boy," and nothing in England except in the public schools. The relation of the professors to the students which President Porter upholds in the report before us, resembles nothing so much as the relation of the assistant master toward the boys at Eton, or Rugby, or Harrow. There could not be a better description of the rôle of the English assistant master, who teaches classics and mathematics in school hours, and afterward superintends the cricket and boating, than President Porter gives when he says that "the true and radical remedy" for the tendency in public schools and colleges to disregard "the plainest axioms of manners and morals," and to violate "the accepted axioms of courtesy and truth," is, first, to "hold the student to his duties in no mask or

disguise," and then to introduce as "great variety into the student's life as practicable—making reasonable provision for attractive amusements and athletic activities."

Harvard, on the other hand, seems to aim more and more at leaving the student to take as much or as little of the advantages in the direction of learning which the place offers him as he pleases, and at withdrawing more and more from any charge of his morals and manners which is not necessary to the maintenance of public decency and good order. The elective system, in which the student picks out, within certain very wide limits, the course of study he will pursue, and the system of voluntary recitation, in which the student of the upper classes—also within certain very wide limits—uses attendance on recitations as an aid to his studies or not as he pleases, are leading features in a régime which takes for granted that a young man who goes to college begins life, and becomes his own master, to the same degree and in the same sense as a young man who gets a clerkship in the city, and leaves his parents in order to earn his bread. That this régime is found to give satisfaction we conclude from President Eliot's assertion that—

"Whoever reads the history of the development of the elective system, as it is recorded in the successive annual reports of the dean of the college faculty since 1870, will arrive at the well-grounded conviction that every extension of the system has been a gain to the individual student, to the college, and to every interest of education and learning; and will also see reason to believe that the time is not far distant when the few subjects still prescribed for all students will in their turn become elective."

We have called President Porter's idea of the duties of a university toward the undergraduates the American idea; but it is becoming every day more and more doubtful whether it will remain so, and for several reasons. One is that no large college seems to be able to play successfully the part either of the schoolmaster or parent. Yale has long plumed herself on being emphatically what religious parents would consider a "safe" college, or a college in which exemplary care was taken of the students' morals. Nevertheless, President Porter almost confesses that parents have begun to lose confidence in her from this point of view, and that those who wish to have their sons well looked after are beginning to prefer the smaller colleges; and apropos of this he reads his own staff a long lecture on the need of stricter discipline and closer attention to faith and morals. If Yale cannot succeed in the rôle of a guardian, no large college can. In fact, we venture to assert that, allowing for numbers and opportunity, the standard of conduct, or what may be called the tone, is—if there be any difference—higher among students in the colleges which allow them largest liberty than in the colleges which take most pains to exert a direct influence on character either by exhortation or fines and penalties. In managing all large bodies of young men by means of restraint, if the restraint be mild and easily evaded, it constitutes in itself, owing to one of the best-known peculiarities of human nature, a strong incentive to excess or disobedience. To be effective, therefore, it has to be overwhelmingly powerful and fortified by the sternest sanctions, such as those of military discipline. But no college can use any such discipline, and, therefore, every college which attempts to treat youths of eighteen as children through its rules fails lamentably in securing their enforcement. That a very large body of parents prefer colleges which promise large control of conduct is quite true. But if they are now finding out, as President Porter hints, that the large colleges at least cannot keep this promise, they are simply coming to a kind of knowledge which has long been within the reach of those who know anything of college life. There is no American college which, in order to provide adequate supervision of morals and manners on the parental theory, would not need double its present force of officers, and a very different kind of officers from those who now fill its chairs. The present professors would make poor policemen, or drill-sergeants, even if their time were not fully occupied with their duties as instructors.

Taking all this in connection with the dismal complaints of poverty which both universities make, we cannot help inclining to the belief that the American college of the future will belong rather to the European or Harvard type than to the present American or Yale one. No efficient seat of learning can, with any endowment which any American college now possesses or hopes to possess, undertake anything approaching to parental care of the students. They will all soon cease to promise anything of the kind. Parents are already beginning to discover that such promises mean very little, and they will gradually give up looking for a college for their sons where they will be kept out of harm's way and made to work at their lessons. The result will be greater care in the selection of boys for college education. It will cease to be a matter of course to send boys to college whenever the father can afford it. Boys who have no strong love of study, and whose self-control is defective, will not be sent there, or, if sent under a false impression, will be more readily taken away when found out. The time and attention of college administrators will then be reserved for instruction exclusively, and the enormous sums now spent by parents on dunces and drones who go to college to learn, and learn nothing, and by college instructors in keeping up a necessarily sham supervision of conduct and progress, will be saved. In short, the American father will be unable to find anybody willing to undertake for a small sum the preservation of his son's purity and the building up of his character between sixteen and twenty, and both he and the son will be the better for it.

MATTHEWS'S FRENCH DRAMATISTS.

PARIS, December 25, 1881.

FRENCH influence is not yet on the wane, and the most powerful instruments of this influence are perhaps the stage and the novel. Our plays, our novels are translated, or imitated, everywhere; and the "Société des Gens de Lettres" has been specially instituted to protect the rights of our littérateurs against piracy. Still, I confess having felt some astonishment when I received from America a book on the 'French Dramatists of the Nineteenth Century,' by Mr. Brander Matthews.* I could hardly believe that on the other side of the Atlantic so much interest could be felt on such a subject. During my journey in the United States, which lasted several months, I never went to the play but twice—once in order to admire Booth in "Hamlet," and a second time, in Washington, in company with Mr. Lincoln, a short time before his assassination. To be sure, such grave events engrossed the public attention that it is not wonderful if nobody ever mentioned theatres and new pieces in conversation; it seemed to me, however, that the old Puritans had left their mark on the community, and that the theatre played very little part in the social life. Things must have changed, as they have changed in my lifetime in England. London cares now as much as we do ourselves for a new play by Dumas; London is interested in the health of Mademoiselle Croizette, in the movements of Sarah Bernhardt.

Such a phenomenon could not be explained if there had not been in France a literary revolution worthy the attention even of the philosopher and of the scholar. Society, the world, is only the flower of a tree; fashion is the outward phase of a deep transformation. I tried to explain lately the extraordinary prosperity of the French Theatre; I explained it by what might be called objective causes, derived from the general state of society. This prosperity has also subjective causes; there has been really in our age a new school of theatre. The form of the seventeenth century is a thing of the past; the eighteenth century has imitated its predecessor. We have, in our time, seen new ideas, new literary doctrines; and, it may almost be said, new passions find their highest expression on the stage. Mr. Matthews says that "We can see clearly enough that it is in the drama that the French have mounted highest. If we seek to know why this is, why they have done better work in the drama than in any other department of literature, it is easy (although perhaps not altogether sufficient) to answer that it is because the dramatic is the form best suited for the expression of certain qualities in which the French excel the men of other races. Chief among these national characteristics are a lively wit; a love of effect for its own sake; a gift for writing beautiful prose; and a passion for order and symmetry and clearness." The work before us is extremely interesting; it contains an elaborate analysis of the theatrical works of Victor Hugo; of Alexandre Dumas the father; of Eugène Scribe; of Émile Augier; of Alexandre Dumas the son; of Victorien Sardou; of Octave Feuillet; of Eugène Labiche; of Meilhac and Halévy. It is to be regretted that in this great picture of the modern French stage the author has not made a place for Casimir Delavigne; for Alfred de Musset; for Ponsard; and for Sandeau. Alfred de Musset, the author of "On ne badine pas avec l'amour" (the most Shaksperean of all French plays); of "Lorenzaccio," a drama which, I hope, will some time be played at the French Theatre; of so many other fine comedies and dramas, is one of the greatest figures in our dramatic history.

Mr. Matthews shows a real independence of thought in his judgments; he is not led away by current opinions. He refuses, for instance, to Victor Hugo the dramatic faculty, and treats him as a merely lyrical poet. "Victor Hugo is a great poet, although not a great dramatic poet. It is because his plays, while they are melodramas in structure, are the work of an artist in words. The melodramatist, when he has once constructed the play, calls on the poet to write it; for in Hugo are two men, a melodramatist doubled by a lyric poet. . . . Although his plays are immensely effective in performance, and his characters wear at times the externals

* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

of poetic conception, Victor Hugo is not that rare thing, a great dramatic poet." What is he then? He is a "master-singer of lyrics, and a master-maker of satires." His characters seem to Mr. Matthews unreal, too colossal, sometimes too abstract. We cannot agree with him when he says that Victor Hugo has "wit in abundance and to spare." All French judges will tell him that the wit of Hugo is ponderous; that it always touches the ridiculous. We cannot agree with him, either, when he pronounces "Ruy Blas" the "finest play" of Hugo's. We prefer "Hernani"; and we find the last scene of it very dramatic. "The catastrophe would be revolting if it were not so extravagant." If Goethe ever called "Hernani" "an absurd composition," it is a pity; he forgot that Spanish pride rendered the end a necessity. When Hugo wrote "Hernani" he was full of the Romancero.

The director of the Français told me lately that the part of *Don Carlos* had always seemed absurd and tiresome till it was played by Worms. "Hernani" might now be called "Ambition." It was the dream of Molière to write a piece under the name "L'Ambitieux," after the "Misanthrope." Surely, young *Don Carlos*, when he delivers his monologues; when he pardons his enemies; when he sacrifices his love, and bends all his soul toward glory and the Government, is an almost sublime personification of the "ambitious." How will you describe the poet who writes such things? Is he merely lyrical? Is not *Don Carlos* dramatic enough? How many other parts of the dramatic work of Hugo could I not cite where the lyric is completely blended with the dramatic?

I will not dilate any longer on this subject. I will also pass over Alexandre Dumas, the father, and Scribe. The latter was a mere impressionist; he painted a state of society which exists no longer; he is now unreadable, and he will soon be forgotten. Let us come at once to the living, to Augier and to Dumas, *fils*. Mr. Matthews confesses a great admiration for Augier, who is, to his mind, the foremost of the French dramatists of our day. "M. Augier inherits the best traditions of French comedy. He is a true child of Beaumarchais, a true grandchild of Molière." The "Gendre de M. Poirier" is certainly a wonderful comedy; it will remain, perhaps, longer on the French stage than the "Demi-Monde" and the "Dame aux Camélias," which may be considered the masterpieces of Dumas, *fils*. I can remember the time when Augier was first spoken of. He had received an excellent education, and seemed to have incarnated the best traditions of Greek and Latin and French literature. Some of his first verses had the terseness and simplicity of Corneille, others had all the grace and fluidity of Terence. I heard the other day "L'Aventurière," and I admired its versification—so robust, so perfect, worthy of the poet of the seventeenth century; and I wondered why the glory of Augier did not ascend to the very zenith. We say currently that people have the defects of their qualities; Augier has evidently always been classic in his admirations. His form is excellent, but he often places himself outside of real life. The "Aventurière," for instance, is not realistic enough; Dumas has treated the same subject in a very different manner. Augier is not modern, or rather he was not modern at the time when he could work the hardest. His "Gendre de M. Poirier," the most modern of his comedies, is also the best. If he had always treated such subjects with his marvellous style and force, he would have made a greater name for himself. But he has been often too unreal; the "Ciguë," the "Aventurière," and many others have no real life.

We fully agree with Mr. Matthews when he says that the "'Gendre de M. Poirier' is the model modern comedy of manners. Its only competitor for the foremost place, the 'Demi-Monde' of M. Dumas, is fatally weighted by its subject." The "Gendre de M. Poirier" puts two worlds, two ideals, face to face—the rich bourgeoisie, issued from the Revolution, and the old nobility. The contrast is admirably drawn, and the effect is wonderful. Jules Sandeau's "Mademoiselle de La Seiglière" also places two ideals in contrast. It is a pity Mr. Matthews does not mention this wonderful play; it always reminds me of Sir Walter Scott, and of those fascinating novels in which the Puritans and the Cavaliers fight for their opposite causes. In "Mademoiselle de La Seiglière" the French *émigré* and the young officer of the Empire are brought together; their characters, as well as all the incidental characters, especially the lawyer—an admirable type—are painted with great perfection.

The "Demi-Monde" only came after the "Dame aux Camélias." It was a bold idea to rehabilitate and to place on the stage the forlorn woman, the outcast of society, the Laïs of modern times. These two pieces represent well the character and the rôle of Dumas, *fils*. "Et l'amour m'a refait une virginité," says the poet. Dumas had tried to make a virgin of the prostitute; he had idealized her, transformed her by the operation of love, in the "Dame aux Camélias." He saw afterward that this was a futile attempt; that love was a forbidden fruit for some natures; that they may long for its divine emotions without being able to reach them; that society has its just laws, founded on nature, on religion, on the most sacred sentiments, and that it must protect them against all comers; and he wrote the "Demi-Monde"—the best piece of his répertoire, the most profound, the most correct, as it shows the struggle of society against the most dangerous of its offenders.

Mr. Matthews was quite right in giving a place in his volume to Labiche, the most naturally comical genius of our time, the most healthy moralist, though he only wrote *farces* for the Palais Royal. On the whole, we must compliment Mr. Matthews on his intimate knowledge of our theatre, and thank him for his kind and sympathetic judgments.

Correspondence.

THE CLIMATE AND THE RULER OF MATABELE LAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a criticism in the *Nation* of December 1 last on a book I have recently edited ('Matabele Land and the Victoria Falls'), the writer has fallen into one or two apparent misconceptions which perhaps you would allow me to correct.

And here, in passing, I am anxious to remark, what I have seemingly failed in the preface to make clear, that the volume in question was published without any claim whatever to be a record of original discovery. Other writers, from the time of Livingstone downward, have traversed and retraversed the country treated of, and it was precisely *because* they had done so, and given to the world the results of their somewhat hasty journeyings, that it was felt by myself and my advisers in this matter that a record of travel which filled in somewhat in detail what they had dealt with *in extenso* might possibly prove of interest to more than merely a "small circle of friends," if indeed it were not of some positive value to future travellers. "Even in a country comparatively familiar to naturalists," a writer in the *Times* has since remarked, "Frank Oates's observations on the people, natives and Boers, and the natural history will be found to contain much that is fresh and original."

The misconceptions, however, in your article to which I chiefly allude have reference to matters of fact of some importance. The difficulties which my brother encountered in reaching the Zambesi were not, I would submit, attributable, as stated in your article, "chiefly to the climate," or even in any great measure to it, but, as frequently insisted on in the volume itself, to the obstructiveness of native character—whether actuated by a lust for gain, or a not unnatural suspicion of one whose objects were wholly unintelligible to them, I cannot pretend to say; perhaps by both. It is certain at all events that the King and his subjects threw every possible obstacle in the way of his advance; and the fair seeming of Lobengula's early conduct, so pointedly alluded to in your article, was unfortunately not supported by later experience. There appeared, in fact, only too much reason to suspect the sincerity of the monarch and his subjects, and I may add, as corroborative of this opinion, that there is now unhappily but little doubt in the minds of most men in this country that the late spirited explorer, Captain Patterson, who, with all his followers, perished some years since in the Matabele country, was treacherously poisoned by order of that specious potentate. With traders and hunters the case perhaps is different, as Lobengula is too shrewd to discourage trade; but for those visiting the country with objects of a different character, there are dangers to be encountered more serious than those presented by the climate.

Again, as regards the climate, your article, as it seems to me, leaves room for misapprehension in a reader's mind. The climate almost of the entire country, it should be explained, is healthy in a remarkable degree; so much so that, as a matter of fact, at least one-half of the traders and settlers who are met with there are men of broken health or constitutions who have been tempted from their own country by representations of its extreme salubrity, which in almost every instance are sustained by fact, and especially in cases of pulmonary disorder. It is only the neighborhood of the larger rivers, and notably of the Zambesi and Ramaqueban, that is unhealthy, and this only at certain seasons, which are perfectly well known to every one, and can always be avoided where a traveller is not impelled, as in the case of my brother, to pursue his course for purposes of inquiry or research at an improper time. Traders, hunters, and settlers, who can choose their own time, have next to nothing to fear in this respect, but may expect a climate which will well repay them for a long journey in pursuit of it.

With regard to my brother's claim to "especial notice either as a traveller or a naturalist," it is not for me to speak; but I am anxious at least that his dear-bought experience should be turned to the use of others; and, as questions of climate and native character are of first importance in any country regarded as a field for future enterprise, I trust you will give a place to this communication in your columns.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

C. G. Oates.

New University Club, London, Dec. 24, 1881.

THE PAINTER RICHTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of January 5 you name Gustav Richter, painter, among the dead of the year. It seems that the cable-message of September 2 which announced the artist's death was an error. A private letter from an Ameri-

can art-student in Berlin, dated November 24, runs as follows:

"I read with much surprise, in the October number of the *Review*, the obituary of Gustav Richter, the artist, as he was in very good health (for a man who suffers as he does from gout) yesterday. . . . He entertained yesterday at dinner a party of artists, one of whom, my master, Prof. Gussors, spoke of him as being exceptionally entertaining."

Respectfully, S. R. KOEHLER.

BEECH GLEN AVE., ROXBURY, Jan. 10, 1882.

PLAGIARISM ON A PLAGIARIST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the last number of the *Nation*, I observe a criticism of the latest novel of Thomas Hardy, entitled 'A Laodicean,' and in yesterday's *Tribune* "G. W. S.," the London correspondent of that paper, withdrawing his opera-glass for the moment from the contemplation of Mrs. Langtry, alludes to an alleged plagiarism by a dramatic author named Pinero from one of Hardy's earlier novels, 'Far from the Madding Crowd.'

I am reminded thereby of a somewhat curious plagiarism of which Hardy has himself been guilty in 'A Laodicean.' It occurs in the description of Sir William De Stancy, a decayed baronet and whilom "plunger" of the British turf. In chapter v. of 'A Laodicean' Hardy pictures De Stancy as follows:

"He was the star, as I may say, of fashion forty years ago. . . . I can seem to see now the exact style of his clothes. They were always of a very light color—a neat white hat, white trousers, white silk handkerchief; aye, and his handsome face, as white as his clothes with keeping late hours. There was nothing black about him but his hair and his eyes—he wore no beard at that time—and they were black indeed. The like of his style of coming on the racecourse was never seen there before nor since. He drove his barouche himself, and it was always drawn by four beautiful white horses, with two outriders on matches to 'em, rode in harness-bridles. In his rear was a saddle-horse groom, leading a thoroughbred hack, and at the rubbing-post was another groom—all in splendid liveries—waiting with another hack. What a 'stablishment he kept up at that time! I remember him, sir, with thirty race-horses in training at once, seventeen coach-horses, twelve hunters at his box t' other side of London, four chargers at Budmouth, and ever so many hacks. . . . So 'twas no surprise that the castle that bears his name passed into other hands. . . . 'Tis quite recently since his illness that he came to that little place within sight of the buildings that once were the pride of his ancestors and himself."

Compare with the above the following description of Colonel Mellish, apparently a former ornament of British racing circles, taken from a very readable article entitled "The Turf," published in 1833 in the *Quarterly Review* (English), vol. xlix. of that publication, page 331, etc.; and there is, to say the least, a striking similarity apparent:

"The star of the racecourse of modern times was the late Colonel Mellish, certainly the cleverest man of his day as regards the science and practice of the turf. . . . We remember even the style of his dress, peculiar for its lightness of hue: his neat white hat, white trousers, white silk stockings—aye, and we may add his white but handsome face. There was nothing black about him but his hair and his mustachios, which he wore by virtue of his commission, and which to him were an ornament. The like of his style of coming on the racecourse at Newmarket was never witnessed there before him nor since. He drove his barouche himself, drawn by four beautiful white horses, with two outriders on matches to them, ridden in harness-bridles. In his rear was a saddle-horse groom, leading a thoroughbred hack, and at the rubbing-post on the heath was another groom—all in crimson liveries—waiting with a second hack. But we marvel when we think of his establishment. We remember him with thirty-eight race-horses in training, seventeen coach-horses, twelve hunters in Leicester, four chargers at Brighton, and not a few hacks. . . . We are not surprised that the domain of Blythe passed into other hands. . . . Colonel Mellish ended his days, not in poverty, for he acquired a competency with his lady, but in a small house within sight of the mansion which had been the pride of his ancestors and himself."

I do not criticise the use made of the scissors in the above instance by Mr. Hardy, but call attention to it as a specimen of the manner in which the inventive labors of novelists are doubtless often abridged, and as an illustration of the danger attending such abridgment.

I am, sir, very respectfully yours,

CHARLES T. F. SPOOR.

JANUARY 9, 1882.

CANADIAN COPYRIGHT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your issue of the 5th instant, under the heading, "Mark Twain's Visit to Canada," contains the statement that "a Canadian copyright cannot be obtained unless the author is domiciled in Canada," and you express the opinion that "A treaty between England and the United States which left the status of copyright in Canada undetermined, might lead to complications of a serious character."

Now, section 4 of the Canadian Copyright Act of 1875 provides that "Any person domiciled in Canada, or in any part of the British Possessions, *or being a citizen of any country having an international copyright treaty with the United Kingdom*," may obtain a Canadian copyright under the act. So that if Mark Twain and other American authors find themselves excluded from the benefit of this very liberal clause, they must blame their own Government, which has so long resisted the efforts of the British Government to establish an international copyright treaty. Should such a treaty ever be arranged, special provisions respecting "the status of copyright in Canada" would seem to be superfluous, as American authors could immediately claim the benefit of the act above cited.—Yours respectfully,

E. LAFLEUR.

10 EXCHANGE COURT, HOSPITAL STREET, MONTREAL, January 14, 1882.

[The Canadian copyright question is much more complicated than our correspondent seems to imagine. At present Canadian copyright cannot be obtained by an American citizen unless he is domiciled in Canada, or at any rate has a British domicile. Our statement was, we admit, too narrow. It is very true, also, that under the act of 1875 the ratification of a treaty between the United States and England would enable American citizens to secure copyright in Canada, but the trouble is that what the Canadians want, and have wanted for years, is much less international copyright than "cheap books." When the system of pirating English books sprang up in this country the Canadians began to hanker after American reprints, much preferring them to dear English editions. A curious sort of compromise was arrived at, the full history of which our correspondent will find stated in the report of the late royal commission, by which the Canadians were to be allowed to import American (pirated) copies of English books into Canada, and to recompense the English author by an import duty of 12½ per cent., which was to be collected in the Canadian custom-houses and paid to him in lieu of a royalty. The system was a beautiful one on paper, but it did not work in practice, because the reprints instead of coming through the custom-houses came round them, the duties were not paid, and while the Canadian public got cheap books, the British author did not get his 12½ per cent. The statistics given by the commission show that in ten years, in all the colonies to which the system applies, only a few hundred pounds were collected and paid over. What Canada wants with regard to the proposed treaty now we do not know. The act of 1875 would very likely, as our correspondent says, be quite enough to protect the American author; but the Canadians' desire to protect foreign authors has always been colored by their love of cheap books, and it has been publicly announced that they desire to be represented in the pending negotiations, so that they do not themselves seem to consider that the law of 1875 covers the ground. Possibly the Canadian publishers may now think that the law of 1875 went too far; that what is good enough for England and the United States is good enough for them, and that if Canada gives a foreign author a copyright, he ought to have his book manufactured in Canada. Whatever authors may think, no American publisher "can ask fairer" than that.—ED. NATION.]

TARIFF TINKERING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If so intelligent a man as your correspondent I. J. Wistar is can see no better way to amend the tariff than the plan proposed by him, what can you expect of the average Congressman with interested parties behind him using every appliance, legitimate and illegitimate, to influence him? It is a strong argument for a commission of experts when such a man as Mr. Wistar has no better plan to propose. Let us look at it a moment:

"It would be safe to enact immediately a law, to take effect in six months, that no import duty should exceed the maximum of forty per cent."

The passage of such a law would (according to the theory that duties add just so much to the value of an article) reduce at once the value of the property of an innocent holder of merchandise, in some cases equal to twenty or thirty per cent. Such an unsettling of values would not be tolerated for a moment in any other country.

Again. Duties on raw wool average from fifty to sixty per cent. This plan would reduce them to forty. The manufacturer would not only have to bear the shrinkage upon all his wool, yarn, and goods, but would have to pay a duty on his wool of forty per cent., and receive protection on his product of only forty per cent. Such an act would bring widespread ruin in its train. What is true of wool and woollens is true of many other interests. The fact that we are in the condition we are should not lead us to leap before we look, but it calls for the wisest consideration of the best minds in the country, so that the inevitable change, when it comes, shall deprive no home of the necessaries of life, but shall be a gradual one, and interfere as little as possible with the industries of the country, which have grown to such huge proportions under the present tariff.

I, for one, do not believe in the kind of re vision which would be made by the timber we have in Congress. C.

BOSTON, January 14, 1882.

THE GUITEAU CASE — "REASONABLE DOUBT AS TO INSANITY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your comment upon "S. J.'s" communication in the last number (862) of the *Nation*, you say, as to the question of "reasonable doubt":

"Precisely what this means no judge has ever been able to explain to any jury, and the rule itself is capable of two widely different interpretations. It may mean either that the prisoner is entitled to have the judge tell the jury that to convict they must be satisfied of his *guilt* beyond a reasonable doubt, or that they must be satisfied beyond a reasonable doubt as to every particular fact which goes to make up the guilt—*e.g.*, sanity, identity, presence at the time of the commission of the crime."

The true rule, and the only one that I know of at this writing, is that laid down by the Supreme Court of this State (Missouri), and uniformly followed, in the case of the State *vs.* Evans, 55 Mo., 460, where the court instructs the jury and defines "reasonable doubt" as follows: "That if, from all the evidence in the case, they have a reasonable doubt of defendant's guilt, they will acquit; but such a doubt to authorize an acquittal must be a real and substantial doubt of defendant's guilt, and not a mere possibility of his innocence." This was a case where insanity was not a defence. The same instruction has been given in Ohio and other States, and whether this "explains" any more to the jury is a question that might admit of some metaphysical hair-splitting.

The same instruction has been given in a case (53 Mo., 267) where insanity was set up as a defence, and the jury are told that "all the facts," "all the circumstances and facts," must be considered by them, and instructions calling attention to and *singling out particular facts* are expressly denied (see 18 Mo., 419, 31 Mo., 147, and 34 Mo., 200). The rule as stated seems certainly in consonance with reason, and a necessary safeguard and protection to a defendant when life and liberty are in jeopardy.

As to the question of burden of proof when insanity is a defence, there is great conflict among the American decisions. The majority of the earlier decisions, and probably the preponderance numerically, hold that the defendant in such cases must satisfy the jury by a preponderance of evidence; but a large number, and the best-reasoned modern authorities, hold that where insanity is set up by the defendant the burden is not shifted, but the jury must acquit if, from *all the evidence*, they have a reasonable doubt that defendant was insane at the time of the act.

The Supreme Court of Michigan, being one of the ablest in the country, thus speaks, through Chief-Justice Cooley, one of the greatest American jurists and law-writers, in reference to the question of the burden of proof and the cases which hold it to be upon the defendant: "They overlook or disregard an important and necessary ingredient in the crime of murder, and they strip the defendant of that presumption of innocence which the humanity of the law casts over him, and which attends him from the initiation of the proceedings until the verdict is rendered." Here he defines murder as being committed by a person of sound mind and discretion, etc., and says that the prosecution must prove not only killing, but the malicious intent: "There is no such thing in law as a separation of the ingredients of the offence so as to leave a part to be established by the prosecution, while as to the rest the defendant takes upon himself the burden of proving a negative. The idea that the burden of proof shifts in these cases is unphilosophical, and at war with the fundamental principles of criminal law. The presumption of innocence is a shield to the defendant throughout the proceedings, until the verdict of the jury establishes the fact that, beyond a reasonable doubt, he not only committed the act, but that he did so with malicious intent" (17 Mich., 9, and 38 Mich., 482).

In this multitude of counsellors and conflict, the position of Judge Cox in the Guiteau case is a most difficult one. If in doubt, he should certainly lean to mercy. Albert Young.

Kansas City, Mo.

THE FRUITS OF THE PACIFIC COAST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If it be admissible to add another to the communications called forth by your criticism of Mrs. Dall's book on California, I would call attention to a fatal flaw in Mr. Elliott's comparison of California grapes with those produced in the East. He compares that which is not comparable, since the grape varieties he mentions—the Delaware, Catawba, and Concord—are specifically as distinct from the Old-World grapes grown almost exclusively in California as the apricot is from the peach, or the pear from the apple. The American grape varieties are not to be found in the general market of this State as yet; and, while few will differ from Mr. Elliott in awarding to them the prize as the best eating-grapes, on account of their agreeable "musky" flavor, those who, like myself, have had an opportunity of comparing the same varieties of California growth will as unhesitatingly award the prize to the latter, as against those of the Lake Shore or of Missouri. There is good reason why this should be so, as the bunches *always* ripen uniformly here, and may take as much time for it as they please.

As the Atlantic and Mississippi Valley States produce no Muscats, Hamburgs, Sweetwaters, Rieslings, or any other grapes of the European stock, no comparisons with the "average" crop of California are possible.

As to the general issue, I would remark that, while Eastern growers of fruit have long ago determined which are the best localities for growing each fruit, so that the inferior products have been driven out of the market one or two generations ago, the *average* fruit-crop of California is as yet in the tentative stage. It is only when experience shall have excluded the unsuitable localities and varieties that a fair comparison as to ultimate capabilities and excellence is possible to any but those who have made a comparative local study of the subject.

E. W. Hilgard.

University of California, College of Agriculture, Berkeley, Jan. 7, 1882.

Notes.

The Free Circulating Library, in this city, is making very satisfactory progress. We have before now called attention to the importance of this attempt to establish the nucleus for a public library in New York, and the support with which it has met already in the short time of its existence shows that the views of its promoters are sound, and that the need of such an institution is real. It is the only circulating library in the city that is absolutely free to all classes without distinction, and it is the only library the growth and increase of which have been solely regulated by the actual demand. That is to say, the managers, with a few shelves full of books, put to a practical test the question so often asked, but never before answered, whether the absence of any great public circulating library in New York was due to the fact that the people of the city did not care for one, or because no serious attempt had ever been set on foot to make one accessible to them. They therefore offered to circulate their scanty collection among those who cared enough about it to come and get the books. The demand was immediately proved to exist, and in the course of a few months another fact was demonstrated about which a good deal of doubt was entertained at the start—that the circulation of books in this way did not result in their loss either by carelessness or theft. During the past year 69,230 volumes (counting each time any book is taken out) have been circulated, and only six have disappeared. It is interesting to learn, also, that but sixty-four per cent. of the circulation is of works of fiction—a much smaller percentage than in most other libraries. The trustees have decided, as the means at their disposal increase, to establish small libraries all over the city, in the centres of the poorest and most thickly-settled districts. The books are to be specially selected with reference to the wants of the community to be supplied, and reading-rooms are to be attached to each library. What the trustees need now is a small fund to secure the erection of the first of these, and a public meeting will soon be held at which their plans will be fully stated. The trustees and managers are well known in New York, and their names are identified with honest philanthropic work, not dilettante charity. What they propose is very different from those benevolent enterprises so common nowadays, which are galvanized into a sickly vitality by the desire of a few idle people to find something that has a benevolent look with which to occupy their time. It is a real effort to make the dull, squalid life of the poor in New York a little brighter, and more happy, and less ignorant than it is now; to bring the means of this to their doors; to give them actually, so far as it can be done, those opportunities for intellectual improvement and recreation the abstract beauty and value of which everybody is ready to admit, and indeed so fond of moralizing and dreaming over, but which we make after all few sacrifices to forward.

—The revision of 'Appletons' Cyclopædia, which was in active progress during 1881, was in large part suspended on the 31st of December in order to await the publication of the Tenth U. S. Census, from which of course many of its data will be derived. The appearance of the Census is expected for about the first of next July; but in view of the fact that it has long been postponed already, as well as of the notorious delays of Government book-making in general, it may be doubted whether the Messrs. Appleton will find that part of their material ready to hand for many months to come. The delay, meanwhile, should inure to the benefit of their forthcoming third edition, for it gives opportunity for a more careful revision than would otherwise be possible of what we may call the permanent element of the 'Cyclopædia'—the completed biography and history of remoter past times. These are subjects in which, as all students know, thoroughness is too often lacking in a popular cyclopædia. We learn that care is to be taken, in accordance with our recent suggestion (*Nation*, Dec. 29), to facilitate, by a full use of paragraphs, side-titles (as in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica'), and other printer's devices, the work of readers in searching the longer articles of the 'Cyclopædia.'

—Timbuctoo, according to the *Revue de Géographie*, is supposed to contain a number of private collections of manuscripts, and now that the mines of Mount Athos have been found to be utterly exhausted, the hunter for classical gems must turn his attention further south. He cannot

expect to find originals in the heart of Africa; but even Arabic translations of the lost books of Livy's History, and of the 'Annals' of Tacitus, would be worth a journey through the Sudan. Any such find would be welcome for more than one reason. In comparison with the vast field open to scientific observers, classical studies begin to show some signs of being overcrowded and overworked. It would be a novel occupation (with a plentiful chance of controversy) to re-translate the recovered treasures from the flowery Arabic into the concise and nervous style of the historian of the Empire, or even into the flowing periods of the historian of the Republic. Livy would be easy enough; but Tacitus would furnish a longer amusement. As we were deluged a decade ago with translations of the 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey,' and since then with rival versions of the greater Greek dramatists, we should probably have half a dozen simultaneous claimants for the honor of relating the events of the reigns of Caligula and Claudius in the original Latin.

—By the way, why should not the poet Payne, whose complete translation of the 'Arabian Nights,' rumor says, is to be decidedly improper, veil its nakedness in a learned tongue, and draw his language not from a well of English defiled but from the tanks of Apuleius, or, when necessary, of Petronius Arbiter? Neither would be very difficult to imitate, and there are verses in Petronius as there are in the 'Thousand and One Nights.' Mr. Payne, who is vouched for as an accomplished Arabic scholar, must have an aptitude for languages. But, to speak more seriously, Payne's translation will be an important addition to English literature. He is a master of English. His poems have achieved a reputation in an age when the amount of public attention to be divided among poetry is diminishing as much as the number of poets increases. His translation of Villon is warmly commended by those who have been fortunate enough to see the very limited edition. He will give us the graceful Arabic verses with which Alif Laila is thickly bestrewn (as Lane first showed the Western world), not, as Lane did, in prose distinguished from the rest only by its small type, but as English poetry. Perhaps in England the Villon Society, under whose auspices the very few copies of the work are to be issued for the benefit of a select few, will not allow any mutilated edition to be published; but in this country, if a copyright law has not first been passed, some enterprising publisher will no doubt seize upon the work, and by omissions and easy changes render it fit for a public of children and of persons who object to seeing a spade called a spade. The admirers of Walt Whitman may protest against a squeamishness which makes such expurgation necessary; but the general public will gladly welcome a presentation of the famous Arabian romance more adequate in the poetical portions, and possibly more exact in the prose.

—The *Revue Internationale d'Enseignement*, published by the Société de l'Enseignement supérieur, under the editorship of M. Dreyfus-Brisac, has completed its first year, second volume, and twelfth number. The relations of American scholars with Germany are so much closer than those with France that this review has not attracted so much attention in this country as it deserves. The French element is naturally prominent in it; the co-editors are among the most distinguished men of France—men such as Pasteur, just elected a member of the Academy in the place of Littré; Boissier, the author of 'Cicéron et ses Amis'; Michel Bréal, Janet, Monod, Taine; but the list of foreign correspondents is large, and their connection with the *Revue* is not nominal—witness the elaborate articles on Harvard. Many important questions have been discussed with fulness and vivacity. So, among others, the problem of the *Gymnasium* and *Realschule*, the statement of which in the *Nation* of December 22, 1881, has excited the liveliest interest in American educational circles. The last number of the *Revue* (December 15, 1881) contains, among other articles, a subacid criticism by M. Henry Martin of M. Guerrier's life of Madame Guyon, with a graphic sketch of the career of that problematical saint, and a vindication of Bossuet against Fénelon. M. Dreyfus-Brissac continues his "Instruction publique sous la Révolution." M. Pelet makes a plea for the establishment of chairs of Biblical Geography and Archæology in the Protestant faculties of theology, and for the foundation of an *École de Jérusalem* like the *École de Rome* and the *École d'Athènes*. At least, says M. Pelet, let us send our young pastors to travel in the Holy Land. M. Renan, commenting on M. Pelet's letter, thinks that the *École de Jérusalem* is half realized in the *École de Caire*, which embraces the exploration of Syria and Palestine; but he warmly seconds the other projects, especially the bursary for travelling in the East, "which would be infinitely more useful to young pastors than sojourn at foreign schools, where very often no original instruction is to be found."

—In the retrospective section of the *Revue*, an extract from the memoirs of Marmontel gives a vivid picture of the life of a *collégien* in the eighteenth century and, by the way, a sensible vindication of the old-fashioned course of study. "The study of Latin," he says, "in the upper classes constituted a course of elementary philosophy far richer, more extensive, and more really useful than those think who complain that nothing but Latin is taught in the high schools" (*colléges*). Among the correspondents, Dr. Steinbart, of the *Realschule* at Duisburg, attacks the positions of Richter and Hollenberg, and will not suffer the successes gained by the pupils of the *Realschule* in the state examinations to be explained away. The account of M. Bert's official reception is not without interest nor without amusement. The obligatory phrase-making did not prevent the new Minister of Public Instruction from making some good points, such as would be impossible in the sweet accord of our Machine politics. When we have a Minister of Public Instruction, the "Stalwart" secretary will address only "Stalwart" professors of mathematics, and there will be no danger of sly hits at "Half-Breed" arithmeticians. The *Revue* appears monthly, and is published at 24 francs a year, the year making two volumes of more than 600 pages each (Paris: G. Masson). For the character of the periodical, it cannot be considered dear.

—It might be added that French school-books are often surprisingly cheap. M. Weil's 'Morceaux choisis d'Eschyle' (Hachette, 1881), containing nearly the whole of the "Prometheus," with long extracts from the other pieces, except the "Supplices"—the foot-notes clear, terse, sensible, the work of a master who does not need to parade erudition, with a *bonne-bouche* of emendations for the philological reader—fairly bound and clearly printed (231 pages), sells for one franc. With all our hopefulness for the future of the classics in America, there is no prospect of any demand here that would make such a publication possible among us.

—The success of Mr. Sims's "Lights o' London" at the Union Square Theatre has proved so great that it is likely to run all winter. This fact, coupled with the previous run of the play in London, is significant of the general condition of the dramatic art in both countries. The peculiarity of the "Lights o' London"—which is put down on the bills as a "powerful melodrama, in five acts and eleven scenes"—is, that it is not, in any sense of the word hitherto recognized, a play at all. It contains a story, a pathetic plot, in the adventures of *Harold Armytage* (Mr. C. R. Thorne, jr.), wrongfully suspected of crime, and his faithful wife, *Bess Marks* (Miss Sara Jewett). There is a villain in *Clifford Armytage* (Mr. F. de Belleville), who pursues *Harold* and his poor wife with merciless, unrelenting hate from one end of the play to the other, and to accomplish his base designs endeavors to compass their destruction by the foulest means, but is baffled of his prey at the last. Indeed, for pure innocence, unredeemed villany, rapid pursuit, and the complete failure of the pursuer, we can recall nothing like it in the legitimate drama; and to any one who has not been to the Union Square we can only give a faint idea of the impression it produces by saying that it reminded us a little of the thrilling ballad, "The Villain still pursued her," which used to be sung with such effect by the San Francisco Minstrels. There are twenty-nine characters in the play, to say nothing of the policemen, grooms, countrymen, costermongers, and maids—amounting to "over one hundred supernumeraries"—who, when they appear in force on the pretty little stage of the Union Square for the purpose of representing a street crowd, create a scene of confusion which beggars description and hugely delights the audience. With regard to incident, there is enough in the "Lights o' London" for at least eleven plays of five acts each—some of it tragic, some comic, some pathetic, some criminal, some vulgar, some refined, but all exciting. There is a murder in the first act, a realistic second-story communicating-room fight in the last; there is an attempted drowning and a rescue, with a very good piece of cold-and-starvation acting by Miss Jewett. These, however, are mere hints of the dramatic feast provided by Mr. Sims. Whether he meant to take a leaf out of Mr. Oscar Wilde's book, and give the public a picture of what is known among the æsthetes as a "broad national life," we do not know; but, if he did, it is unfair to him that so narrow a stage should have been selected for the purpose. But the chief peculiarity of the piece is that it is not a play. It has absolutely no construction. The incidents and scenes of which it is made up follow one another in a chronological, not a dramatic order, somewhat in the manner in which a good special pleader fifty years ago would have narrated the events constituting his "cause of action." If it had been done on a theory, it might be said to be an application of the doctrines of the naturalistic school to dramatic form. It really contains a suggestion which any clever young writer who wants to make a reputation by starting a brand-new idea might make a great deal of. The traditional notion of a play involves the idea of an intrigue, or complication introduced into the situation of the characters, and the correlated dénouement which unravels it. But this is not the way things happen in real life. In real life, when we are accused of murdering and robbing our aged father, we always know whether the accusation is just or not, and there is no need of any mystery about it. If the evidence is against us, what we do is to give "leg-bail," and very surprising adventures we may have in giving it. Attempts may be made to shoot, drown, or starve us, and finally to convict us by perjured evidence in a court of justice; and these thing may all be successively represented on the stage. The representation, too, if well done, will be sure to excite interest; for there is nothing mankind likes better than a hunt of any kind, and a human hunt is best of all. If the

prey escapes the cruel pursuer at the end, it will be a melodrama; if he is run down and killed, it will be a tragedy, which would then be a sort of theatrical version of what the newspapers give, when a murderer is hanged, under the head of "history of the crime." In this way the theatre of the future would burst through the fetters imposed by tradition and usage, and become something entirely new, in which dramatic form would have no more place than it has in the adventures of "Billy the Kid" or those of a band of Texas "road-agents."

—At the Thalia Theatre last Friday a large audience witnessed the first performance in this country of the new operetta, "Apajune, der Wassermann," the music of which was written by Milloecker and the libretto by Zell and Genée, the indefatigable couple who, besides writing operettas of their own, furnish the text-books for nearly all the comic operas of the Viennese school. We say comic operas advisedly, for one of the principal characteristics of this school is that its works often exceed the proper limits of operetta and encroach on the domain of comic opera by their grand finales, embellished arias, and rich instrumentation. "Apajune" is no exception to this rule, and a successful performance of it is therefore only possible at a theatre that has an able artistic manager and can furnish a strong cast, which is fortunately the case at the Thalia. Zell and Genée, who have shortened the life of many an operetta by failing to supply a good plot and entertaining dialogue, have in the present case furnished a story of more than ordinary interest. It is based on a superstition, supposed to be prevalent among the peasants of Wallachia, that a newly-married bride can secure a valuable present from the water-sprite *Apajune*, if on her wedding day she visits him in his grotto by the fountain. The Rumanian boyars or princes (*Prutshesko*) take advantage of this superstition, to which they owe many a romantic episode in their lives. During the absence of the present Boyar at Paris, where he secures the hand of a robust ex-landlady valued at several millions, the custodian of his estates, *Alexandri*, passes himself off as the Boyar and assumes all his functions. Coming into the village where the marriage of the peasant *Marcu* is just being celebrated, he commands the bridegroom, in accordance with the established custom of the country, to call on him in the course of the day with his bride. While *Marcu*, who suspects his intentions, meditates on some plan of avoiding this danger, he opportunely falls in with two men disguised as females, who are on their way to the castle. The happy thought strikes him that he might introduce one of these persons as his wife and the other as his aunt, and thus deceive *Alexandri*. The disguised men are two officers, one of whom is the lover of the real Boyar's niece, who is expected at the castle that day, and with whom he intends to elope, since the Boyar and his wife are opposed to the match. They proceed to the castle, where a series of amusing scenes ensue, too complicated to narrate. Meanwhile the fair *Natalitza, Marcu's* bride, misses her husband, and hearing that he has been seen going toward the castle with two females, starts in jealous pursuit of him. At the castle she meets the Boyar, who endeavors to console her for her lover's perfidy, and advises her to carry out her intended plan of visiting *Apajune's* grotto. Meanwhile the Boyar's niece has effected her escape with her disguised lover, and when the fact becomes known *Marcu* is accused of having assisted them and is thrown into a dungeon. The dungeon leads into a subterranean passage which *Marcu* follows until he suddenly finds himself near *Apajune's* grotto. To his surprise he beholds *Alexandri*, who, having heard of the Boyar's return, had resolved on flight, but previously determined to carry out his plan of duping *Natalitza*. *Marcu* puts him to flight, and then, finding that he has left his Apajune costume behind, resolves to put it on in order to test his bride's fidelity, if she comes. He has hardly retired when a third *Apajune*, this time the Boyar, makes his appearance. *Marcu* encounters him, too, and treats him to an involuntary bath in the fountain, on emerging from which he not only consents to leave the peasant couple in peace, but agrees to the marriage of his niece with the young officer. Milloecker's musical setting of this plot is of that sensuous, semi-Oriental quality which, combined with honest German workmanship, makes Viennese operettas so refreshing to listen to. That there are numerous passages which suggest the work of some of his colleagues cannot be denied. But there are others of that incisive originality which fixes them at once in the memory of the hearer, and causes them to be whistled and hummed in the street after a first hearing. The stirring march in the first act would be quite worthy of Suppé, while a waltz and a polka which recurs as a sort of leading motive would do honor to Strauss. The performance was so excellent in every respect that it would be superfluous to specify the merits of each actor. Suffice it to say that the audience was highly amused and very enthusiastic in its applause throughout the evening. "Apajune" will be repeated until further notice. It deserves a long and prosperous career.

—Mr. Remenyi's plan of giving a solo-violin concert without the assistance of another instrument throughout the evening is one of those tricks of virtuosity which are sure to draw a large audience on account of their novelty. Steinway Hall was so crowded on the evening of the 11th inst. that it would have been difficult to find a square foot of standing-room. The audience suggested in appearance those seen at Koster & Bial's and similar places, and applause was bestowed on everything without much discrimination. Mr. Remenyi played in the first part of the concert three pieces from Bach's violin sonatas. The second part consisted of arrangements and original compositions, and the third of four *capriccios* from Paganini's twenty-four studies. Mr. Remenyi has been so long before the public that all his merits, defects, and eccentricities are well known. He is at his best in those wild and unmethodical Hungarian pieces which, according to Liszt, his countrymen owe to the Gypsies. Classical music he plays like an amateur, and not even a good amateur. That he so frequently plays out of tune is not to be wondered at in view of the fact that when he is tuning his violin and has succeeded in getting it all right, he turns the screw a little more and gets it all wrong again before he begins to play. His intonation, it is true, is never so shockingly defective as that of some opera singers recently heard at the Academy of Music, and a person who has not sharpened his hearing by playing on a string instrument himself would not notice it in many cases. But a great violinist who aspires to give a concert by himself, should play so as to satisfy the most delicate ear, since this is a feat which thousands of amateurs can accomplish. More annoying than his uncertain pitch is the roughness of his bowing in loud passages. It may be partly the fault of his instrument, but the coarse, rattling sound of his G string, as played by him, is often annoying and mars some of his best effects. However, if it offended against certain critical principles, Mr. Remenyi's concert must yet be pronounced a popular success, and it is only to be feared that some other violinist will now be tempted to give a concert on the G string alone.

—Haydn, Beethoven, and Schumann, in chronological order, were represented on the programme of the fourth Philharmonic concert on Saturday evening. Haydn's D major Symphony, the twelfth of those which he composed in England, is an excellent illustration of its author's inexhaustible source of melody and spontaneous workmanship. Haydn's proper sphere was the string quartet, a department in which he has been surpassed only by Beethoven. In all his symphonies the string quartet gives the predominant color, and he even expressed his regrets to a friend in his old age that now, when he was about to leave the world, he had only just learned the use of wind instruments. Yet he does make charming use of them on occasion, but not sufficiently to give his works that kaleidoscopic variety of color we are accustomed to in modern works. What atones for this in Haydn's best symphonies is the exquisite finish of detail. To hear one of them is like strolling through a meadow filled with flowers and grasses. To one who takes only a bird's-eye view the meadow will seem monotonous; but the connoisseur who examines the individual grasses, ferns, and flowers will discover in them an inexhaustible variety of beautiful forms and hues. In the second selection, Beethoven's Concerto in G major op. 58, Mr. Thomas's orchestra had the assistance of Mr. Joseffy, who had never before been heard in this composition in New York. The cadenzas were Rubinstein's. Joseffy's playing was deficient in impetuosity where this quality was called for; but it was characterized by such a marvellous perfection of execution, a distinctness of touch, and soulful dwelling on sustained notes, that the applause accorded him by the audience was fully justified. An encore, which is usually such a nuisance, was not out of place here, since a piano solo offered an agreeable contrast to the other numbers, all of which were orchestral. Of Schumann's Rhenish Symphony, which brought the concert to a close, nothing need here be said, as it was discussed in connection with the last Brooklyn Philharmonic concert. The magic wand of Mr. Thomas, as usual, succeeded in conjuring a compact volume of sound such as can be heard in this country only at our Philharmonic concerts. At the next concert a new symphony, "Tell," by Hans Huber, will be the novelty, the other pieces being Mozart's D major Symphony No. 5 and two movements of Beethoven's String Quartet No. 9 in C.

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.—I.

Memoirs of Count Miot de Melito, 1788–1815. Edited by General Fleischmann. From the French, by Mrs. Cashel Hoey and Mr. John Lillie. 2 vols. London: Sampson Low & Co.; New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. 1881.

THE 'Memoirs of Count Miot de Melito' are not remarkable for that vivacity of style and picturesque portraiture of character which French memoirs generally exhibit. They give us no such living panorama of the court of Napoleon as is to be found in the 'Memoirs of Madame de Rémusat.' Count Miot de Melito was, apparently, a steady-going official, of strictly business habits—such a man as heads of governments and departments love to have about them—executing all works entrusted to him with careful diligence, strong in statistical information, and so forth, but certainly not a literary artist. However, any man is welcome to students of history who has anything to tell us, directly from his own personal experience, of the first Napoleon. Mean and repulsive as was the character of the Corsican soldier, he possesses the

inexhaustible attractiveness of genius. We are always willing to read about him, because we recognize that there was that in his nature which our ordinary human plummets are unable to fathom. The gulf which divides him from what we may term the "measurable" man comes out clearly enough when we place him in contrast with his great military rival, the Duke of Wellington. There are no mysteries, so to speak, in the character of the Duke: we can catalogue his qualities, and account for the man. Not so with Napoleon. Shelley's wonderful lines, written when he heard that the conqueror was dead in his far-off place of banishment, represent very truly the effect wrought upon the imagination by his meteoric career—

"A torrent of ruin and death from his birth"—

as if some immeasurable cosmic force had taken human shape. Count Miot de Melito had special opportunities to give us information about Napoleon. He was thrown into intimate relations with him during his first Italian campaigns; subsequently he became the close friend and confidential adviser of Napoleon's brother Joseph, and from this source obtained much knowledge of the inner workings of the Emperor's restless and ambitious mind to which the world was a stranger. He was, moreover, greatly trusted by Napoleon himself, and when he became sole master of France Count Miot de Melito was employed by him for the transaction of much important and difficult business. These memoirs, accordingly, present us with a portrait of Napoleon which possesses that fresh and living interest which nearly always attaches to the record of what a man has himself seen and known.

Count Miot de Melito was the French Ambassador at Florence when he first became acquainted with Napoleon, who had then just received the command of the Army of Italy. This army, without clothes, without food, and without commissariat, could barely hold its own against the combined forces of Austria and Piedmont. In two years from the date of his assuming command, Napoleon, as all the world knows, had utterly destroyed the armies both of Piedmont and Austria. It is unnecessary to recount the story of this perhaps the greatest in point of generalship of all Napoleon's campaigns; but what is startlingly brought out in the 'Memoirs' before us is the clearness with which Napoleon apprehended, at this opening stage of his career, the goal at which he was to arrive. While still only General of the Army of Italy, he had determined to become Emperor of France and supreme controller of the destinies of Europe. It was in the month of April, 1796, that Bonaparte, having arrived at Nice, wrote his first letter to the French Ambassador at Florence, announcing that he was about to put the army in motion and asking for information on the state of Italy.

"I saw," writes the Count, "at once by his style, which was concise and animated, although careless and incorrect, that he was no ordinary man. I was struck with a breadth and depth of view on military and political subjects such as I had not found in any correspondence which I had held up to that time with the generals of our Army of Italy. I predicted, therefore, either great success or great reverses. My uncertainty did not last long. The campaign was opened, and a series of victories as dazzling as they were unexpected, succeeding each other with surprising quickness, raised the glory of our French soldiers, and that of the great captain who led them daily to fresh triumphs, to the highest. . . . The news reached to the centre of Italy, and the bulletins giving descriptions of these wonderful deeds of our troops, at first contradicted, produced sheer bewilderment, when the force of truth convinced the most incredulous. Nothing was then thought of but how the torrent of war was to be turned away from regions it had not yet reached."

A few months later the Count had his first interview with the French general at Brescia. Napoleon was at that time about to begin the siege of Mantua, having driven the Austrians, under Beaulieu, across the Adige.

"I was quite astonished at his appearance. Nothing could be more unlike the idea my imagination had formed of him. In the midst of a numerous staff, I saw a man below the middle height and of an extremely spare figure. His powdered hair, oddly cut, and falling squarely below the ears, reached down to his shoulders. He was dressed in a straight coat, buttoned up to the chin, and edged with very narrow gold embroidery, and he wore a tri-colored feather in his hat. At first sight he did not strike me as handsome; but his strongly-marked features, his quick and piercing eyes, his brusque and animated gestures, revealed an ardent spirit, while his wide and thoughtful brow was that of a profound thinker. He made me sit near him, and we talked of Italy. He spoke in short sentences, and at that time of his life very incorrectly. . . . He crossed the rooms adjoining that in which he had received me, and gave some order to Murat, Lannes, and Junot, his aides-de-camp, and the other officers in attendance. Every one maintained toward him an attitude of respect, and I may even say of admiration. I saw none of those marks of familiarity between him and his companions that I had observed in other cases, and which was consonant with republican equality. He had already assumed his own place, and kept others at a distance. I . . . returned to my hotel, greatly struck and in some sort bewildered by what had just taken place."

Napoleon was then hardly five-and-twenty. He had held command of the Army of Italy but a few months; but he made no concealment of his determination to regulate his conduct in complete independence of the Government at Paris. "The Commissioners of the Directory," he told Count Miot de Melito, "count for nothing in my policy. Let them busy themselves, and welcome, with the administration of the public revenues, for the moment at least; the rest does not concern them." The full disclosure, however, of Bonaparte's far-reaching ambition was not made to the Count until some time later. Mantua had then fallen, and Austria was soliciting peace. The young General (it was in the summer of 1797) was at Montebello, where he kept up a brilliant court rather than the headquarters of an army.

"Strict etiquette already reigned around him; his aides-de-camp and his officers were no longer received at his table, and he had become fastidious in the choice of the guests whom he admitted to it. An invitation was an honor eagerly sought, and obtained with great difficulty. He dined, so to speak, in public; the inhabitants of the country were admitted to the room in which he was eating, and allowed to gaze at him with a keen curiosity. He was in nowise embarrassed or confused by these excessive honors, but received them as though he had been accustomed to them all his life. His reception-rooms and an immense tent pitched in front of the palace were constantly full of a crowd of generals, administrators, and great contractors, besides members of the highest nobility and the most distinguished men in Italy, who came to solicit the favor of a momentary glance or the briefest interview."

Here it was that one day, as the Count was walking in the garden of the palace with Bonaparte and an Italian noble, the future Emperor of France, as if the thick-crowding thoughts in his mind compelled him to give them speech, disclosed his future projects to the pair of astonished auditors:

"What I have done up to this," he said, "is nothing. I am only at the beginning of the course I must run. Do you imagine that I triumph in Italy in order to aggrandize the pack of lawyers who form the Directory, and men like Carnot and Barras? What an idea! A republic of thirty million men! and with our manners, our vices! How is it possible? That is a theory of which the French are at present full, but it will pass away like all the others. What they want is glory and gratified vanity; but as for liberty, they do not understand what it means. Look at the army! the victories we have just won have already restored the French soldier to his true character. To him I am everything. Let the Directory try to take the command from me, and they will see who is master. The nation must have a chief, and a chief rendered illustrious by glory, not by theories of government, by phrases, by didactic speeches which Frenchmen do not understand. Give them baubles—that suffices them; they will be amused, and will let themselves be led so long as the end toward which they are going is skilfully hidden from them."

Napoleon, however, miscalculated the extent of his power at this time. Very shortly after this discourse the Directory did what he had dared them to do. They removed him from the command of the Army of Italy, and Napoleon found that he had no alternative but to obey. It was then that the idea of an expedition to Egypt flashed across his mind. It was a sphere in which he would recover his independence of action, and electrify afresh the imaginations of the French nation by another series of brilliant exploits. The Directory, on its side, was anxious to remove to a distance so formidable and ambitious a competitor for power, and, with so important an object in view, did not scruple to devote an army of French soldiers to needless and unprofitable carnage. Bonaparte went to Egypt, and during his absence matters went on at home precisely as his ambition desired. The Directory showed its incapacity to sustain the honor of the French arms abroad, or to preserve tranquillity and order in France. In Italy the tide of success was completely turned. Suwarrow and the Archduke Charles sent the French armies out of Italy; and had the latter general loyally supported his Russian ally, France itself would have been invaded. In France, the Government, by its weakness, corruption, and utter incapacity, had fallen into the deepest contempt when Napoleon reappeared upon the scene. The revolution of the 18th Brumaire followed, and Napoleon assumed the office of First Consul of the French Republic. The victory of Marengo, which followed soon after, and which recovered the whole of Italy from the Austrians, raised Napoleon to the highest pinnacle of greatness. He was supreme master of France. The people, wearied of the long and rapid succession of weak and incapable rulers, desired nothing better than to have a firm and capable ruler over them. They were attracted toward Napoleon not only by his surpassing genius, but by the not less surpassing good fortune which seemed to attend upon all which he attempted. No man in history ever had such an opportunity for benefiting his fellow-man as Napoleon at this crisis of his career, and for a time, it must be acknowledged, the course of events seemed to promise well. The egoism of Napoleon, detaching him as it did from all parties indifferently, appeared to work as a great healing and reconciling agency, suddenly coming into operation in the distracted politics of France. Wherever he detected an able man he set him to do the work for which his abilities best fitted him, no matter what his political antecedents might have been. Thus, while he gave health and vigor to every department of the administration, he caused all parties to suspend hostilities against the Government till they saw what its future policy was to be. None cared to oppose a Government the action of which had imparted hopes to each one of them.

Bonaparte, too, was no less indefatigable as an administrator in his Cabinet than he had been as a general in the field. "It must not, however," says Count Miot de Melito, "be supposed that, absorbed in the delights which the flexibility of the French nation so easily accorded to him, he neglected public business. His indefatigable activity was more than ever apparent." The poet Coleridge was at this time earning a precarious living as a writer of lead-

ing articles for the London *Morning Post*, and these articles of his show in a very interesting way the admiration and hope with which intelligent men in England were watching the proceedings of the First Consul. After condemning the manner in which the revolution of the 18th Brumaire had been accomplished, Coleridge goes on to say :

"Meantime, it is undeniable that already his (Napoleon's) commanding genius has introduced a new tone of morality into France, and that it is now fashionable to assume the rigid and simple character of the First Consul. . . . In his individual character and conduct the Chief Consul has hitherto supported the part of a man ambitious of greatness : too intensely preoccupied to be otherwise than austere in morals ; too confident in his predestined future to be suspicious or cruel ; too ambitious of a new greatness for the ordinary ambition of conquest or despotism. He has opened the prisons and the churches ; he has recalled the zealots if only they were lovers of their country, and the priests if only they were quietists ; and both by consular edict and private example has endeavored to persuade his fellow-citizens not to yield themselves up to their dissensions as politicians till they have first submitted themselves to the kindly operation of their common sympathies as men. In this usurpation Bonaparte stabbed his honesty in the vitals : it has perished—we admit that it has perished—but the mausoleum where it lies interred is among the wonders of the world."

Napoleon, however, was too complete an egoist to find happiness or even satisfaction in promoting the well-being of his fellow-men. The sole object of his life was to assert himself, to compel obedience to his will simply as such ; and the consequence was that as soon as he had brought France into a condition where its forty millions of people were but the exponents of his single will, he could find no rest until he had reduced the whole of Europe to a like state. It is in vain to attempt to educe any general plan from the politics of Napoleon. He had none beyond this assertion of self ; and had he succeeded in subduing all Europe to his will, he would then have set about the subjection of Asia, still with no ulterior aim beyond that of gratification of self. What distinguished him from the Genghis Khans and Tamerlanes of Asiatic history was his clear perception of the manner in which the war power of a nation depends upon a sound and vigorous civil administration.

MEMORIAL HISTORY OF BOSTON, VOL. III.

The Memorial History of Boston, Massachusetts. Edited by Justin Winsor, Librarian of Harvard University. Vol. iii. The Revolutionary Period, and Part i. of the Last Hundred Years. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1881.

VARIOUS hands, out of the staff of seventy writers employed on this history, make their first appearance in the present volume. The first is the Rev. Edward G. Porter, who may be recollected for his interest in the story of Lexington and Concord, as manifested during the centennial of those events, and from him we have the chapter on the beginning of the Revolution, from the agitation over the writs of assistance in 1760-61 to the outbreak of April 19, 1775. Boston was never before and probably has never been since the centre of such widespread observation here and in Europe as during this time and the year following, covering the interval of active hostilities. It is the epic chapter of her existence, and while there is little new to be told, in a history like this, the old must be retold with such pictorial illustration as the plan of the book admits of. Fortunately, there was much of interest of the latter kind still left to be produced, like the portrait of Thomas Cushing, who was brought into somewhat factitious prominence as Speaker of the House of Representatives, and consequent signer of many of the important state papers which the patriots gave forth; that of Josiah Quincy, jr., painted, to be sure, after death by Stuart, but to the family's satisfaction; that of Andrew Oliver, the Lieutenant-Governor under Hutchinson; that of Lord Percy, a somewhat brilliant, if not altogether strong personality; and those of General Warren and his wife, neither of which has been before engraved, though Copley's smaller picture of Warren is familiar.

The chapter on the Federalist era of the town fell naturally to Henry Cabot Lodge, who has worked it up skilfully. Here, too, among illustrations not wholly new, we find others, not before known in engravings, like Copley's James Bowdoin, a refined and thoughtful head, showing a sensitiveness, partly caused by his ill-health, which kept him so much in the background during the heated work of the Revolution ; but this proved to be joined with a right-headed courage, when he later confronted the evil days of Shays's Rebellion. It is a pity nothing could be found of George Cabot in his maturer days. The figure given of him is of his younger aspect.

The longest chapter in the volume tells the story of "Boston under the Mayors," and it is very well written by James M. Bugbee, a gentleman not well known, perhaps, away from Boston, but who in that city is associated in the minds of all with long and excellent service in the municipality's behalf, and as representing the best elements in city politics. He tells the story fearlessly, and though he awards integrity to all of the twenty-three persons who have so far held the executive office under the charter, he does not fail to point out amiable weaknesses which have characterized some of them. The later mayors are not given to the eye, but of the earlier ones, several of whom are of more than local historical interest, we have the first mayor, John Phillips (father of Wendell Phillips), Josiah Quincy, better known as President Quincy, Harrison Gray Otis, whose silvery oratory is a tradition in Boston, Col. Theodore Lyman, and Samuel A. Eliot, the father of President Eliot.

Governor Long comes next, with a paper on "Boston and the Commonwealth under the City Charter." General Francis W. Palfrey tells the story of the part Boston and its soldiery played in the Mexican and in the Civil War. It is, in parts, a severe arraignment of the policy adopted by Governor Andrew, in regard to enlistments, and has elicited some censure from the Governor's admirers. It is to be feared that the epoch called sometimes for action according to the standard of the best possible, rather than what was theoretically best. Rear-Admiral Preble takes charge of the part of Boston on the sea in these wars, and the history of the Navy Yard. Very temperately and cautiously does James Freeman Clarke recount the trying scenes of the rise and progress of the anti-slavery movement in Boston, and the typical faces of Garrison, Sumner, and Parker peer out of his pages. Next we have other writers, new to this book, who go over the denominational aspects of Boston's religious history for the past century—Dr. Increase N. Tarbox on the Trinitarian Congregationalists; Dr. H. M. King on the Baptists; Dr. Daniel Dorchester on the Methodists ; Dr. Phillips Brooks on the Episcopalians ; Dr. Andrew P. Peabody on the Unitarians ; Dr. Miner on the Universalists ; Rev. James Reed on the New Jerusalem Church ; Vicar-General Byrne on the Roman Catholics ; and there are some strong characteristic faces scattered through these chapters—Lyman Beecher, Dr. Stillman, Dr. Gardiner, of old Trinity ; Dr. Freeman, who so sturdily ordained himself at King's Chapel; the eloquent Buckminster ; Murray and Ballou, of the Universalists ; and Bishop Cheverus, whose memory is a benediction even among Protestants in Boston. The final chapter, on the press and literature of the last hundred years, is an admirable one. In a well-compacted essay the salient points are brought out conspicuously, and the minor events grouped skilfully. The writer is a well-known Boston architect, Mr. Charles A. Cummings, and he gives to the work of his pen the finished taste and repose of his buildings. The illustrations of this chapter are interesting. There is the likeness of Col. Benjamin Russell, of the old *Massachusetts Centinel* days; Milmore's statuette of George Ticknor; Stuart Newton's portrait of Edward Everett, in his gown as minister of the Brattle Square Church, never before engraved; views of the libraries of Prescott and Ticknor; a facsimile of the first draft of Longfellow's 'Excelsior,' closing, "September 28, 1841. Half-past three o'clock—morning. Now to bed"; and a fragment of Lowell's "Courtin'," also in facsimile.

Of the writers whom we have known in previous volumes, those in the Revolutionary period may be singled out for their readable presentations. Dr. Edward E. Hale takes a subject he is identified with in the "Siege of Boston" ; the late Mr. Goddard, of the *Daily Advertiser*, gives the quality of the pulpit, press, and literature of that period ; and Mr. Horace E. Scudder resumes his old topic, the life of the people. The illustrations in these chapters are numerous : a striking head of Paul Revere ; a well-known one of Knox ; Stuart's Washington at Dorchester Heights ; a facsimile of a pen-and-ink portrait drawn by Kosciuszko ; General Ward and Joseph Green, the wit of his day. Then for contemporary views we have two from Beacon Hill of great interest, both by British officers, taken during the siege: one of the burning of Charlestown during the battle of Bunker Hill, the original of which is in the collection of Dr. Emmet of this city, and came from the sale of the Marquis of Hastings, who was the representative of Lord Rawdon, then on Gage's staff, for whom the drawing was made; the other is a series of four views from the same eminence, toward the cardinal points of the compass, following a contemporary copy (given some years since by Mr. J. Carson Brevoort to the Massachusetts Historical Society), the originals of which were sent to George III. and are now in the King's library in the British Museum.

It fell to the editor to furnish the essay on the maps of Boston of the Revolutionary and later dates, and to supplement at some length the chapter of the Revolutionary period, besides annotating those of the later period. It is understood that the fourth and concluding volume of this commemorative history is completed, and will soon be published.

MEYER'S FACH-LEXIKA.

THE publishing house of H. J. Meyer in Leipsic, widely known as *Bibliographisches Institut*, has started a new cyclopedic collection under the title of 'Meyers Fach-Lexika' (New York : B. Westermann & Co.). Together, these special lexica are to form a general cyclopædia broken up into parts. Each part is to consist of one volume (small 8vo), to embrace one branch of knowledge, and to be complete in itself, and thus singly procurable as an independent work. Uniformity is to be observed in plan, style, and external appearance, and no doubt care will be taken, by avoiding repetition as far as possible, to make the parts complete each other, and ultimately form a harmonious whole. The alphabetic distribution, or rather subdivision, of matter, is to prevail throughout, as indicated by the title. The precise number of volumes to appear is not stated, but a prospective list, which may

or may not eventually prove to be complete, announces thirty-nine parts, with the names of the authors, and the prices, which vary from four to ten marks, including the binding. The titles are the following: 'Universal History,' 'Ancient History,' 'German History,' 'Philosophy,' 'Education,' 'Theology,' 'Geography,' 'Travels and Discoveries,' 'German Literature,' 'General Literature,' 'Dictionary of Authors,' 'Antiquities' (classical), 'Fine Arts,' 'Art Industries,' 'Dictionary of Artists,' 'Music,' 'The Theatre,' 'Hygiene,' 'Zoölogy,' 'Botany,' 'Mineralogy and Geology,' 'Physics and Meteorology,' 'Astronomy,' 'Applied Chemistry,' 'Chemical Technology,' 'Mechanical Technology,' 'Inventions,' 'Agriculture,' 'Horticulture,' etc.; 'Veterinary Science,' 'Hunting,' 'Political Dictionary,' 'Criminal Law,' 'Military Dictionary,' 'The Law of Commerce and Industry,' 'Political Economy,' 'Commercial Geography,' 'Commercial Science,' and 'Stocks,' etc. Of these, about one-fourth have already made their appearance, in very rapid succession, including the 'Dictionary of Universal History,' by Dr. K. Hermann; the 'Dictionary of German History,' by Dr. H. Brosien; the 'Dictionary of Artists,' by Dr. H. A. Müller; and the 'Dictionary of Commercial Geography,' by Dr. K. E. Jung.

The volume on universal history is naturally the bulkiest. It is mainly biographical, marked by brevity throughout, most satisfactory in articles referring to modern events, and exceedingly meagre—in fact, very defective—in topics of ancient history, to which a separate volume is devoted. Thus exactly as little space is allotted to the whole history of ancient Egypt (outside of biographies) as to the "Egyptian Expedition of the French in 1798–1801"; "Babylonia" and "Assyria" together do not fill a short page; Chaldea is not noticed even in a reference; and all the history of the Jews, from the destruction of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar to its destruction by Titus, occupies a few lines. The subsequent history of the same people, though in the main no longer ancient, is covered by this sentence: "Since then they have lived in dispersion among other nations." Roman history, disjointedly sketched in numerous biographies, occasionally shrinks under "Roman Empire" into a mere mention of names and dates, thus: "Titus (79–81), Domitian (81–96), Nerva (96–98), Trajan (98–117), Hadrian (117–138), Antoninus (138–161), Marcus Aurelius (161–180)." There is no article on "Jesus," "Christ," or "Christianity," the reader being tacitly referred to the volume on 'Theology.' Under "Moses" no explanation is given for the choice of a date widely differing from the usual Biblical one; the same is the case under "David" and "Ahab." The author has, we know, critical reasons for his chronology, but he has no room even to allude to them. Such defects are inherent in the fragmentary lexicographical arrangement, which, on the other hand, has the great advantage of facilitating the finding of topics and of concisely grouping points belonging to the same topic. Very poor as a manual of history, the book before us is an excellent addition to a good history, in the absence of a large general cyclopædia. The choice of titles, in a work which is too small to aim at completeness, must naturally be, or appear, arbitrary; and not American readers alone will be surprised to find that, while the military engagements of the Eurymedon, Jankau, Kaiserslautern, and Castelfidardo are duly noticed under their respective heads, Yorktown, Vicksburg, and Gettysburg are not. These names are of course given in the article "United States," and so are Antietam and Fredericksburg, but Chancellorsville and Atlanta occur nowhere, not even under "Lee" and "Sherman." What is much worse, though quite exceptionally bad, is that Lee, the date of whose surrender, April 9, is correctly given under "United States," is under his own title made to surrender on April 10, and under "Grant" on April 12. Sharp strictures on the administration of General Grant, the diplomacy of Ignatieff, the character of Isabella II., etc., show that the author does not refrain from pronouncing judgment in a very decided tone.

Dr. Brosien's 'Lexikon der Deutschen Geschichte' has, of course, much more space for treating single topics, and is less liable to fall into error from imperfect familiarity with the subjects. Yet even here we notice that, while "the battle" of Bronnzell, Nov. 8, 1850, is given, the only victim of which was that famous horse "der Schimmel von Bronnzell," the terrific battle with the Mongols, fought at Wahlstatt, near Liegnitz, in April, 1241, is not only ignored under "Liegnitz," but totally forgotten. Of ancient German tribes we find the Ubii, Bructeri, and Tenchteri, but not the more important Chauci. Under "Posen," the insurrection of 1848 is forgotten; under "Laon," the occupation by the Germans in 1870, with the destructive explosion which accompanied it. Similar omissions are frequent. The biography includes the historians of Germany, old and new—Jeroschin and Jaffé facing each other—but excludes purely literary characters (not excepting Schiller and Goethe), whom the reader will have to find in the 'Lexikon der Deutschen Literatur.' Alexander von Humboldt must be sought there, while his brother Wilhelm, as a politician, has a place here. Rare terms of German historical interest are explained, down to *Leudes* and *Kipper und Wipper;* yet we miss *Secessionisten*, a designation of much interest in recent German politics. Luther, Zwingli, and the Reformation are not left entirely to the 'Lexikon der Theologie.' Some of the notices, like "Faustrecht" and "Femgerichte," are much too brief. "Varnbüler," compared with "Lasker," is long enough, but it happens to be shorter than the notice of the same politician in the 'Dictionary of Universal History,' where he hardly deserves a place. According to the latter book, he was born in 1809; according to the other, he is a year older. Of Dr. Jung's 'Lexikon der Handelsgeographie,' which is devoted to the commercial and industrial conditions of all civilized and semi-civilized countries, and includes statistics of population, exports, imports, production, revenues, public debt, etc., we can, for want of space, only say that it is very fresh and very comprehensive. Its comprehensiveness may be judged from any number of successive titles. Thus, opening a page at random, we find, following each other, notices of Simonstown (Cape Colony), Singapore, Sistova (Bulgaria), Siut (Egypt), Skelleftea (Sweden), Scutari, Smyrna, Söderhamn (Sweden), Solingen (Prussia), Sonneberg (Saxe-Meiningen), and Sophia. The work is apparently very correct, but examination of accuracy in this field is not easy. We consider this volume the best of the three before us, but all will be found fully worth their price. The external appearance of the collection is very pleasing, and its typographical correctness is of a high order.

RECENT NOVELS.

John Barlow's Ward. [Trans-Atlantic Novels.] New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

The Vicar's People. By George Manville Fenn. [Trans-Atlantic Novels.] New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Christowell. A Tale of Dartmoor. By R. D. Blackmore. [Franklin Square Library.] New York: Harper & Bros.

The Braes of Yarrow. A Romance. By Charles Gibbon. [Franklin Square Library.] New York: Harper & Bros.

A Christmas at Sea. Edited by E. Shippen, U. S. N. Philadelphia: L. R. Hamersly & Co.

Kate Comerford; or, Sketches of Garrison Life. By Teresa A. Thornet. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1881.

Frühlingsboten. Von E. Werner. [Deutsche Library.] New York: George Munro.

'John Barlow's Ward' makes a false start, or perhaps a double start. The true hero—*i. e.*, the man who marries the heroine—does not appear until the middle of the book. We confess to a feeling of disappointment that a story which begins with a very pleasant reminder of Mrs. Gaskell's 'North and South' should turn out a tale of married infelicity, the scholar buried in his books, and seeing his sweet young wife only through the unkind eyes of his sister. The reader will reasonably doubt whether he suffered sufficiently before winning his final reward of happiness.

'The Vicar's People' are the inhabitants of a Cornish village, half mining, half fishing. Thither comes a young engineer, bright, steady, and sturdy. How he won friends and enemies, suffered doubts of the most cruel kind, but finally triumphed over everything—even the powers of nature itself—makes a very interesting story. The novelty in its setting is in the great ruins of the deserted mines down which fortune after fortune has gone. "Wheal Carnac" seems as real a monster, devouring men, bodies and souls, as any dragon of mediæval legend. Why should a series which can command such healthy, right-minded stories as these, have recourse to the extreme sensationalism of French novels not even of the first class?

There has been so recent occasion to review Mr. Blackmore's work at length in these columns that it need only be said of 'Christowell' that it is worthy to come after some of his best works. There is no danger that the reader will drop the book, or that he will skip the pages. Perhaps the author has nowhere brought together stronger contrasts—the quiet pleasure of the father and daughter among their vines in the garden, the wild life on the moor, the placid routine of village life, and the awful visitation of the lightning and the flame. Yet once under the spell of the story-teller, we find it all true and real. There is a striking instance of that insight which detects the same fact or the same feeling under very different aspects. Mr. Wrey is "a very nice old gentleman, a squire in a poor way now, but rich with long descent of education." On the other hand, when John Sage, of Christowell, who was famous for shedding his own light on things, was told that a nobleman (too well known in that neighborhood) was of very long descent, he shook his head, and said that he could understand it now. "'He hath not dooed it of a zudden, then,' said John; 'he hath a' been coomin' down all that wai.'" There never was a better portrait of a dog than the picture of the setter "Nous" in the "anguish" of Sunday, with his master "too full of eloquence to talk to a dog." It is needless to add that he is the pet of a clergyman.

'The Braes of Yarrow' is a stormy story of the troublous times in Scotland after the battle of Flodden. "A sword in every line" is no exaggeration. There are incidents enough for a whole new set of Waverley novels, but perforce, for want of room, no study of character. It is quite above a dime novel, but he must have a strong head who can read it without being dazed and deafened.

'A Christmas Day at Sea' is made up from the stories told by a party of naval officers after

dinner at sea on Christmas day. The book is intended to be the first of a series of Christmas annuals, written by officers of the army and navy, and to be published by the proprietors of the *United Service Magazine*. The stories are entertaining, and there has been nothing for years so suggestive of that delightful book of the last generation, Basil Hall's 'Fragments of Voyages and Travels.'

'Kate Comerford' is a story of the life of officers' families at remote army posts in Texas. The characters are the Colonel and his pretty daughter, the captains and their wives and children, and the young bachelor lieutenants. In the monotonous existence of a dozen of people, cut off from civilization and society—which is the unfortunate fate of officers and their families on the frontier—it would be hard indeed to find the materials for a novel. The authoress disarms criticism of the poverty of incident in her story by expressly stating that she is not writing a novel. The description of garrison life is quite faithful, and a slim thread of romance and feminine intrigue runs through the successive chapters.

A German novel in which the interest never flags, whose characters are natural and well drawn, and which is free alike from sentimentality and literary pretence, is a phenomenon rare enough to be worth noting. All these virtues, and more, are offered to the reader of "E. Werner's" 'Frühlingsboten,' which may be read, by persons whose eyes are above suspicion, in the "Deutsche Library" published by George Munro in this city. The plot is the old one of a contested inheritance, complicated by the fact that the possessor and the claimant have been brought up as brothers, and are very fond of each other, and by the additional circumstance that both love the same woman. The heroes are as opposite in appearance and character as they are in fortune: the one handsome, light-hearted, careless, and affectionate; the other distinguished-looking, industrious, firm-willed, imposing. How he discovered the flaw in his cousin's title to wealth and station need not be detailed here. The enforcement of his claim would involve the forfeiture not merely on the young Count's part of his position, but the sacrifice, also, not of personal but of family honor. The rightful heir, therefore, resolves upon silence. But of course the young Count discovers the secret, and, as the only way out of the difficulty, allows himself to be run away with and hurled over a precipice. The tale thus becomes a tragedy, but, given the circumstances, both the end and the steps which lead to it are natural. The dénouement is not suspected till one comes upon it in the last chapter, and one rises from the book without feeling any of the disgust often produced by the blue lights and other melodramatic devices by which the real pathos of such a story is too often obscured.

Indigestion, Biliousness, and Gout in its Protean Aspects. Part I. Indigestion and Biliousness. By J. Milner Fothergill, M.D. New York: Wm. Wood & Co. 1881. 8vo, pp. 320.

In this volume Dr. Fothergill makes a reasonably successful attempt to place before the medical profession the results of recent investigations in physiological chemistry as far as they have a bearing upon the treatment of diseases of the digestive organs and of the liver. In spite of the obscurity which still involves the physiology of these organs, the work cannot fail to exert a very beneficial effect in checking the tendency of physicians to fall into routine practice in the treatment of the disorders in question. Dr. Fothergill also calls attention to the injurious effects of mental worry and emotion upon various nutritive processes. His views upon this subject are best given in his own words:

"It is the old Anglo-Saxon plan to find out what can be done by overdoing, and so learning the extreme limit. A butcher's boy was spokesman for his race, when summoned before the magistrates at Teddington for furious driving; the constable stated that the mare was going thirteen miles an hour, when the boy triumphantly refuted him by saying: 'She can't do it; she has not got it in her.' He evidently knew to a nicety what she could do, by noting what she could not do. So it is in the present pace of life. It is faster! faster! Our steeple-chasers gallop faster than their old-fashioned half-bred predecessors; our fox-hounds run faster than of yore, till our hunters have to be nearly thoroughbred to keep pace with them. It is the pace at which we live that overtaxes our organic processes, and the digestive processes breaking down under the strain."

This well-marked tendency of modern life, especially as manifested in large cities, leads the writer to take a very gloomy view of the future of the Anglo-Saxon race, particularly in America. Here, again, the author's language is so forcible that only a quotation will do it justice:

"The red man's grave is covered with the white man's buildings, solid, massive, immense; but his first-born die in them. . . . The waning Indian had to vacate his possessions for the Yengees, that they might increase and multiply on the face of the earth. And now what is the result? The Anglo-Saxon is a dying race, perishing beside the tomb of the red man, whom he slew. It is 'Naboth's vineyard' in the nineteenth century! . . . It seems that the threatened extinction of the old population, so immediate for Massachusetts, is being inaugurated in Ohio. The nutrition of the American-born woman is often unequal to feeding a second organism, or, if that second organism has successfully struggled into an independent existence, it is unequal to its maintenance for long. . . . The angel of death is smiting the usurper in turn. If this be so, the American has the sorry consolation of knowing that in his old home, in the cradle of his race, the same phenomenon is to be observed; only not yet to so distinct and terrible an extent. The Anglo-Saxon exterminated the native British. . . . Where the wattled huts of the ancient Briton once stood, amidst sacred groves devoted to druidical rites, now we see the many-storied mill, the long chimney belching forth smoke, the endless rows of cottages inhabited by the toilers who work in the mill. The angel of death is busy still."

The remedy for this evil is to be sought, according to Dr. Fothergill, in a comprehensive united effort to provide means for bringing up the children of city parents in the country.

"The parent may have to consent to separation from the child; children may have to grow up no longer under the parent's eye, except at intermittent periods, but under the skilled supervision of guardians bound to them by no tie of blood. All this may be very repulsive; but unfortunately it is unavoidable! Some such practice, which will enable children to be reared in the country, must be adopted before long."

It will thus be seen that Dr. Fothergill abandons in advance all hope of making large cities healthy abodes for the human race. Such a decision seems, to say the least, premature, for the question is at the present time engaging the attention of some of the best investigators and writers upon medical subjects, and, in view of the results which seem to have been reached in the cities of the ancient world and of the progress made in modern times, there appears to be reason to hope that the intellect of man will yet suffice to determine the conditions under which he may follow his gregarious and social instincts without running the risk of self-extermination.

As to Dr. Fothergill's gloomy vaticinations in regard to the future of the Anglo-Saxon race in this country, it is impossible, as no authorities are quoted, to determine the basis upon which his predictions rest. As an antidote, however, to the feeling of despondency which their perusal is likely to create in the minds of American readers, it is well to bear in mind that several important statistical investigations have led to results which give no support to the theory of the gradual deterioration of the Anglo-Saxon race in America. Thus, Dr. Edward Jarvis finds (*Atlantic Monthly*, April, 1872) that "the natural increase is at a lower rate in the foreign than in the American families"; Dr. T. B. Curtis, in his report on the sanitary condition of Boston (report of a medical commission, 1875) shows that throughout the United States "our foreign population, though undoubtedly more prolific than the natives, still more surpasses the latter in mortality"; while actual measurements of the Boston school children (Eighth Report Massachusetts State Board of Health, 1877, p. 275) have proved that the physique of boys in certain selected schools is by no means inferior to that of the pupils in schools of corresponding character in England. Here also deserves to be mentioned the mortuary experience of the Mutual Life Insurance Company of this city. The statistics published by the company show that the experience of this office is that its rates of mortality, at nearly every age, are considerably lower than those in the English life-tables; whereas in most English offices the experienced mortality exceeds the life-table rates. In inquiring into the causes which could bring about this result, the London *Lancet* of February 23, 1878, rejects the hypothesis of a more careful selection of risks in the American office, and concludes that "the low mortality experience of the New York Mutual Life Insurance Company appears to indicate a generally lower rate of mortality among the American than among the English population."

In view of all these facts, one is led to suspect that Dr. Fothergill may, in his gloomy anticipations, have afforded an example of a prominent symptom of the disease which forms the subject of his treatise.

Thomas Corwin. A Sketch. By A. P. Russell. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1881.

Corwin's evil star still overhangs his reputation. He feared he should be remembered, if at all, by posterity only as a jester, and no biographer has yet succeeded in establishing his fame on a more solid foundation. Mr. Russell's sketch, rightly so called, of "the wagon-boy," though it contains six times as much matter as the portion of a chapter devoted to Corwin in Mansfield's 'Personal Memories,' gives hardly as many particulars of his life, and leaves a less distinct and less favorable impression of his powers. Sentences like these, too, suggest doubts as to Mr. Russell's capacity for the analysis of character: "He seemed a compound of incompatibles to his nearest friends who saw him often, and made his friend sometimes walk round him before approaching him" (p. 10). "His fancy, when not on the wing, played upon everything like a flame, or penetrated it like a subtile force" (p. 12). "Every day that he grew in favor he increased in intellectual stature, until it seemed that the possibilities of his genius were without limit."

Corwin's gifts, such as they were, were not stintedly rewarded by his constituents and the country. He sat for a long time in the Ohio Legislature; he became Governor of the State, was frequently returned to the lower house in Congress, was elected Senator, was made Secretary of the Treasury by Fillmore, and Minister to Mexico by Lincoln. He thought himself equal to the Presidency, and his failure to be even a defeated candidate, like that other Senatorial jester, John P. Hale, was a source of melancholy to him. Southern-born and Western-bred, he opposed the Mexican war, and this, the only considerable and most honorable of his public acts, made him "unavailable" even with his own party, which chose the hero of the war to succeed the instiga-

tor of it. He was already a disappointed man when the decline of the Whig party set in, and he could not enter helpfully or prominently into the new party that rose upon its ruins. He was a natural delegate to the impotent Peace Congress, in which men whom the times had left behind them conferred together in the vain hope to block and to reverse the inexorable wheel of progress. His absence from the country prevented him from being identified with the history of the civil war which could not be staved off, and the present generation needs to be informed at all points as to his public employment, his abilities, and the judgment of his contemporaries upon him. This information, as we have implied, Mr. Russell does not give; or if he has exhausted his resources, it is clear that he vastly overestimates the greatness of Corwin. He relates a number of anecdotes illustrating Corwin's goodness of heart, his gifts of repartee and facial mimicry, and his sympathetic mastery of his audiences, but not a line upon which to base an exalted opinion of his mental equipment, or to show in what he differed greatly (as he did) from the "Bob" Ingersolls of our day.

The truth is that this sketch is chiefly useful in proving once more the American fondness for "oratory," especially stump oratory, and especially at the West; and the transitoriness of reputations built upon this sort of eloquence. Henry Clay, indeed, exerted the greatest influence upon the course of events by repeatedly postponing the gathering and inevitable crisis, and he may still be placed at the head of American orators by those who defer to tradition; but who now turns to his speeches for instruction in any principle of government or public policy, or can understand the idolatry of which he was so long the object? Corwin cannot be ranked with Clay as a speaker or an opportunist statesman, though morally beyond all comparison his superior. He deserves to be remembered with respect rather than with reverence and the sort of awe which Mr. Russell manifests toward him. The frontispiece, an excellent steel engraving of Corwin, is worth the price of the volume.

A Biography of David Cox, with Remarks on his Works and Genius. By William Hall. Edited, with additions, by John Thackray Bunce. New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co. 1881. 8vo, pp. 268–xv.

David Cox was a genuine artist, and hence his career, although quite without the striking incidents that usually mark the lives of great men, continues to have a considerable interest. The main outlines of his life were given in 1875 by Mr. Solly in his 'Memoirs of David Cox,' and have been repeated in many books; and Cox's place among English landscape-painters is well established in popular and professional respect. Still, there is room for Mr. Hall's memoir, not so much for its new matter as for the writer's peculiar interest in his subject. Mr. Hall, though nearly thirty years younger, was one of Cox's most intimate companions during the last twelve years of his life. He was a meritorious worker in the same branch of painting as his distinguished friend, and his book shows him to be a master of simple, straightforward narrative and description. He was therefore well fitted to tell the homely story of Cox's life with accuracy, feeling, and good taste, and it was most natural that he should have been chosen to prepare the biographical sketch for the catalogue of the great exhibition of Cox's works at Liverpool in 1875, and that he should have expanded his sketch into the present memoir.

In view of his slender material, it is surprising how charming Mr. Hall has made his account of the painter's early life as apprentice and scene-painter at Birmingham (1783–1804); of his uncertain and toilsome struggle as an humble teacher at London and Hereford (1804–1841); of his later life in comparative comfort at Harborne (1841–1859); of his annual trips for nearly half a century to the now famous "Royal Oak" at Bettws-y-coed; of his habits and peculiarities; and of his sterling moral qualities, as well as of his technical methods and his successive "styles," and of his rank among painters. Trifling incidents are of course dwelt upon, somewhat to the exclusion of more important matter. The most interesting part of the book is that given to descriptions of Bettws-y-coed, and of Cox's almost autocratic life there. The story of his undertaking painting in oils is also remarkable—his sudden determination, his meagre course of study with William Müller, and his curious timidity about his work in this department.

Mr. Hall naturally makes much of the change in the popular estimate of Cox's abilities, which occurred about a dozen years after his death, and of the consequent rise in the money-value of his works. The oil painting, "The Outskirts of the Wood," for example, was originally sold for £40, but in "the memorable year 1872" it commanded nearly sixty times as much. We wish that Mr. Hall had discussed the merits of more of Cox's pictures, though perhaps what Mr. Solly had done deterred him from the attempt. Our author is not so happy in describing Cox the mature artist as he is Cox the student and the man. What he says is usually true enough, but it lacks in crisp characterization. He emphasizes very justly Cox's broad, suggestive manner, and his truthful insight into Nature, but compares him too eulogistically with his contemporary Turner, with whom "he will almost rank in the expression of the qualities of light, space, and air," whom "he surpassed in rendering the every-day aspects of Nature," and than whom he was "more natural in color, treatment, and effect." Beside this we would set the pithy remark of a recent critic, that if Turner and Cox are to be compared, the one must be likened to "a full orchestral band," and the other to a performer "given to solos and soliloquies sometimes subdued to a monotone."

The book is enriched with a fine artotype of Cox, who resembled Sir Walter Scott in person as he did somewhat in character, though not in mind. The style of the book would be without blemish but for an occasional feminine effusiveness—as in the triple repetition on a single page of the epithet "dear old"—and the introduction of three prosy descriptions in verse by the author. The chapter appended by the editor gives some interesting additional matter, with several needless repetitions of previous statements. Here and there in the body of the book we detect an unnecessary anxiety to free Cox from the charge of blotchiness and haste in his painting; and we recall a remark of Ruskin's: "The foliage of David Cox . . . is altogether exquisite in color and in its impressions of coolness, shade, and mass; of its drawing I cannot say anything *but that I should be sorry to see it better.*"

Ornamental Trees for Massachusetts Plantations. Boston.

This is a paper read last winter before the Massachusetts State Board of Agriculture, by Mr. John Robinson, of the Arnold Arboretum, and now reprinted from the Twenty-eighth Annual Report of the Secretary of that body. Mr. Robinson's remarks, although specially intended to treat of Massachusetts plantations, will equally apply to all the Northern and Middle States. He very properly takes the ground that, except in exceptional cases, the species native to any locality are better adapted to reach maturity and produce satisfactory results in that locality than any exotic species can be; and that the planter makes a serious and often fatal mistake who neglects, in favor of little-known foreign species, the trees growing within sight of his own home; thus sacrificing the advantages of adaptability, or constitutional fitness to thrive in that particular locality or climate, which the plant has acquired through the inexorable test of natural selection to which it has been subjected. Happily, the New England planter has a long list of native trees to select from, and if among his pines, spruces, oaks, ashes, maples, or hickories he cannot find sufficient variety, he may safely choose material for his plantations from the whole Appalachian sylva, the most varied, beautiful, and, economically, the most valuable collection of trees existing in the north temperate zone.

But the enthusiastic planter will hardly be satisfied with native or neighboring trees alone. One of the never-failing delights in arboriculture consists in watching the development of little-known or strange forms of tree life. Half the pleasure in planting comes from the desire to increase by experiment the knowledge of trees; and the laudable desire to introduce new or valuable plants into cultivation has always been one of the strongest and most attractive stimulants to horticultural enterprise. There are, however, certain limits within which such experiments can be made with some prospect of success, and a good part of Mr. Robinson's paper is devoted to discussing what these limits should be. He finds that, by actual experiment, all the trees tested from certain regions with climatic conditions not dissimilar to those of New England, thrive in Massachusetts, so that the planter to be in a position safely to select exotic species must have some knowledge of the climate and physical geography of the region to which he looks to enrich his plantations, unless, indeed, he is prepared for serious disappointment and loss of time. The climate of the Pacific coast is very different from that of eastern America, and the trees of the Pacific forest do not thrive when transferred to this side of the continent; although the few Pacific species which also reach the Rocky Mountain region proper, where the climate approaches nearer to that of the Atlantic than the Pacific coast, find themselves perfectly at home on the Atlantic sea-board. European trees do not, it is found, succeed here as a general rule, and should not, save in a few exceptional cases, be selected in preference to their American congeners.

It is, however, to eastern Asia that we must look for the principal additions to our ornamental plantations. The resemblance between the floras of eastern America and eastern Asia is very striking. These two floras, widely separated geographically, contain many identical forms of plant life, and approach each other remarkably in the number and resemblance of their trees. This would indicate that these two floras have been subjected to similar climatic conditions, and that trees transferred from northern China and Japan to New England would find themselves surrounded by favorable conditions for growth. Experiment has already proved this, and north-eastern Asia has actually contributed more trees than all the rest of the world together, with the exception of our own Appalachian region, to add variety to our plantations; and it is now to the partially explored northern islands of Japan, and to the almost botanically unknown mountainous regions of northern China, that we may look with the greatest hope of success for additions to our gardens and plantations. The Caucasus and Turkistan—rather a new field—have given us several useful species, and others may well be expected, especially from Turkistan

and possibly Tibet. Mr. Robinson treats primarily of ornamental trees, and is justified in urging the importance of securing as great variety as possible in ornamental plantations; but it is well to bear in mind, now that the necessity of replanting and protecting our disappearing forests is receiving some attention, that in all planting operations undertaken with the view of producing valuable timber it is best to plant native trees, which may be depended on to produce certain results at the end of a given number of years.

The description of the Harvard Arboretum with which Mr. Robinson is connected will be found interesting to all whose business or pleasure associates them in any way with the study or cultivation of trees; and his vigorous protest against the absurd fashion—natural outgrowth of the bedding-out mania in flower-gardening—which now prevails, of perpetuating a host of abnormal and variegated leaf-forms of trees and shrubs, deserves the thanks of all lovers of the natural in gardening. An appendix, containing lists of little-known trees which might with advantage be more generally cultivated in Massachusetts, concludes this interesting and instructive paper.

The Twit-Twats. A Christmas allegorical story of birds connected with the introduction of sparrows into the New World. By Rev. Aug. J. Théobaud, S. J. New York: Catholic Publication Society Co. 4to, pp. 100. Illustrated. 1881.

THE wisdom of *ne sutor* is never more forcibly illustrated than when a really great cobbler goes *ultra crepidam*, as Father Théobaud has certainly done. We recall a similar escapade of which Mr. John Ruskin was guilty a few years ago, as the *Nation* pointed out at the time, that eminent art-critic having drawn upon birds to illustrate certain principles of art, with such success that if the merit of his treatise did not lie "in the application," it could not be found elsewhere. Few writers, however great in their own grooves, can point a moral successfully, or accomplish any similar purpose, with materials which come unhandy to them, however available in other respects; and Father Théobaud—an eminent divine, and an author of great weight in Catholic literature, who here utilizes sparrows in the interests of religion, just as Ruskin applied swallows to the ends of art—is not among them. His avowed purpose of inculcating good Catholic doctrine is distinctively within his clerical province, and therefore perfectly appropriate; but he uses unaccustomed tools so awkwardly that sparrows seem unlikely to become a means of grace at his hands.

We find no fault with the learned author's description of these little feathered *gamins*, long become ubiquitous and irrepressible in our streets, his observations of their habits and manners being such as any sinner could make for himself. But the "allegory" being ostensibly based upon facts of natural history, and in that respect open to criticism from a non-ecclesiastical standpoint, we may say that while the way sparrows look and behave is reflected faithfully enough, the author gives no sign of possessing a single idea to be called ornithological by any stretch of courtesy. Every fact of any scientific significance in connection with the introduction and naturalization of *Passer domesticus* in America is ignored. Viewed simply as a Christmas story with a moral, the book is too didactic, too doctrinal, and altogether too thinly disguised a sermon to compete successfully with the literature of the season, and so accomplish its own end. In fine, it is a church tract, of remarkably cumbrous proportions and unskilful workmanship to come from hands so eminent.

We may seem to take the author too seriously; but it is impossible to overrate the seriousness with which he captures sparrows for politico-religious purposes, or the earnestness with which he uses them as eligible defenders of the faith. For instance, a chapter headed "A description of some strange natural habits of the Twit-Twats considered as types of human beings," promises well, and might be made both entertaining and instructive; but it turns out to be simply the antagonism of the Know-Nothings to Catholic immigration, as exemplified by the quarrelling between native birds and this imported species. Aside from any question of good taste or appropriateness, we protest against the irrationality and futility of perverting natural history, under whatever disguise, to such an extent as is witnessed by the following extract, which may be theology, but which seems to us only an example of a way in which the beauty and force of true allegory may be lost in brisk business allegation:

"They [sparrows] are certainly creatures of God: their Maker has imposed upon them laws which they sacredly respect and obey. Since they have 'no sins to deplore,' they are in one sense more acceptable to God than those monstrous sinners who continue to prevaricate as long as they live, and leap into eternity without a sigh of repentance or a single cry for mercy. But there is much more than this. Read the Psalms of holy David. . . . The sparrows themselves, consequently, are invited by the Holy Ghost himself—the true inspirer of David and Daniel—'to bless the Lord, to praise and exalt him above all forever.' Will anybody accuse me after this of gross anthropomorphism—nay, of idolatry, and perhaps fetichism—if I tell my readers that in the great winter festival I am going to describe, the Twit-Twats actually 'blessed the Lord, and praised and exalted him above all forever'? They were therefore, to a certain extent, good theologians."

If we are mistaken after all—if Father Théobaud only amused himself in writing a Christmas allegory—still we cannot forget what kind of reading "easy writing" was said by an unregenerate wit to make.

Sir Richard Whittington, Lord Mayor of London. By Walter Besant and James Rice. [The New Plutarch Series.] New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1881. 12mo, pp. 222.

THE book before us was projected by Mr. Rice; but when illness prevented him from carrying out his plans, he transferred his materials to his "friend and collaborateur," who has made very good use of them. No doubt, to many, a biography of the hero of the cat and the Bow-bells rhyme of their infancy will seem as strange as if it were Fortunatus or Valentine. In this point of view, the materials must be pronounced abundant out of which a volume of over 200 pages has grown. For an historical character, however, they are really rather scanty, and the requisite number of pages has been made out only by an enormous amount of padding. The padding, to be sure, is excellent and instructive, so that the volume presents a very good picture of life in London in the fourteenth century; but we should say that not more than half of it is really devoted to the life of Whittington. The introduction treats of the charters of London; only three of the four appendices are concerned with Whittington; and of the seven chapters, two—"The City of London" and "The Companies and Trades of London"—have absolutely nothing to do with him directly; while only two—"Birth and Boyhood" and "The Story of the Cat"—are exclusively devoted to him. The chapter on "The 'Prentice-Boy" takes Dick Whittington as its text; but as nothing whatever is known of his 'prentice life, it is really as general in its character as any. So with his "Public Life" and "Private Life": these chapters are mostly made up of general history, with a few incidents about the hero, and a good many surmises as to what he did—or did not do.

The Rev. Samuel Lysons, we are told, had already "rescued Whittington from the realm of legend," and had established the fact that he was born at Pauntley, in Gloucestershire, the younger son of a gentleman's family of wealth and good descent. The story of the "poor 'prentice-boy" is therefore exploded, and one would suppose the story of the cat would go with it. Mr. Lysons, however, has proved the great antiquity of the story, and it seems evident, from various circumstances, that the great London merchant did have some special association with a cat. Mr. Besant is inclined to believe that—"the sentimental rubbish of the legend" being set aside—the story is essentially true as it stands. "If a sailor said in the boy's hearing that a cat could be exchanged among the Moors for a large profit, he would be quick enough to go and buy that cat, and entrust his friend to carry it for him and bring him back honestly what it might fetch—good mousing guaranteed" (p. 139). This is probably as far in the direction of proof as it will ever be possible to go.

Der Feldzug in Nord-Virginien im August, 1862. Von F. Mangold, Major im Westfälischen Fuss-Artillerie-Regiment, No. 7. Hannover: Helwing'sche Verlagsbuchhandlung; New York: B. Westermann & Co.

MAJOR MANGOLD'S work is an account of Pope's campaign, written by a German artillery officer for the Germans. Evidently the writer has studied all that has been written on both sides about this wonderful campaign, and carefully digested it before writing his history. The result is a book of some three hundred pages, well arranged, well printed, and furnished with maps. Although treating of controverted matters largely, our author writes as an historian, not as an advocate. To introduce his subject, the campaign of the Peninsula is first rapidly considered; and the political situation at Washington, with McClellan's relation to the powers there—Halleck and Stanton newly come to preferment—is made clear. The story of the campaign itself follows. Several chapters at the end of his book are devoted to the Fitz-John Porter case—the court-martial and the Board of Revision. It was the completeness of the testimony brought out in the reports of these trials, which threw so much more light upon this campaign than on any other of our war, that induced Major Mangold to take this up out of regular order; for he intends writing a complete history of our civil war, and has already written one book before this.

Of the campaign proper the account is very full and accurate, each step being viewed from all standpoints. The reader is made acquainted with each general's alternatives, and shown what might have been done and what was done. He is led with each army in its moves naturally, and without confusing breaks. Lee is shown watchful, eager, and decided, seeing through Pope's want of plan and taking prompt advantage of his indecision; relying upon his adversary's irresolution and want of generalship to make a most hazardous move—risking all to gain all. Pope, on the other side, appears pushed and pulled hither and thither by Lee and Halleck; issuing orders only to countermand them; groping blindly for inspiration which never came; trusting some subordinates too much, others too little; alternately elated and depressed without cause; frittering away the strength of his troops in useless efforts; and

destroying what little confidence his officers ever placed in him. Never really comprehending Lee's strategy, he lost the one great opportunity offered; and after the battle had begun which was not only to make or mar his reputation, but perhaps to decide his country's fate, we find him with troops scattered all over the country, not ready to meet the massed forces of his able antagonist, and yet unwilling to accept the inevitable and withdraw to a better position. The consequence was precisely what it should have been. Our writer compares this inability to recognize events in their true meaning to color-blindness. Behind all this he depicts Halleck overbearing, envious, self-reliant; finally dumfounded at the misfortunes rushing to overwhelm him and his plans, apparently assuming the responsibility only to shirk the burden when it became too heavy; McClellan disappointed, called reluctantly and with difficulty toward the scene, deprived of his troops, not anxious to help Pope, and even suggesting to some minds that he would rejoice in his destruction; in the background, Washington and the North wrought almost to distraction by forebodings which later news justified too well.

All this in great detail is given in well-arranged chapters, and in clear, soldierly style. In the field Major Mangold marches with all the troops, but more particularly with Porter's corps, giving his orders and many of his despatches, leading up to the concluding chapters, in which the court-martial and its consequences are considered. He accepts, as all must do to-day, the report of the Board of Revision as final, at the same time commenting on the spirit of insubordination shown in the army. Throughout his book are evidences of the use Major Mangold has made of the writings of others on the same subject—notably of General Gordon's, following his text in places pretty closely. The maps are fair—the smaller ones the least so. One cannot help asking why it is thought necessary to make a war map so large that the folding and unfolding render it a nuisance rather than a help; and, again, why so much engraving to represent hills and valleys is put in. Charitably, in some instances, it covers a multitude of sins. It certainly makes it almost impossible to read the lettering: many a map is rather "a nocturne in black and white" than a guide. On the whole, Major Mangold's book is as good a history of the campaign as we have, and the Germans are to be congratulated on the prospect of a history of our civil war from the same pen.

Some Topics in English Grammar. For the Pupil, the Teacher, and the General Reader. Edited by Arthur Hinds, lately Teacher of Grammar in the Westfield (Mass.) State Normal School. New York. 1881. 12mo, pp. 141.

FROM the preface of the present work it appears that the substance of the system of grammar which it teaches is due to Mr. J. G. Scott, of whom Mr. Hinds was formerly a pupil. Hence Mr. Hinds, with a modesty somewhat rare, calls himself the editor, although it is also apparent that he might, with as much propriety as is usually the case, call himself the author. The book is evidently the product of much patient and careful thought, and we should advise teachers to read it for what it suggests rather than for what it directly inculcates. Mr. Hinds invites criticism of his system, but any general discussion of it would altogether exceed our limits. We shall notice only two points. The first is a matter of form. The book is divided into two parts of equal extent. The first part, entitled "Topics," is intended to embrace the essentials of English grammar. The pupil is supposed to master it thoroughly, and make it a part of the furniture of his mind. The second part is entitled "Helps," and contains such additional remarks, illustrations, etc., as the editor regards necessary to the complete comprehension of the first part. It will at once be seen that the two parts correspond very closely to what is generally presented in text-books in the form of "coarse print" and "fine print." The division into two distinct parts in different places in the volume does not seem a happy one. In reading the first part we are continually obliged, or at least tempted, to turn to the second part for further illustration and explanation of anything striking or peculiar, and this continual turning back and forth breaks the continuity of thought, distracts the attention, is always inconvenient and sometimes irritating. The departures from the ordinary grammatical nomenclature are very numerous, and many common grammatical terms are used in a sense wholly inconsistent with ordinary usage. It must be understood, however, that this is done intentionally, not from want of knowledge. The result is, however, that a person whose only knowledge of grammar had been obtained from this book would be exposed, in conversing upon the subject, to continued misapprehension on the part of those unacquainted with it, and should he attempt to push his studies any further, or to learn any other language, he would be obliged to reject a large portion of what he had laboriously acquired.

Text Book to Kant. By James Hutchison Stirling, LL.D. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1882. Pp. xxviii.-548.

THIS last addition to the new Kantian literature of England, considerable as it is in bulk, requires but brief notice. Adding little to the critical understanding of Kant, it may still, through its positive style and frequent felicity of phrase, be of good service in stimulating the interest of younger students. Dr. Stirling's peculiar views of Kant have been set forth several times during the last three years, in papers published in the *Princeton Review* and *St. Louis Journal of Speculative Philosophy*. The virtues and vices of his Carlylese English have long been familiar to the reading public through his valuable translation of 'Schwegler's Handbook,' and his fragmentary notes of Hegelian study entitled 'The Secret of Hegel.' The most important portion of the present volume is the translation of nearly one-half of the 'Critique of Pure Reason,' including the whole of the Introduction and "Æsthetik," and all of the "Analytik" except the last chapter. The version is as close as that of Meiklejohn, but it is executed in general with decidedly more intelligence and skill. Opinions will differ as to the wisdom of the rendering of technical terms—*Perception* for *Anschauung*, *the Complex* for *das Mannigfaltige*. But, after all, where no English word exists for a German term of constant occurrence, if a translator offer something not positively misleading, and adheres to it with reasonable strictness, he has done as much as can fairly be required of him. So much and more Dr. Stirling has done. His work is never mechanical, and often by ingenious turns of phrase he leads the reader securely through the mazes of tangled argument. If the long sentences of the original had been more frequently recast, the result would have been better. What Dr. Stirling regards as extreme instances of license in this direction may be seen on pp. 193 and 204. In a biographical introduction the aspects of Kant's whimsical, plain, and dutiful life are vivaciously presented in the form of an imaginary picture of a single day's employments and thoughts.

Kant came from Locke through the avenue of Hume, and went toward Hegel—*i. e.*, he was leaving that view of knowledge which supposes an existent organized world distinct from receptive thought, and was moving toward the recognition of an active function in thought creative of the very world known. How far he had advanced along this line is not easily made out. His utterances have the inconsistent variety and the value of the words of a pioneer. Objects as empirically given are alluded to in the very pages where an elaborate machinery is undergoing construction with a view to their idealistic production. The commentator, therefore, in search of a system is often puzzled whether to call the empiricism the fundamental doctrine and the idealism an excrescence, or whether it would not be wiser, regarding Kant in the development of history, to treat his empiric modes of thought as rudimentary survivals from a past, and his idealism, with all its imperfections, as that which is most characteristically his own. Dr. Stirling does not hesitate. Kant's categories as well as his sensuous forms of thought can only be applicable to an already completed world—pp. 346 and 427. The categories are to be used one now and one by and by (pp. 501 and 527), and there must be some extra-mental suggestion to indicate which is fittest for the occasion. A kind of pre-established harmony (p. 528) between the two worlds of thought and of reality is the result.

These interpretations and corrections of Kant are stated in 200 pp. of commentary. To prove that they are no novel opinions adopted in reference to the exigencies of recent combat, an appendix is added, with extensive extracts from Dr. Stirling's old note-books. These amply demonstrate that the discussions of the last quarter of a century have produced little alteration in their author's understanding of Kant. An admirable index completes the work, unless the 28 pp. of eulogy of Dr. Stirling's other writings, which the publisher has inserted, should be reckoned a part of the volume.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Almanach de Gotha, 1882. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Arana, D. B. Histoire de la Guerre du Pacifique. Paris
J. Dumaine.
Berlioz, H. Lettres Intimes. Paris: Calmann Lévy. New York: F. W. Christern.
Besant, W., and Rice, J. The Captains' Room. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 10 cents.
Browne, Sir T. Religio Medici. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. $1 25.
Bryce, Collier, and Schmitz. The Comprehensive Atlas and Geography: Modern, Historical, Classical, and Physical. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Ebers, Prof. G. Egypt: Descriptive, Historical, and Picturesque. Parts 21, 22, 23, 24. New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.
Elton, C. Origins of English History. London: Bernard Quaritch.
Faith and Unfaith: a Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.
Fasnacht, G. E. The Organic Method of Studying Languages. I. French. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. $1 10.
Fothergill, J. M. Aids to Rational Therapeutics. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Freeman, A. C. The American Decisions in the Courts of the Several States. Vol. xxx. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.
Havergal, Frances Ridley. Swiss Letters and Alpine Poems. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1 25.
Helms, W. T. Moses Resisted: a Poem. Nashville, Tenn.: Haynes & Camp.
Hood, Mrs. Emma Nelson. Bob Dean; or, "Our Other Boarder." Philadelphia: E. Claxton & Co.
Kendig, J. A. J. Sketches of Travel. Chicago: The Legal News Co. $1 50.
Laugel, A. La Réforme au XVIe Siècle. Paris: E. Plon et Cie.
Littell's Living Age. Vol. cli. Boston: E. Littell & Co.
Mair, G. M. The Bride of Bar-Cocab: a Tale in Verse. New York: C. Wesley Jones.
Marshall, Emma. Benvenuta; or, Rainbow Colors. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1 25.
Maxwell, J. C. An Elementary Treatise on Electricity. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. $1 90.
Mayers, C. G. Mendota, the Spirit of the Lake. Madison, Wis.: David Atwood.
Monograph. Vol. i. Bangor, Me.
North American Review, vol. cxxxiii. New York: D. Appleton & Co.
O'Dea, J. J. Suicide: Its Philosophy, Causes, and Prevention. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 75.
Practical Politics. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. $2.
Precept and Praise. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 50 cents.
Revised Version of the New Testament. Teachers' edition. New York: I. K. Funk & Co.
Riddell, Mrs. J. H. The Senior Partner. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Ridgaway, H. B. The Life of Edmund S. Janes, late Senior Bishop of the M. E. Church. New York: Phillips & Hunt. $1 50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 26, 1882.

The Week.

DURING the week it was officially announced by Commissioner Fink, on behalf of the trunk-line railroads, that the railroad war had been settled by an agreement to advance rates to the figures which obtained before the close of the summer, and to refer the question of differential rates and other matters about which there is a radical difference to commissioners, who are to report what they think each of the companies should do. The report of the commissioners will be simply in the nature of advice, and any one of the companies in interest is at liberty to accept or reject it. This result, while it secures important advantages to the trunk-line roads, such as the advance in rates, which occurred on Monday last, was nevertheless disappointing, and its effect in the stock market was to cause a fall rather than a rise in prices; Wall Street not being disposed to credit the managers of the trunk-line roads with anything except tricky designs where they are not absolutely bound by a written agreement.

The advices from Paris early in the week were to the effect that the wild speculation which had been raging there for so long had at last been forced to begin liquidating. At first this was regarded as chiefly of local significance; but before the week closed, its influence in London was felt, and considerable amounts of gold were drawn from London to Paris. The connections here of Paris houses were also called upon for remittances, and some of these were made direct, while others were made through London. As this demand for short-date remittances on London came in competition with buying bills to transfer the proceeds of recent sales of Reading stock in this market, and also with the demand for short-date bills, to effect settlements of maturing sixty-day drafts which were borrowed by stock brokers here late last year to obtain time money when the money market was stringent, the grand result was that the posted rate for demand bills on London advanced to 4.90 from 4.87, and the actual rate followed, so that at the close of the week gold could be exported if not at a profit at least with little or no loss. This is the first time since the resumption of specie payments in this country that we have been so near to gold exports. The New York banks are relatively strong, having a surplus reserve of about $9,674,375; nevertheless, the danger of gold exports sends a cold chill through the business community.

The latest accounts of the financial disturbances in Paris and Vienna betoken merely a reaction in the wild stock speculation which has been going on in both cities during the past year. It does not appear that general trade has been much affected by it, or that any apprehensions of a commercial crisis are felt. The speculation in Austria has been on a smaller scale than in France, but has nevertheless been sufficient to advance the prices of the principal bank and railway shares within twelve months from eleven to eighty-five florins, the latter being the rise of the Hungarian Credit Bank. The Ferdinand Railway has advanced 75 florins, the Crédit Anstalt 64, the Bank of Deposits 72, the Southern Railway 39. The Hungarian Gold Rentes (6 per cent.), which sold at 111.30 one year ago, advanced to 119.90 at the beginning of the present year. The decline in the prices of securities during the past three months has been general in both Europe and America, but has been much less severe in New York and London than in the principal Continental exchanges. The railroad war in this country has undoubtedly had a beneficial effect in tending to "reduce the swelling" which had begun to show itself in the Stock Exchange last summer.

The House Committee on Banking and Currency having voted by nine to two in favor of extending the charters of the national banks, it is safe to assume that such a measure will be passed by Congress at the present session. The uproar against the banks which has formed so large a part of public declamation during some years, grows faint as the practical question comes to be solved, "What will you do without them?" Banks of some sort must exist. Business cannot go on without them. They are as indispensable as the railway, the telegraph, the newspaper. The question is not whether we shall have banks, but what kind we shall have. In our history as a nation we have tried every kind of bank known to the human race. We have had a Bank of the United States—two of them; we have had every variety of local bank working under State charters, and we have had the present system of national banks. Of all the sorts and conditions of banks we have tried which has given the best satisfaction? Undoubtedly the present system. But if it were otherwise it would still be necessary to continue the system until a new one could be devised to take its place. The forced liquidation of 2,100 banks, with $500,000,000 of capital and double that amount of outstanding loans employed in conducting the exchanges of the country and keeping the wheels of industry busy, would put a stricture on trade which would be felt disastrously in every haunt of traffic, from the beer saloon of Justus Schwab to the counting-room of the millionaire. It is true that not all would go into liquidation at once. The first platoon would be 376 in number—about one-sixth of the whole, with perhaps one hundred and fifty million dollars of loans to be called in, and the proceeds distributed to shareholders and depositors—the remainder falling in from time to time. Such an operation would be a very serious disturbing element to every description of business, and we should not like to stand in the shoes of any member of Congress who might be held responsible to his constituents for bringing it about.

Senator Hill, of Georgia, in the debate on the Funding Bill on Thursday took the extraordinary ground that Mr. Windom, as Secretary of the Treasury, had no more legal or constitutional right to extend the five and six per cent. maturing bonds at a lower rate of interest than he would have had to extend them at a higher rate. Senator Hill's doctrine, regarded from a merely legal point of view, is exposed to the *reductio ad absurdum* in many ways. The deacon who takes up collections at church has no more right, legally or constitutionally, to rob the contribution box than Secretary Windom had to extend the six per cent. bonds at six and a half per cent. But he has the legal and constitutional right to add any sum he pleases to the joint donative of the congregation. Certain Federal officeholders are prohibited by law from levying political assessments on their subordinates, but each one has the right to make as many Christmas presents as he pleases to his assistants and underlings. Railroad companies are not allowed at common law to make unreasonably high charges for transporting persons and property, but they may make them unreasonably low, even to the point of carrying for nothing. It may be granted that Secretary Windom had no right to execute and issue a new bond without authority of law, even at a lower rate of interest; but he had the undoubted right to say to the holders of the five and six per cent. maturing bonds, "You may continue to hold this bond till the Government gets ready to pay it, provided you will accept three and a half per cent. interest instead of six." Senator Hill's method apparently would have been to continue paying six per cent., although he would not advise returning the difference to those bondholders who have accepted the lower rate. The ways of the Democratic party in dealing with the public finances are generally bad, but they do not often run in the direction of paying the bondholder more than he thinks he ought to have.

A Greenback Representative, Mr. Hazeltine, of Missouri, has introduced a bill "to establish a uniform paper currency, to be coined, issued, and regulated directly by the United States Government." As greenbacks come not from the mint but from the press, it may be wondered why Mr. Hazeltine did not say "printed" instead of "coined." The reason probably is that the Constitution provides that Congress shall have power, not to print any paper substitute for money, but "to coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin"; and Mr. Hazeltine hopes that, by applying the constitutional word "coin" to a process to which it cannot be applied according to the Constitution or the English language, he may make his paper dollars pass current in the Supreme Court as well as throughout the country. Mr. Hazeltine seems to think that by pretending to see something in the Constitution which is not there, and using a constitutional word to describe it, he can make the Supreme Court see it too.

The *Times* has been interviewing several clergymen of this city apropos of an anti-Mormon movement set on foot by the Presbyterian Ministerial Association of Cincinnati, and in id of which a meeting will probably shortly be held here. The answers made to the reporter by our local ministers touching their plan for the suppression of Mormonism were not very encouraging, and one of them, that of Dr. Crosby, was, if correctly rendered, not only discouraging, but somewhat alarming. He said very truly that "his views on the subject were very decided." He would put Mormonism down by force; and if the present army was not sufficient for the purpose, he would "recruit fresh troops." He would then put 15,000 men under the command of "Phil" Sheridan, and send him into the Territory to "stamp the evil out"—of course after the passage of an act for the suppression of Mormonism by Congress, and proclamation by the President calling on the people to give it up. How Phil Sheridan would "stamp it out" Dr. Crosby refused to describe in detail, but he admitted that the process, whatever it is, would "to some extent involve bloodshed, but he would not hesitate on that account." We infer from this that what he has in mind is a dragonnade after the fashion of Louis XIV.'s plan for "stamping out" heresy in southern France. In other words, when Phil Sheridan came on a Mormon accused of polygamy he would have him shot or sabred with or without inquiry. We do not like to push our conclusion so far as to say that Dr. Crosby would like to have the same treatment applied to the women. We prefer to believe that the reporter has done him some injustice throughout.

It is a relief, after reading this, to turn to the interviews with the other ministers—Dr. Bevan, Dr. Parkhurst, Dr. Burchard, and Dr. Hall—and find that they have no plan for the suppression of polygamy whatever. It is infinitely better for a minister to keep his mind a perfect blank on any subject than to fill it with schemes for letting soldiery loose on a community which, polygamist though it be, is peaceful and industrious, and has, through its very ignorance and delusion, the strongest claim on the reasonableness and charity of those who know better and live more purely. We would suggest, too, that ministers who hold "very decided views" on Mormonism, or any other social or political subject, should, before speaking on it, make themselves a little familiar with the limitations put on the powers both of Congress and the President by the United States Constitution. It is well for those who want to sabre and shoot the Mormons to remember that Congress cannot set up a military despotism in the Territories any more than in the States. The inhabitants of Territories are citizens of the United States, and live under the Constitution, and the Constitution gives them a right to trial for all offences before a jury; to exemption from unreasonable searches and seizures, from having troops quartered on them in time of peace, and from cruel or unusual punishments. There is no provision made for dragonnades in the Territories. We can hang Mormons for having more wives than one after a jury trial, but we cannot try them by court-martial for it, or waste their farms or burn their houses. It is high time that the indignation against Mormonism began to take some practical shape, and we hope the Ministerial Conference in Cincinnati will bring to the subject something more useful than a fiery hatred of licentious cohabitation. What is needed now is a plan which the Government can embody in legislation, and carry out without bringing discredit on the Christian religion and on the American name. There is no question that Congress can legislate for the suppression of polygamy. We have heard this often enough. What we need to know now is, what kind of legislation can be carried into effect. We are glad to see that some of the New England ministers, including Mr. Bacon, of Norwich, are calling for a reform in the marriage laws of some of our States, as an excellent preparation for the effectual correction of Mormon manners and excesses.

When Mr. Bentley, the late Commissioner of Pensions, year after year, with the approval and recommendation of the Secretary of the Interior, urged upon Congress the necessity of so changing the laws under which pension claims were examined, that the numerous frauds known to have been practised could be discovered and their repetition prevented, he was turned away as one who wanted to interfere with the "just rights of the pensioners." The claim agents succeeded even in having him "investigated" as an "enemy of the crippled soldier." Now our statesmen in Congress are groping about for some means to stop, or at least to circumscribe within reasonable limits, the fraudulent practices the extent and daring character of which have, since the passage of the Arrears Act, exceeded all bounds. One of the propositions made is to have the names of all the pensioners publicly placarded in some public resort—for instance, the post-office—of their place of residence. It is thought that in this way those who draw pensions without being entitled to them would become known to their neighbors, and their discovery by the agents of the Pension Bureau would thereby be greatly facilitated. That such a measure will aid in some degree the detection of fraud is probable. But most of those who draw pensions are already known as pensioners to their neighbors, especially in the country districts, where everybody knows everybody. But this circumstance has afforded comparatively little aid to the Government in the detection of fraud. There are undoubtedly a great many persons drawing pensions without being entitled to them against whom their neighbors would dislike to turn informers, either from motives of sympathy or of fear. If Congress wants to apply a really effective remedy to this crying evil, let it substitute for the present system of adjudicating pension claims upon mere *ex-parte* testimony one which makes a cross-examination of the claimant and his witnesses by a competent officer of the Government possible, and which subjects pensioners suspected of fraud to a thorough overhauling in the same way.

There comes from Washington to the *Tribune* the remarkable announcement that

> "one of the most curious developments connected with the Guiteau trial is the evidence received there of intense feeling against Guiteau in the insane asylums throughout the country. Mention was made the other day of the feeling among some of the inmates of the Government Insane Hospital. Letters have since been received here from the inmates of other asylums, asking that if Guiteau is adjudged insane he be sent to the institution in which the writer is incarcerated, and saying in plain terms that concerted measures have been prepared for killing him. These indications leave little doubt that if Guiteau should ever be acquitted as an insane man, he would hardly be safe in any lunatic asylum in the country without special protection."

It is fair to infer from this that the insane feel that Guiteau has brought discredit on the whole class by his denials of his insanity and his attempts to prove himself sane. There is no other just ground on which any reasonable lunatic could find fault with him. No class can avoid disliking a man who, while apparently a member of it, is eager to repudiate connection with it.

This manifestation of the insane against Guiteau is, however, more important than it seems. If there is anything like community of feeling or opinion on public questions growing up among the lunatics of the country, so that the various asylums are swept by the same political likes, dislikes, or desires, it will not be possible very long to maintain the existing disqualification of lunatics for the exercise of the franchise. The numerous asylums will combine to demand its restoration to those who have been deprived of it for what the majority consider oddities of behavior, and they will use this correctness of sentiment of the lunatic element on the Guiteau case as a strong, and with many an irresistible, argument in support of the claim. Already there is much speculation as to what will be the effect on the verdict of the jury of the fact that two or three of the jurors "have insanity in their families," and thus probably sympathize with or feel kindly toward the insane view of political events, and think it, however disagreeable to some, entitled to respectful consideration at least. Should those who have insanity in their families make common cause with the insane, and were both reinforced by the eccentric and queer, the combination would be an exceedingly powerful one, which politicians would have to take into account. There would be a conciliatory plank for lunatics in the platforms promising reforms in the management of asylums, and a certain class of statesmen would announce from the stump that their fathers were considered insane by all their neighbors, and that they themselves had been insane in their boyhood, and had continued so till their fifteenth or twentieth year, and that to this hour the opinion of a raging lunatic was worth more in their eyes than that of a score of so-called philosophers.

Mr. David A. Wells has written a letter to the *Times* in which he tries to perform the *reductio ad absurdum* on Mr. Foster A. Higgins of the Chamber of Commerce, who has been giving Mr. Wells what he calls the "historic lie" about British subsidies to

ocean steamers. Mr. Wells shows easily that ever since 1833—that is, ever since steam came into use at sea—what the British Government has paid shipowners for is the carriage of the mails, and that just as soon as it has found it possible to get the mails carried more cheaply by competition it has reduced its payments, while what Mr. Higgins wants from the American Government is payments to enable somebody to carry on the shipping business at a loss without going into bankruptcy. But then if Mr. Wells thinks he can reduce Mr. Higgins or any one of his school to silence by reducing him to absurdity, he is mistaken. The strong tower of the school is its imperviousness to the absurdity argument. If that argument had any effect on it, it would have disappeared thirty years ago. There is probably nothing more ridiculous in the world to a logical mind than the spectacle of a Protectionist clamoring for a reduction of freight with foreign countries by means of Government subsidies; but, then, it is so great an absurdity that a man who was capable of seeing absurdity at all would not be guilty of it. He is not a man who only needs to have his attention called to the inconsistency of his conduct. He is a man who could not see it, no matter how much it was pointed out to him, or by whom. In fact, he thinks that any one who points it out to him is making game of him, or trying to cheat him. To many this state of mind is simply contemptible; to us there is something very solemn and touching about it. A Protectionist trying to lower the cost of bringing foreign goods to this country by means of gifts to shipowners from the Treasury, while at the same time shouting for higher duties at the port of entry, has one most pathetic and mysterious title to the kindness and forbearance of his more fortunate fellows.

Gambetta is in serious trouble, and at this moment is threatened with overthrow after having been only a few weeks in power. The trouble is this: Amendments to the Constitution are made by the two Chambers in joint convention. He holds that the particular articles to be amended, and even the amendments to be made, should be indicated beforehand by the Chambers, or in other words, that the jurisdiction of the convention should be settled before it meets. His opponents hold, on the other hand, that when a revising convention meets there is no limit to its powers—that it may amend anything it pleases in the Constitution. They have carried their point in the election of the Committee of the Chamber of Deputies to prepare the amendments. This Committee contains a large majority opposed to the Gambetta view of the power of the convention, and also to the particular scheme of revision propounded by the Government. This scheme affects Article I., describing the composition of the Senate; Article IV., fixing the mode of election; Article VII., creating life senatorships; and Article VIII., defining the legislative powers of the Senate. Gambetta proposes to abolish the life senatorships, and to take away the power of the Senate over money bills, and to substitute a general ticket (*scrutin de liste*) for a district ticket (*scrutin d'arrondissement*) in the election of members of the lower House. The Committee declares itself dead against the *scrutin de liste*, which is Gambetta's pet plan, and in favor of the unlimited amending power of the convention, which the Gambetta men say is equivalent to the power of abolishing the Senate altogether. He is still confident of final triumph, but this second check, coming after the refusal of the last Senate to entertain his *scrutin de liste* measure, indicates unmistakably that there is a very large body of Republicans who are not afraid of him, and do not consider him a necessary man; and in France a man who is not considered necessary is always very near being pronounced unnecessary.

Gambetta has been injudicious enough to say that if the Constitutional Convention refused to be bound by the limitations placed on its powers beforehand by the Chambers, it would place itself in a revolutionary attitude, calling for some action, which he did not define, on the part of the President. This has, naturally enough in France, brought on him the charge of meditating some kind of *coup d'état*, and the charge derives a certain support from the report of the Committee on Revision, which, in rejecting the *scrutin de liste*, half accuses him of aiming at some sort of dictatorship. He now explains that he merely meant that the President would have to refer the whole project of revision back to the Chamber, or, in other words, take it out of the hands of the Convention. But this is a lame explanation, because it is difficult to see whence the President would derive his right to interfere, or what would be the use of asking the two houses sitting separately to repudiate action taken by the two houses in joint session. The probabilities are that he said something which was intended to have the effect of a threat, but threatened nothing. It is supposed the Ministry will resign if the *scrutin de liste* is finally rejected, in which case the crisis would probably be serious as well as prolonged. The one important fact evolved by the situation thus far is that Gambetta is not the overshadowing figure in French politics which a year ago he was supposed to be.

When, early in December, we first referred to the bursting of the speculative bubble in Paris, we suggested that it might have an unfortunate influence on the standing of the Gambetta Ministry, and this apprehension seems to be widely felt. A very large proportion of the French people are still in the stage of political development in which a man measures the goodness of the Government by "the goodness of the times," or, in other words, by the price of what he himself has for sale. Nothing did more to discredit the Republic of 1848 and prepare the way for the Empire than the protracted cheapness of agricultural produce which followed the Revolution. Now that the peasantry have begun to go into stocks, they will, unless their education has made remarkable progress, be disposed to think meanly of a Government under which the best shares tumble thirty or forty per cent. in a day and the worst find no buyers at any price.

Another stage, and a very important one, has been reached in the working of the Irish Land Act. The Sub-Commissioners have decided between 500 and 600 cases, making an average reduction of twenty-five per cent. in the rentals, and spreading consternation among the landlords, who have attacked the Commissioners savagely, and have appealed in nearly every case. One of them, Lord Carrington, has, however, shown that this reduction brings the rent to what Sir Richard Griffith, who made the famous Griffith's valuation forty years ago, said would be a fair rent; and to the objection that this leaves out of account the rise in the value of land since then, he answers that the English landlords are obtaining no higher rent for farms now than they obtained forty years ago, and the reduction which is being made in Ireland judicially is no greater than has been made in England voluntarily. The first appeal to the full Commission has now been decided, and the majority of the three Commissioners has confirmed the decision of the Sub-Commissioners by reducing the rent of a holding from £36 to £30. The most important point decided was one, however, which remedies a great defect of the Land Act of 1870, which it was feared might appear in the present one. The courts held that under the former act a tenant who claimed compensation for his improvements must claim under the exact tenure under which he made them. If, for instance, having had no lease when he made the improvements, he had taken one subsequently, or if his farm had undergone either diminution or increase, it was decided that his claim would not be valid. In the case now decided on appeal, the landlord set up the change of tenure from a leasehold to a tenancy at will, since the improvements were made, as a bar to a reduction of rent on account of the improvements, and has been beaten. There is still one other appeal to the regular law court in Dublin, but the decision will probably be sustained, and lead to the settlement of a large number of cases out of court.

The large majority with which Mr. Windthorst, the leader of the Clericals in the German Reichstag, carried his motion for a third reading of the bill abrogating the law which forbids the exercise of ecclesiastical functions by certain classes of persons without Government authorization, is not only significant as putting the final adoption of the bill beyond doubt, but because the success of the Clericals is achieved without the aid of the Government. The Clericals may henceforth feel much less than heretofore in need of Prince Bismarck's countenance, and they may therefore see much less reason to aid the Chancellor in his policy in the way of *quid pro quo*. If this be so, the whole situation changes, and Prince Bismarck may see his schemes of forming coalitions foiled in a manner which he did not anticipate, as there is certainly no consideration that could induce the Clericals to serve him except the necessity of bargaining with him for the accomplishment of certain ends of their own.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

Mr. Scoville continued his address to the jury in the Guiteau case, on Wednesday. His argument up to that day had been tedious and wanting in force, but on Wednesday he created a sensation by attacking Mr. Conkling, General Grant, and President Arthur. He began his remarks by saying that if there were not "other reasons back of this prosecution," Guiteau would never have been brought into court, but would have been sent to an insane asylum, and that the men behind this prosecution were those persons who seek to hide their own infamy by casting the blame upon this insane man. He then "raised his voice higher and higher and showed increased excitement," and said, "those persons" were "such men as Conkling, and Grant, and Arthur—those who made war on the dead President—who fomented the strife and instigated that state of things, and manufactured such a public feeling that it preyed upon this man's weak mind until reason left its throne." On Friday Mr. Scoville continued; he bitterly denounced Mr. Corkhill, and claimed that no motive had been shown for Guiteau's act. On Friday he attacked the Government experts, and accused them of unfair dealing. This was the fifth and last day of Mr. Scoville's address. He closed in the morning, and "seemed much exhausted." On this day permission was given to the prisoner to read his speech to the jury, the counsel for the prosecution having withdrawn their objection, so that the possibility of a new trial on this ground might be avoided. Judge Cox wished Guiteau to read his speech that afternoon, but he objected, saying that his "mind was not in a proper condition." On Saturday he read his speech, which had already been published in the newspapers. He read in a "stilted and most absurd manner," and at one time almost broke down; "his face began to quiver, but he put his hand up to his cheek, and in a moment seemed to control himself." He read the whole speech from beginning to end from one of the newspapers in which it had been published. On Monday Mr. Porter began the closing address to the jury. The court-room was crowded to excess, and great interest was manifested. Mr. Porter was not well, and was obliged to suspend his speech early in the afternoon. He was very effective, however, and was listened to with close attention. He denounced the prisoner as a coward, a fiend, a hypocrite, a swindler, etc. He denounced the attempt of Guiteau's counsel to pervert the testimony, and said that their efforts were evidently directed with the view of inducing one or two of the jurors to disagree with the others. He was frequently interrupted by Guiteau and Mr. Scoville, the latter trying to prevent Mr. Porter from correcting Guiteau's often-repeated statement that public opinion was on his side. Mr. Porter continued in the same strain on Tuesday, but on his attempting a second time to bring before the jury evidence to contradict the prisoner's assertion that public sympathy was with him, Mr. Scoville promptly excepted, and Judge Cox supported the exceptions, instructing Mr. Porter, with some sternness, to keep within the proper limits. Mr. Porter then continued his argument to show that the prisoner alone was responsible for his act.

In the Senate on Monday eulogies were delivered on the late Senator Burnside. In the House a number of new bills were introduced, and a resolution reported requesting the President to obtain from the British Government a list of Americans imprisoned by its orders, together with a statement of the causes of their arrest.

Interest was added to the debate of the Sherman Funding Bill in the Senate on Thursday by a short speech from Mr. Windom against the bill. He said he thought the finances of the country were in an excellent condition, and he regarded it as a safe general principle of action in regard to proposed financial legislation, when no decided advantage could be effected by a change, to let things remain as they were and get the positive advantages of stability. Senator Hill, of Georgia, followed in a speech denouncing the Windom refunding scheme.

The bill for the retirement with a pension of Justice Hunt of the Supreme Court was passed by the Senate on Thursday by a vote of 41 to 13.

The Senate Committee on Pensions on Saturday unanimously agreed to report a bill granting Mrs. Abraham Lincoln $15,000 in cash, to be available immediately, and also providing that from the enactment of this bill her pension shall be at the rate of $5,000 per annum, instead of her present pension of $3,000.

In the House on Wednesday the debate on Mr. Robeson's proposition to enlarge some of the standing committees was continued, but on Thursday a motion to refer the measure back to the Committee on Rules was carried by a decided majority. On Friday the House devoted its attention to legislative business, and disposed of a number of private bills. It then adjourned until Monday.

Secretary Kirkwood has prepared a bill for the improvement of the condition of uncivilized Indians, of which the principal objects are, he says, to make the Indians eventually self-supporting, to give them title to their lands in severalty, and to educate and civilize them. The bill provides for the appointment of a commission of three members, to be known as the Commission on Indian Civilization. This commission is to visit the various tribes, and to bring about in various ways the objects of the bill as above stated.

The Commissioner of Pensions has issued certain rules to govern the issue of pensions, which are as follows: When it is shown that a soldier was captured in the line of duty, and it appears that he was afterward an inmate of a Rebel prison, and has not since been heard from, his death shall be presumed to have occurred in the service and line of duty, and the day after he was last seen or heard from may be accepted as the date of his death. If he was released from a Rebel prison, and was found to be disabled when released, the origin of such disability may be assumed to have been in the service and in the line of duty.

It is understood that there will be a heavy reduction in the number of employees in the Post-office Department at Washington in February. The entire department is said to be overrun with delegations, each pressing its own candidate for some office.

In March, 1881, Congress directed the Secretary of War to report the condition of the fortifications on the seacoast. An examination of these fortifications was therefore made by Generals Tower, Newton, and Abbot, and the result of their inquiries submitted to Secretary Lincoln. The report shows that nearly all the forts are antiquated, and of little use against modern ordnance.

The Government prosecuting officers who have been preparing the information in the Star-route cases have nearly completed the work, and are now awaiting the termination of the Guiteau trial to bring the matter before the Grand Jury. The cases which have been selected are said to be, as far as possible, representative of the different degrees of fraud alleged to have been committed.

Mr. J. P. Benjamin, of London, formerly Secretary of State of the Confederate States, has written a letter to a gentleman in New York in reply to an inquiry as to the truth of the rumor that there are large sums of money belonging to the Confederate States deposited in the Bank of England and elsewhere in Europe. Mr. Benjamin says that he does not believe that there is "one penny to be found anywhere in Europe of the assets of the defunct Confederacy." He also says that if anything can ever be recovered by the bondholders, it can only be by Government action in the United States.

Secretary Frelinghuysen has received word from the American Minister at Paris that the Under Secretary of State thinks that the bill recently introduced in the French Chambers will result practically in the free admission of American salted meats. He had hopes that it would pass both Houses at an early date.

Mr. Frelinghuysen has received despatches from St. Petersburg, reporting the continued activity of the Russian authorities in aid of the survivors of the *Jeannette*. The Imperial telegraphs have been placed at the disposal of Mr. Hoffman, American Chargé d'Affaires at St. Petersburg, and every effort is being made to find the crew of the lost boat, and to assist the rescued men.

Advices from St. Petersburg state that the search made by Engineer Melville for Lieutenant DeLong and his comrades in an easterly direction from the mouth of the Lena, has been fruitless, although some of Lieutenant DeLong's letters, as well as the ship's log and various instruments, have been found in abandoned camps. The places in which these were found have been indicated by the erection of cairns.

On Friday afternoon the Executive Committee of the National Board of Health declared smallpox to be epidemic in the United States. An order was made directing an inspection of several of the most important quarantine stations in the country, to see if the rules and regulations of the board, approved by the President in November, 1881, are being properly enforced.

There have been destructive floods in the West. At Nashville, Tennessee, a great number of persons have been thrown out of employment by a cessation of operations in mills and factories on account of the floods. Acres of crops have been ruined, and many persons driven from their homes.

A meeting was held at Willard's Hall in Washington, on the evening of Wednesday, the 18th, to celebrate the hundredth anniversary of the birth of Daniel Webster. Commissioner Loring was empowered to appoint a committee of seven to procure a local monument to Webster, the necessary funds for the purpose having already been obtained. On the same evening the Marshfield Club of Boston held a meeting to celebrate the event. There were a number of prominent men present.

The population of the city of Chicago is reported to be 630,000, an increase of 125,000 since the census of 1880.

Ex-Governor Alexander Hamilton Bullock, of Massachusetts, died on Tuesday, the 17th. On Sunday, Major-General Silas Casey died in Brooklyn, N. Y., at the age of seventy-five. He was a graduate of West Point, and served with distinction in the Mexican war and in the Rebellion. He compiled and edited a system of "Infantry Tactics," based on the French ordinances of 1831 and 1845, which was adopted in the United States service. Mr. Clarkson N. Potter, a well-known New York lawyer, died on Monday. He served in Congress for some time, and is particularly well known in that connection from his having been one of the most prominent members of the investigating committee appointed to inquire into the frauds practised in Louisiana in the Presidential election of 1876. Charles Blanc, the well-known French art-critic, died on Tuesday, the 17th.

FOREIGN.

The question of the revision of the Constitution continues to excite great interest in France. The Committee of Thirty-three to examine the bill of revision has been selected. It contains a large number of advocates of a general, as opposed to a restricted, revision. This majority is also said to be opposed to the insertion of the principles of the *scrutin de liste* in the Constitution. Thirty-two of the thirty-three were reported to be opposed to the bill introduced by the Government, and M.

Gambetta is said to have been urged by his friends to resign immediately. He is stated, however, to have said that he awaited the final issue with confidence. On Saturday M. Gambetta attended a meeting of the Committee, at which he declared that the Chambers could not legally go beyond the scheme for revision previously adopted by the Senate and Chamber of Deputies without placing themselves in a revolutionary position, which would require the intervention of the President as the guardian of the Constitution. A resolution declaring that there is ground for the revision was then passed by a vote of 24 to 3, five members having abstained from voting. This resolution, however, is now regarded with dissatisfaction by the Cabinet, as it does not provide for the adoption of the *scrutin de liste*, and is generally obscure. M. Gambetta's remarks at the meeting on Saturday have created no little sensation in France. His opponents construe them as a "distinct threat." On Monday the Committee of Thirty-three presented their report, in which they reject the proposal to insert the principle of *scrutin de liste* in the Constitution, and maintain that the powers of the Congress cannot be limited by the previous decision of either Chamber. It was decided to appoint Thursday next for the consideration of the bill in the Chamber of Deputies. The latest advices state that the defeat of the Ministry is regarded as almost certain, in which case M. Gambetta will resign.

Another matter which has caused great excitement in Paris has been a panic on the Bourse, resulting from a decline of 225 francs in Union Générale shares on Thursday. The panic resulted in several failures. By Friday, however, confidence was partially restored and securities of all kinds rose. The despatches on Tuesday announced that arrangements had been made between the Union Générale and various financial establishments which will enable the Union to pay all its depositors and take over securities purchased from the corporations of brokers, thus putting the brokers in a position to face their losses. "Thousands of families" are reported to have been ruined by the panic, and one despatch from Vienna announces that there have been "many suicides" there in consequence of it.

Prince Bismarck made a speech on the recent Imperial rescript in the Reichstag on Thursday. He said it did not aim to create a new Constitution; that the maxim, "the King reigns but does not govern," did not apply in Germany, and that the expression, "Constitutional absolutism of the Ministry," was absurd. Prince Bismarck said he was aware of the responsibility he incurred in signing the rescript, and that he was answerable for all the acts of the sovereign. He added that it was to the King, and not to Parliament, that Germany owed the position she enjoyed. In conclusion, he said that the accusation which had been made that he sought to escape responsibility by bringing forward the name of the King, was a charge of cowardice, and he now wanted to know whether there was any one of the members who dared bring such a charge. The despatches say, rather paradoxically, that Bismarck's speech being a direct challenge to the Reichstag, and very aggressive in tone, caused a "tremendous uproar," although otherwise it made a favorable impression.

In the German Reichstag on Saturday the clause of the bill for the incorporation of Hamburg in the Zollverein, granting 40,000,000 marks from the Imperial funds to defray the expense, was adopted by a vote of 171 to 102. The remainder of the bill passed without modification.

In the Reichstag on Wednesday the bill abrogating the law forbidding the exercise of ecclesiastical functions without Government authorization was read a third time; the majority was as large as at the second reading last week.

Notice has been given in the Reichstag of a motion, on the third reading of the Imperial budget, urging the Government to come to an understanding with the other powers in regard to the introduction of an international bimetallic currency. It is said that many members of the Conservative, Free Conservative, and Centre parties have joined the Association for the Promotion of Bimetallic Currency in Germany.

In the Prussian Landtag recently the Government presented a bill providing for the buying up of six private railways, at a cost of 477,000,000 marks, mostly payable in Treasury bonds.

In Berlin the police confiscated the copies of the last number of the London *Punch* in consequence of a cartoon bearing on the recent Imperial rescript.

A proclamation has been issued at Berlin, announcing that the cattle plague has been eradicated throughout the empire.

The insurrection in Herzegovina has been assuming formidable proportions. A well-organized conspiracy against Austrian rule is said to be in existence there. It is stated that on Tuesday, the 17th, a skirmish took place between the Austrians and the insurgents, in which the latter were routed. On Saturday, advices were received announcing that ten Austrian soldiers had been killed, and their quarters burned. On Sunday, there were reports of much hard fighting in various parts of Herzegovina, and particularly near the Montenegrin frontier. The insurgents were pretty generally worsted. The Prince of Montenegro informed a deputation of Herzegovinians, who asked him to support them in their struggle against Austria, that they must not count on Montenegrin support.

Egyptian matters continue to occupy the attention of diplomatic circles in Europe. Italy and Germany are opposed to the proposed Anglo-French interference in Egyptian affairs in case of a political crisis in that country. Italy holds that in case armed intervention becomes necessary, it should be effected by Turkish troops, and Prince Bismarck has informed the Porte that it will do well to await the explanation he has asked of England and France relative to their proposed joint action in Egypt before taking further action. Meanwhile it is stated that there is some indication that the Egyptian Chamber of Notables will waive their claims to the exclusive right of voting the budget, but will claim the right to vote it conjointly with the Ministers. It is stated that unless the Notables give up their pretensions on this point there is little hope of a settlement.

It is reported upon good authority that notwithstanding M. Gambetta's statement that the deaths among the troops in Tunis amounted only to 1,000, they are nearer 3,000, but that the fact is concealed by the removal of invalids.

The Emperor of Morocco, in compliance with the representations of France, has decided to take energetic measures to prevent Bou Amena and other insurgent chiefs, from organizing, on Moorish territory, raids upon Algeria.

At the Cork Assizes on Thursday the outlaw leader Connell pleaded guilty to the various charges against him. Connell has been the leader of a band which rendered the district of Millbank one of the most notorious in Ireland by their outrages. He was arrested last December after a hard struggle, and papers were found on him implicating a number of others. The first appeal to the Court of Appeals under the Land Act was decided on Wednesday, the 18th. The appellant claimed that by change in the nature of the tenant's holding from a lease to a yearly tenancy, his improvements could not be considered as made by the tenant or his predecessors in title. The Court decided against the appellant on all the points and affirmed the decision of the lower courts. Messrs. Parnell, Dillon, O'Kelly, and O'Brien have received notice that they have all been remanded to prison for a further period of three months. Miss Reynolds, of the Ladies' Land League, who was sentenced to one month's imprisonment for aiding and abetting a criminal conspiracy to prevent the payment of rent, has been released from prison, her term having expired. There are now said to be 70,000 claims for the fixing of fair rents before the Land Court. Archbishop McCabe issued a pastoral letter, which was read in all the Catholic chapels on Sunday, enjoining the people not to listen to abettors of violence.

Earl Grey has written a letter to Mr. Downey, the Conservative candidate for the vacancy in the House of Commons for the North Riding of Yorkshire, in which he says he cannot understand why all who are interested in land do not take the same view as Lord Zetland, and refuse to continue to support Mr. Gladstone, who, on every really important occasion, acts against the opinions of all the Whig leaders of the old days. Earl Grey is a veteran member of the Liberal party and a large landowner, and his letter shows how much the land question has affected the old division of parties.

Dr. Lyon Playfair, in a speech at Edinburgh, said that he did not believe the Conservatives would interpose obstacles to really necessary rules of Parliamentary procedure. Referring to the trade question, he said that it was undoubtedly true that only a very small free-trade party exists in the United States, but that it includes the philosophical political thinkers. The workingmen of America, he said, still share the delusion that protection and high wages are synonymous. He believed that if the United States were to shake off protective trammels, it would become the greatest manufacturing country in the world.

Mr. Henry Stafford Northcote, member of Parliament, who has recently returned from America, addressing his constituency at Exeter, said he did not believe in the decrease of American competition in the food market. He thought it idle to talk of the exhaustion of American land, for the supply of land for many years to come in the great Northwest would be boundless.

Great interest is manifested in South America in regard to the mission of Messrs. Trescott and Blaine. While they were in Peru every word that fell from their lips was eagerly listened to, in hopes that it might afford some indication of the probable course they would pursue. The Peruvians do not, however, seem to have been able to gather any information on the subject whatsoever. The first matter which they will consider on their arrival at Santiago will be the arrest and deportation by Chili of the constitutional President of Peru, Señor Calderon. It is stated that the Commissioners may be obliged to await the result of the Chilian Congressional election, which occurs in February, as a majority in Congress is necessary to sanction the acts of the Executive, and it is feared that the strong military element which now exists in Chili may be in a majority in the next Congress, in which case the annexation of a portion of Peruvian territory, which is the greatest stumbling block in the way of a treaty of peace, may be insisted upon, and it may then be very difficult to bring matters to a settlement, as the Peruvians are strongly opposed to a cession of territory.

The Government Commissioners of the National Bank of Mexico have signed a declaration that all the shares of the bank have been subscribed for, and that over $3,000,000 have been paid up. The last week in February has been appointed for the opening of the bank; 18,000 shares are held in Mexico, 12,000 in New York, and 50,000 in Paris.

TUESDAY, January 24, 1882.

CLAIMS IN CONGRESS.

Mr. Springer on Friday last made a speech in the House of Representatives on the injustice and absurdity of Congress being called upon to act judicially with regard to private claims against the Government. He took as the text of his discourse a private claim for $85 for the loss of two steers, which ever since the close of the war has been occupying the time and attention of the committees of Congress and the executive departments, has cost the Government thousands of dollars in money and days and weeks of valuable time, and has not been settled yet. Mr. Springer thinks there ought to be a constitutional amendment prohibiting Congress from special legislation; but, "pending the passage of such an amendment," he thinks that much relief might be afforded by turning over to the departments claims which specially affect them and grow out of their operations; and with this end in view he says that the Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads will bring in a bill turning over all small claims made by postmasters for losses incurred through the carelessness or misconduct of clerks to the Post-office Department.

Mr. Springer's idea of a constitutional amendment is drawn from similar provisions of law adopted within the past thirty or forty years by most of the States. Such an amendment would of course relieve Congress of the consideration of all claims to which it related; and the chance of getting it adopted by the Legislatures of three-quarters of the States is not perhaps so small as to make the attempt useless. The Legislatures of all the States which have similar clauses in their local constitutions would probably pass it without hesitation, and the general feeling throughout the country with regard to the abuses arising from special legislation is so strong that there would be little opposition to it anywhere.

But the amendment, if not supplemented by other measures with regard to claims, would be almost as arbitrary and oppressive a way of getting over the difficulty presented by claims in Congress as the present system is wasteful, and cumbrous, and unjust. A very large proportion of the private bills introduced at Washington are for the redress of alleged wrongs done by the Government or its officers to private individuals. They are not different in any respect from the claims which are made the foundations of law-suits against persons or corporations in courts of justice, except that they are claims against the Government. Their proper settlement depends upon the application of principles of law to the facts of the case as ascertained by the examination of witnesses or by written testimony, which is a purely judicial process. This is already recognized by the legislation constituting the Court of Claims, which now has jurisdiction of all claims against the Government founded on any law of Congress, or upon any contract, express or implied, with the Government.

Many classes of claims, however, fall outside this limit, and as a scandalous illustration of the way in which Congress may deal with such cases we may refer to the notorious instance of the Geneva Award, which is now once more before the Judiciary Committee of the House, and which involves not only an enormous sum of money, but the administration of justice by the Government among its citizens and the good name of the country itself. The Geneva Award consists of some $10,000,000, the balance of a sum of $15,000,000 damages paid by the English Government to our Government after the close of the war for injuries done by Confederate cruisers during the Rebellion. The fund, after being received by our Government, was held for some time subject to action by Congress. Several sets of claimants upon it appeared, known respectively as the shipowners, the insurance men, the "war premium" men, and the "exculpated cruiser" men. The shipowners put in claims for ships and cargo destroyed by the *Alabama* and other cruisers for whose acts the Geneva tribunal had found the British Government responsible and directed it to pay the $15,000,000 as damages, but these claims only amounted to about $5,000,000. The rest of the fund was claimed by the other classes on various grounds, into the merits of which we do not propose to go here. But now what did the Government—the trustee which collected the money for whatever persons might be justly entitled to it—actually do? It began by turning over the matter involved to the Court of Claims, but inserted in the act passed for the purpose a clause preventing it from considering any but the first class of claims. The rest of the money it kept, and after the claims had been for some years regularly referred to the Judiciary Committees of the two Houses, and dozens of hearings had, and arguments made, and bills introduced, and referred, and reported, and debated, and nothing accomplished, the Government took the money and applied it to the payment of the national debt.

The withdrawal of the power of special legislation from Congress would not redress such wrongs as these unless it were supplemented by enlarging the jurisdiction of the Court of Claims, so as to cover all claims against the Government of whatever nature. There is no leading modern nation in the world which has provided its subjects such insufficient redress against wrongs committed by its Government as the United States. The first thing to be done by Congress is to recognize, as it has already done in the case of Government contracts, that all disputes between a Government and its citizens which consist of a money demand against the Government based on the assumption by it of a liability or duty, or the invasion by its agents and employees of private rights, should be settled not by the haphazard action of committees consisting of men selected to perform widely different duties, or the reckless votes of an indifferent, lazy, or biased legislative body, but by officers selected to administer justice and adjudicate upon questions of private right in accordance with the fixed rules of law.

What is needed is not merely to relieve Congress of a totally unnecessary duty, and to shut its doors against claims of a fraudulent character, but to furnish claimants who have a just foundation of some sort for their demands a means of redress. To stop all special legislation would do the first, but not the second. There is nothing more certain than that a man with a just claim would far rather present it to a court than to such a body as Congress; and the first result of the general transfer of the jurisdiction of all claims to the judiciary would be that the great bulk of meritorious claims would never show their faces in Congress again.

THE PROLONGATION OF PARNELL'S IMPRISONMENT.

The announcement that the English Ministry mean to keep Parnell and O'Brien, two members of Parliament, in jail for three months longer is in some ways a very serious matter. Four members of Parliament have been arrested under the Coercion Act, but not until the session had closed, and it was generally understood that they would be liberated before the House of Commons again met. It was felt from the beginning by a considerable portion of the Liberal party that the imprisonment of members of Parliament arbitrarily, on charges which were not, and were not meant to be, submitted to a jury, was in itself a grievous scandal, which nothing but the exceeding gravity of the crisis in Ireland made bearable to any friend of constitutional government. But it has until now been maintained that the scandal would not be pushed to the point of preventing any of the prisoners from taking their places in the House when Parliament met, because this would amount to depriving the Opposition of some of its leaders and of some votes. This last step, however, the Ministry has now decided to take in the case of two of the suspects. It is made all the harder for good Liberals by the fact that if Parnell and O'Brien had chosen to stay in England they would not have been arrested, except for the purpose of trying them, and would even then have been admitted to bail. It is really their going over to Ireland to come into personal contact with their constituents, which may fairly be called a part, and an important part, of a Parliament man's duty, that has put them in the power of the Government. They might have said in England all that they have said in Ireland without exposing themselves to molestation; and although it may be true that the condition of Ireland requires that there should be one law for that country and another for England, it will be difficult to reconcile people to the idea that there should be one law for one member of Parliament and another law for another. We doubt if since the Revolution of 1688 any member has been prevented from taking his seat through arrest for an offence which was not indictable, and for which there was no intention of producing him before any court.

The continued detention of members of Parliament when Parliament is sitting is made all the more serious by the fact that the condition of Ireland is undoubtedly improving. One of the excuses for arresting Parnell was the fear that he would dissuade the people from resorting to the Land Court. But they have resorted to it in such numbers as to make the machinery of the court seem ridiculously

inadequate, and the result has thus far been so satisfactory that there is no likelihood that anything he could now say would stop the rush for "a judicial rent." Moreover, the arrests under the Coercion Act have not diminished the number of outrages, while the court records show that the ordinary criminal procedure is by no means so ineffective as the Tories and the landlords have tried to make out. During the last half year the convictions before juries at the Assizes, even for agrarian offences, were, considering the difficulty of getting good evidence, fully up to the English and Scotch standard. In fact, the juries seem to be doing their work quite satisfactorily, and the Government has just acknowledged that it has not been properly executing the law for the protection of life and property, by refusing any longer to permit the police to be used in assisting the sheriff at ejectments This duty is now assigned to the soldiers, and the police are left free for their proper work of detecting and arresting criminals.

It is true that there is still a great deal of refusal to pay rent in cases of undoubted ability to do so, and this refusal is supported with the ridiculous excuse that "the leaders of the people" are in jail. But it must be borne in mind that this failure to pay, dishonest as it is, is an almost inevitable consequence of the formal and solemn, though only implied, confession made by the Land Act, that in the great majority of cases the Irish landlord's bargain with his tenant is unjust. The whole Liberal party has been saying this vehemently for the past two years, and has provided legal machinery for setting this bargain aside. It is folly to ask the tenantry, after all this, to go on paying up as cheerfully and promptly as before. Probably no body of men in the same stage of social training would do so in any country in the world. When the French peasantry reached the conclusion about their landlords to which the Irish have now come, they knocked them on the head or burnt their houses. In Prussia and Russia the Government wisely put the relation of landlord and tenant on a sound basis before the peasantry had begun to think. The English Government never takes time by the forelock in this way. It holds that it is the better plan not to reform until those who suffer from the abuse lose patience. This is probably a better plan, politically considered, than the other, but it necessitates great forbearance with the malcontents. They cannot be expected to come into court smiling and considerate when the court was not opened until their fury had begun to alarm the authorities.

The Tories are, as might be expected, making vigorous use of the charge of inconsistency against the Liberals, for which the resort on so great a scale to arbitrary imprisonment affords so much material. They say, and say truly, that if anything of this sort had been done by the Beaconsfield Ministry while in power, the air would have been filled with Liberal denunciations. This is quite true; but then it is also true that, in judging a resort to coercive measures, we are very properly influenced by the question, Who makes it? If the Tories coerce, either in Ireland or anywhere else, they coerce as men who believe, and have always believed, in coercion as a permanent means of government, and who never have supplemented or accompanied it with any other policy. The Liberals, on the other hand, are notoriously averse to it, and do undoubtedly resort to it not as a policy, but as a rare remedy. The difference between the two parties in this matter is, in fact, very like the difference between Napoleon and the Republic in France. He could not resort without serious discredit to measures of repression which the Republic can use without any discredit at all, because in his case even the preservation of order was open to the suspicion of selfishness. It makes all the difference in the world whether a man is arbitrarily locked up in Ireland in order to enable the landlords to have their own old way, or is locked up to ensure the success of a measure which gives the tenant his independence.

MEN'S CLOTHES.

THE effect which the æsthetic movement has already produced, for good or evil, in women's dress has set many earnest reformers thinking as to the possibility of an improvement in male attire; and the appearance of Mr. Oscar Wilde on the platform in a peculiar and original costume of his own devising seems to be generally regarded as an indication that a serious attempt will be made to modify the uniform evening dress which the laws of society now prescribe for men. The *Evening Post* published last week a letter from an artist—in the present state of things the impetus for such a movement would have to be given by art—who strongly urged the immediate introduction of "color" into men's evening dress. With the caution which marks the difference between the practical reformer and the fanatic, he suggested that the first step should be made with the least important part of the masculine uniform, and proposed that, while black coats and trousers should be retained, the Philistines should not be allowed any longer to prevent the children of light from doing what they pleased with their vests, cravats, and gloves, and indicated that a pleasing and beautiful thing for them to do would be to make use of gay-colored silks for vests, with gloves and cravats "to match." This, he thinks, would give us some individuality, and break up the present dull, stupid uniformity, which makes men of fashion indistinguishable by dress, as they already, alas! occasionally are in other respects, from waiters. He mentions in corroboration of his theory of reform that a young, handsome fellow of his acquaintance had "a rose-colored silk vest and tie made, and put them on with a black coat and trousers, and the effect was rich, tasteful, and festal-looking in the extreme."

This proposal, on its face, has nothing wild or impracticable about it, and falls far short of Oscar Wilde's extravagant attempt to get society to go back to knee-breeches and buckles. In judging of schemes of reform in the interest of the beautiful in fashion we must not, of course, let our zeal blind us to the fact that there are many points of difference between them and previous movements for the improvement of the condition of the race. The latter have generally been inspired by a love of human liberty; the former seem to be the product of an intellectual conviction that the moral nature will be elevated by an effort to gratify the taste. Reform of the old kind was humanitarian in character, and sprang from a desire for equality of rights and position. Reform of the new kind seems based on a belief that existing taste is hopelessly debased and vulgar, and can only be elevated by showing man how low, and mean, and degraded he really is. Philanthropists, again, urged reform as a means of progress, while the fundamental article of the æsthetic creed is retrogression. It may be an exaggeration to make æsthetes insist that

> "Art stopped short in the cultivated court
> Of the Empress Josephine."

But for those who cherish an earnest wish for reform in decoration or dress, the first step is not to look forward with hope, but back with regret, to put aside the new and reintroduce the old, whether in china or costume. Fifty years ago, when philanthropy was still young, the author of 'Sartor Resartus' could find no better vehicle for an exposure of the shams of life than a satire upon dress, and though he grew very weary of philanthropy before his death, he never, to his dying day, showed the slightest indication of recognizing that the modification of dress could ever become a serious matter of human interest. But it will not do to be deterred from bringing a little color into our lives because of what Carlyle might have thought of Oscar Wilde, and we only mention the subject because it brings out in a striking way the difference between the reformatory spirit of his day and our own. It is in their zeal, their spirit of self-sacrifice, their willingness to expose themselves to ridicule, that the tie between the æsthete of today and the political reformer of the earlier period must be found. One was glad to be a martyr; the other is happy in being a butt.

It is impossible not to sympathize with the spirit which is at the bottom of the desire to improve the appearance of men's evening costume. No one pretends that any part of it is pleasing to the eye of man, or, what is much more to the purpose, of woman. When girls say, as they sometimes do, in moments of confidential expansion, of a male acquaintance, "He looks lovely in his dress-coat," this is, we believe, always taken among experienced women to be a proof rather of infatuation, or, at any rate, ardent admiration, than as evidence that his beauty or attractiveness is increased by a garment which has none of the recognized elements of beauty to recommend it. But in measuring the possibility of any æsthetic reform of this sort it is important to consider first the causes which have made it what it is in modern times. That these causes must be very powerful and deep-rooted we can see at a glance, for everybody knows that the evening uniform, now the badge of civilization all the world over, is only a couple of generations old. If we go back to the last century and inquire what sort of dress gentlemen wore in society, we find that they made use of colors and variety of stuffs exactly as women now do, and with precisely the same end in view—to render their appearance attractive. Society has a corporate existence in Anglo-Saxon countries, mainly, if not altogether, for the purpose of marrying and giving in marriage, and all students of the mysterious laws by which the race has arrived at its present advanced stage of evolution and progress know that in matrimony selection plays an important part. Among birds, beasts, and fishes the selection is purely natural. Some lion's cub, for instance, has a somewhat gaudier leonine beauty than the others in the same jungle, and this æsthetic advantage is reproduced in his descendants and becomes a permanent mark of the breed, or strain, giving its representatives always the standing of the most favored suitors in the jungle, and thus a permanent superiority in the struggle for existence. In the process of time the great law

of selection makes the male animal in the jungle more and more magnificent and effective in appearance (though it must be confessed that the law produces mainly primary colors), while the female, curiously enough, does not get the benefit of the law at all. In human society, however, we find that civilization at its highest pitch produces exactly the opposite effect. The law of matrimonial selection which we see in such effective operation around us leads to greater and greater effort at attractiveness and display in women's dress, while men's has become tame and uniform. Man being still the active matrimonial party, and the proposal of marriage still being made by him, it seems extraordinary that the law of selection itself should not lead him to give himself as good a position in the matrimonial market as possible by the same adventitious and artificial aids resorted to by women.

So, indeed, he did down to a very recent period. The dress of a fine gentleman two centuries ago in England and France was full of color, and designed to show off the figure, and to render it as attractive as possible in the eyes of the beholder. The dress of the court of Charles II. or Louis XIV. may not have been in itself calculated to inspire the mind with as pure a joy as the Florentine or English of an earlier period; but it was as gaudy and pretty as the tailors of the day could make it; and there was room in it for variety and invention, through which the law of selection could freely play. The old state of affairs lasted with certain modifications down to the present century, and it was really not until the steam and railroad period that the dress-coat began its triumphal progress all over the world; so that the establishment of the present evening costume must be regarded as in some way connected with the establishment of the modern industrial community. And this we imagine to be the fact. What modern society is based upon is the notion of equality. There would be a certain absurdity in making all men equal before the law, and then permitting the assertion of superiority through dress. Women have never been admitted to the suffrage, and still belong to the antique world in this respect. Display of any kind is foreign to our modern notion of the pertectly well-bred man; but display in the case of women we expect and like. Again, the effect of democracy has been to produce in society a great tenderness for all sensitiveness of feeling, which was unknown while color and variety in men's dress prevailed. The beaux of a century ago dressed themselves up to the eyes, while country gentlemen wore russet, and other gentlemen, starving in Grub Street, whose names have since become famous, had to go into company in a shabby condition. No one who reads Boswell's account of Dr. Johnson's relations with the society of his day can fail to see that his deficient manners were partly due to his bad clothes. He resorted to the only means he had to redress the inequality in appearance which his purse did not allow him to do away with. Carlyle, to whom we have already referred, belongs to the interregnum between the period of the dress-coat and that which preceded it, and 'Sartor Resartus' may be regarded as the protest of the new spirit against the old régime; he never forgot through his life the bitter feeling inspired in his mind by the fine clothes in which the world still dressed itself when he was a boy.

Another cause which has doubtless had to do with the universal introduction of the present uniform is the saving of time effected. The gentlemen of the last century belonged to an idle class, and dressed partly to kill time. What is needed by men in a modern community, in which time has a commercial value, is a costume which can be rapidly changed, and for rapidity the world has never known one, off the stage, which takes less time for a complete metamorphosis than the present fashion. For these reasons the æsthetic struggle over a reform in men's evening dress seems likely to be, for the present at least, a losing battle. Anything which involves great trouble, or gives room for inequality or display, or suggests the reintroduction of the detested spirit of caste, is unlikely to make its way in modern society. The march of the present social uniform is really the march of modern industrial civilization, which in its relentless strides apparently paralyzes or changes the action even of laws of nature which held their own in society till within the memory of men now living. Black may be the color of the Philistine, and knee-breeches the true breeches of the children of light; but the present social organization of the world seems to forbid the indulgence of the hope that we are on the eve of a great revival in color and form in the dress of men.

THE GRANDSON OF MADAME DE SÉVIGNÉ.

PARIS, January 5, 1882.

THERE is no well-educated Frenchman who does not feel a sort of friendship and of gratitude for Madame de Sévigné. Her mind has become a part of our mind; we have lived with her, and travelled with her to Aix, to Brittany; we have received her letters; we love her, and feel as if we belonged to her family. Her family, alas! is no more. M. Frédéric Masson, who has been for some time the Librarian of our Foreign Office, has written an interesting book on the short life of her grandson, the Marquis of Grignan.

The Grignans were a great family, and fully deserved all the epithets which Madame de Sévigné liked to bestow upon them. They belonged to Provence. The husband of Mademoiselle de Sévigné was Francis Ademar, Count of Grignan. She was his third wife. Her son was born on the 17th of November, 1671, at Lambesc, and received his name from the newly-assembled States of Provence. Madame de Sévigné went to Provence in 1672, and remained there a year with her grandson. The child was sickly; the great concern of his mother was that he should grow up handsome. She, "plus jolie fille de France," thought much of beauty. The young Marquis had a preceptor at a very early age; he was to be a prodigy. He was sent to the fashionable college, that of Clermont, in Paris—"Collegium Ludovici Magni." The great event of a nobleman's youth at that time was the presentation to the King. The Marquis made his début at fourteen; he was admitted to the King's mass; he held what was called "l'appartement"; he danced in a fancy ball in Indian dress, and was much admired. Madame de Lafayette writes to Madame de Sevigné: "This is a great winter for him; he must play a great part at fourteen. . . . He presented himself to the King, and was much observed. His face seemed agreeable, and his physiognomy has nothing common."

Our poor Marquis had, in fact, no childhood; everything was turned to that single point, the King's favor. The great offices of the state were in the gift of the King, and every mother wished for a son the *survivance* of the office of his father. The survivance was the promise of the place after the death of the occupant. The court and the army formed the two horizons of a nobleman's life. There was always some war going on in Flanders or in Germany, and at the age of seventeen young Grignan began to feel that he must win his spurs. "I have a grandson," writes Madame de Sévigné to Bussy-Rabutin, "who dares to be seventeen. People say that it is the fine age for going to war, and this is why I wish he were older, in order to bear the fatigues, or younger, so as not to be exposed to them; but it is an evil without a remedy." Everybody was on the way to Philippsbourg—the King's son, Monsieur, the Duc du Maine, a number of Princes, all the glories of Versailles. The Marquis left Versailles with the Dauphin, and made his début in the infantry regiment called Champagne. There was no more famous or more disciplined regiment in the French army, no better school of arms. The siege of Philippsbourg was a serious affair: the poor boy had to go to the trenches. "What an epoch," writes Madame de Sévigné: "to have shared in the first occasion on which Monseigneur begins to play the part of conqueror; to have ducked before the same shells, and to have been the first companion in arms of our future King." Such ideas almost consoled her for her uneasiness.

After Philippsbourg, Mannheim was besieged; and the young Marquis was happy enough to receive a wound, or rather a slight contusion. How proud the whole family is! What a joy! Madame de Sévigné is complimented on it by the whole court. The Marquis was in the trenches before Mannheim, talking with the Count de Guiche. A bomb fell, and a part of it struck him just on the sword; the sword preserved him, and he only received a shock. Still, the young Marquis's name is in every mouth, and his father has at once the benefit of the King's attention; he is made *chevalier de l'ordre*, a title which gives the bearer parity with the greatest lords of the court.

Who will tell us better than Madame de Sévigné herself how the young hero was received on his return? "I found him," she writes to her daughter, "very cheerful, very pretty; he kissed me five or six times with the best grace. He wished to kiss my hands; I wanted to kiss his cheeks, which led to a contest. I took possession of his head, and kissed it at my pleasure. I wished to see his contusion, but as it is on the left leg, I did not find it proper to oblige him to show it." She makes him tell the history of his three sieges and the exploits of Monseigneur. She sends him about, and chooses all the places where he must visit and show himself. After his visits he must return to his company at Châlons, for he has now become captain of *chevau-légers* by means of his mother, who has herself chosen the horses and the men. We have but three letters of the Marquis's, one having been written on this occasion:

"Here I am arrived, madame, and I have been to see Monsieur de Lamoignon, Madame de Coulanges, and Madame de Bagnols. Is not this the action of a man who has just seen three sieges? I talked with Monsieur de Lamoignon at his fireside; I took coffee with Madame de Bagnols. You cannot believe what pleasure I have in the possession of such a fine company, which I owe to you. I will go and see it at Châlons. There is a good company, a good lieutenant, a good *maréchal des logis*. As for the captain, he is young, but I answer for him. Adieu, madame. I kiss both your hands most respectfully."

The Marquis is now seventeen; he goes to Versailles, he sees the King, the Princes, M. de Montausier. He sees "Andromaque" played in its novelty; he sees all the best fashion; he dances at the best balls. After the Carnival, he leaves the Hôtel Carnavalet, where he has spent such a pleasant winter with his grandmother and the Chevalier de Grignan, and goes to Philippeville, where the Grignan regiment is in garrison. None of the letters which Madame de Sevigné wrote to the young officer have been found. He was good, he was amiable, he was very lazy, and himself wrote very little. He probably threw in the fire those letters of his grandmother which we should

now be so happy to read, even after two centuries.

The campaign of 1689 began; the regiment of Grignan, in which young Grignan served, was in the army of the Duke of Duras and under the direct orders of the Marquis de Boufflers. The Chevalier de Grignan was colonel, but he did not serve; the King decided that all the honorary colonels must be replaced by active colonels, and great efforts were made to have the colonelcy given to the Marquis. The Grignans were very great personages in Provence. The Chevalier was poor; he had conquered his colonelcy at the point of the sword; he was now gouty and could not fight any more. He was to be indemnified with 2,000 louis; he sacrificed himself once more for the Grignans. He knew that a regiment was a costly affair, and that the Grignans, though they lived in great style in Provence, were always embarrassed. He made everything easy; he even gave his signature to help them raise money. Was not every sacrifice called for in order that the Marquis might be colonel at eighteen, and the colonel of a regiment which bore his own name—Grignan Cavalerie—a fine regiment of forty masters (companies)? The Chevalier was happy enough when he heard the beloved Marquise, speaking of her grandson, say: "The colonel; our colonel; your colonel."

He was sent to Kaiserslautern for his headquarters. He was not fond of reading, which threw his grandmother into constant despair, and spent his time sleeping in this dull garrison. Alas! he also liked to play—the poor young Marquis. Did not everybody play at Versailles? Did not they play at his grandmother's and at his father's house? Is there an easier way of killing time, a more convenient mode of destroying a few hours in a semi-sociable way, not fatiguing for the mind, requiring no great mental effort, no will, no decision? Play becomes as necessary as eating and drinking to some lazy people, who like to feel themselves the toys of chance and to swim like buoys on the undulations of fortune. The poor grandmother gets alarmed. "I tell him that it is his ruin, and that it will teach him a thousand bad things which he had better be ignorant of. If he plays little, he will lose little, but it is a little rain which wets. If he plays badly, he will be cheated; he will have to pay, and if he has no money, either he will not keep his word, or he will encroach upon the necessaries of life." Madame de Sévigné advises reading instead of gaming: "Oh, the pretty, the happy disposition! it places us above tedium and idleness—two bad beasts!"

The Grignans found themselves in such a sea of financial troubles that the Marquis, at the age of twenty-three, was induced to make a *mésalliance*. He married the daughter of a contractor who had become *fermier-général*—a Mlle. de Saint-Amans, a poor girl of eighteen, well-educated, pretty, amiable. Her father paid all the debts of the Grignans; the thing was concluded between him and the Count de Grignan. The colonel was with his regiment, and he came back for the ceremony. Saint-Simon tells us that the mother, Madame de Grignan, alluding to the marriage, said: "It is necessary to put manure on the best land." To do the young Marquis justice, he adopted the family of his wife. He was civil to his father-in-law, whom he found very convenient and useful. He had no more trouble to take; he kept no more accounts; he stayed with him in Paris as much as he could. He seems to have behaved much better than the young Duke in the "Gendre de M. Poirier." He was gentle, kindly, brave, and thoughtless. What relieved such a life as his and gave to it a little halo was a constant willingness to die for his King and his country. Grignan did not miss a campaign up to 1698. He always behaved well in the army; he was made a brigadier in 1702; he was taken ill, and died of smallpox at Thionville, a short time after the battle of Hochstaedt, in which he had behaved with the greatest bravery. His loss was hardly felt. France was defeated; our armies had been obliged to evacuate Germany. This young Grignan, once the favorite of fortune, surrounded in his early years by all that was fair, died in a soldier's hospital, leaving nothing behind him. The race of Grignan died with him, with all its ambition and its brilliant folly.

Correspondence.

THE POWERS OF A QUORUM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I desire to ask of your readers the solution of a question of great public importance, which is not settled by any authority to which I have access. It is this:

Can the majority of a quorum of a body pass a vote if the minority refrain from voting; and, if so, can less than a majority so act under the same circumstances?

For example, the Common Council of the city of Boston consists of 72 members, and by law a majority of them constitutes a quorum to do business. Therefore 36 members in their places, with the president, who is also a member, form a quorum. A motion is made, but one or more members decline to vote (we will imagine that one is obstinate). The vote, taken by yeas and nays, shows but 36 votes, including the president—all yeas. The member not voting rises and calls attention to the fact that only 36 votes have been cast; and the question is, whether the chair can declare the vote carried.

There is a further refinement sometimes suggested—viz., that 19 vote yea and 17 nay, the 19 being a majority of the 37 votes which would make a quorum; there still being one member present and not voting.

It is conceded that when only 36 are present nothing can be done; but some contend that the *presence* of a quorum, though less than a quorum vote, will legalize all the votes passed by a majority of those voting. The broadest form of this assertion is, that if 1 member vote and 36 sit silent, the vote is passed; the next claim is that at least a majority of a quorum, 19, must vote; the other ground is, of course, that 37 must vote or all proceedings are illegal.

I understand, perhaps wrongly, that in Congress a quorum must vote. Thus, in the 'Digest of the Rules and Practice of the House of Representatives,' it is stated, under the head of "Quorum": "When, from counting the House on a division, it appears that there is not a quorum, the matter continues exactly in the state in which it was before the division." The authority quoted is Jefferson's Manual, § 36, last clause but one.

Again, the same Manual says, § 4: "And whenever, during business, it is observed that a quorum is not present, any member may call for the House to be counted, and being found deficient, business is suspended."

So again, under "Yeas and Nays," the 'Digest' states: "'One-fifth of those present' has always been construed to mean one-fifth of those who vote on the question of ordering the yeas and nays, regardless of the fact as to whether or not a quorum is present."

It is to be noted that in the case presumed *notice is taken* of the fact that no quorum has voted.

Cushing, §§ 369 and 1396, leaves the matter in doubt, as his remarks are all based on the English practice. In the House of Commons, it appears that no one can be present and not vote on a division, as there the members actually go out into two lobbies, and are counted on their return. I do not see any suggestion that any member can refuse to go into one lobby or the other. But by our system of *viva-voce* voting, members can sit mute, and thus the question first stated has arisen. In another form it is: Does a member vote by his presence as well as by his voice; and, if so, does his silence give consent?

A legal friend has kindly given me the following references to authorities: 1 Dillon's Municipal Corporations, §§ 216, 217; 1 Kyd on Corporations, 418–425; 5 Dane's Abridgment, 150; 2 Kent's Commentaries, 293; Sargent *v.* Webster, 13 Metcalf, 504; 7 Cowen, 402 and 526; 10 Wendell, 658; 16 Iowa, 658. Also, he cites the opinion of Speaker Sanford, Mass. House of Rep., June 1, 1874, and the opinion of the Supreme Court of Maine, 70 Maine, 562, 563.

I have carefully examined these, and it seems to me that the English cases merely settle the point that the majority of a quorum has the full powers of the quorum, on the presumption that all the quorum vote. Dane (Abridgment) says: "On these principles, if the charter, for instance, requires twelve common-councilmen, etc., to elect or do an act, seven of them at least must be present, though four of the seven may give the vote; and if three of the twelve die, still seven, a major part of the whole twelve, must meet." Here Dane does not anticipate the case of four voting and three refusing to vote.

In 1874 Speaker Sanford met the case fairly, and decided that, a quorum being present, a part being silent, the votes of the remainder carried the measure. The Supreme Court of Maine, during the exciting hours of the Garcelon fight, had to make out a case, for political reasons, to prove that three aldermen or selectmen had the full powers of seven. They argued thus: Four is a quorum of seven; three out of four dominate the fourth man, whether voting or not; hence, when a return is signed by three men, the Court infers the fourth man was present, because "on the return the law presumes a quorum was present." I presume no man, not a lawyer, can read this decision without feeling devoutly thankful that the law always presumes that enough votes are present to be beaten and yet to make a quorum. The Court would probably infer from a bung-hole that a barrel was present, that it was full of whiskey, and that the owner had broken the Maine law. The Court indeed cites Dane, as above, and says that in the Maine House of Representatives 76 members make a quorum. "If there is actually that number present, and a majority of them (that is, 39 members) vote in the affirmative, a valid law can thereby be enacted or other business transacted. . . . This is familiar law, . . . and shows how and why a return signed by less than a majority of the whole number may be, and so far as the Governor and Council is concerned, is, conclusively pronounced to be valid."

This is "familiar law" no doubt, but of that kind of familiarity which breeds contempt. A few citations from the journals of the Legislature showing instances of laws passed by 39 votes, with none in the negative, would certainly have been more satisfactory.

I venture to ask those of your readers who are versed in parliamentary law to give some light on the matter. As a matter of argument, it may be said that in this country silence is neither consent nor dissent. It is conceded that a member cannot be forced to vote, neither can he be prevented from leaving his seat unless the body possess the power to make laws. That is to say,

Congress and legislatures claim the power to compel the presence of members, though this power is often disputed. Lesser assemblies, as councils in cities, cannot do even this.

When a yea-and-nay vote is taken, each member is asked to vote; if he refuse, how can he be deemed to have acted? He can leave the room, or he may withdraw to a place within sight and hearing, and so evade voting. Why can he not remain in his seat and still decline to vote?

We need, indeed, in this country some code of parliamentary law suited to our customs. Cushing's great book is useful in some respects, but its rules and precedents are English. We see to-day that Parliament is ages behind us in these matters. A little knot of malcontents can stop all proceedings, because Parliament is afraid of our measures for closing debate. In England they cling to the absurd form of dividing the House by actually sending members out of the room. Rising votes, and especially yea-and-nay votes, are American, and the use of them calls for new rules and decisions.

I should not trouble you with a purely theoretical case, but our city councils often have to pass votes aggregating millions of dollars. It is strange, but true, that thus far the question of what the legal definition of "voting" in such an assembly is has not been settled.

Yours very respectfully,
WILLIAM H. WHITMORE.

BOSTON, January, 1882.

TARIFF REFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I dislike to trespass too often on your kindness, but, in reply to the anonymous criticism in your last issue of my communication published January 12, would beg leave to say that after nearly twenty years of "protective" taxation, so called, neither I nor any one supposes that we can get back to sound principles without hurting anybody. Radical errors can rarely be committed with impunity in private, and never in public affairs. There exists no way of escaping the economic errors of "protective" taxation without some loss to the innocent holders of tariff-inflated merchandise. Such loss may be reduced to a minimum by making the remedial measures of prospective operation, as I suggested, but cannot be entirely escaped. It will have been partially compensated by the equally undeserved profit realized when the inflation of such values occurred. That the persons affected may not be entirely identical is no fault of the publicist, whose business is to indicate sound principles for the social mass, and not to peddle out justice among individuals. It is better that a small number of capitalists should surrender their monopolies, and divide a moderate loss among them, than that the country's industry should be indefinitely crippled by taxing 50,000,000 of population to create and maintain a few æsthetic millionaires.

But however that may be, we have no option. Irresistible natural laws are slowly asserting themselves, and will prevail whether we like it or not. We may by prompt measures guide and influence, but cannot stop them. Our manufacturing capacity, moving forward with giant strides, will soon overtake and exceed the domestic market; while the tariff, by augmenting cost of production without benefiting the laborer, excludes our labor in the form of manufactured articles from all others. When that point is reached, our foreign exclusion remaining as at present, our factories must close and their owners and operatives suffer, or we must regain access to foreign markets by the only possible method—viz., by the removal of unnecessary commercial restrictions.

Whether it is better to do that by the Executive, through an extra-Congressional commission, or by the constitutionally-designated persons elected for the purpose, is a subject for a fair difference of opinion. I formerly, by your favor, gave mine in your columns, with my reasons, and on that point have nothing more to add.

Respectfully, I. J. WISTAR.

PHILADELPHIA, January 23, 1882.

MEXICAN PRECAUTIONS AGAINST AMERICAN INTERFERENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It may be useful for those who are inclined to support Mr. Whitthorne's resolution proposing that the United States should offer to assist in the government of Mexico, under the pretext of protecting American interests there, to know that Mexico, in making grants to railroad companies representing foreign capital, has carefully guarded herself against opening the door to any such interference. The following is a translation of an article in the contract made by the Mexican Government with General Grant, representing the Southern Mexican Railroad Company, and a similar provision is included in (I believe) all similar contracts recently made by that Government, including those described in Mr. Whitthorne's resolution, for the construction of railroads running from our boundary line to the Pacific:

"Art. 4. The Company shall always be a Mexican company, notwithstanding all or any of its members shall be foreigners, and it shall be subject exclusively to the jurisdiction of the Courts of the Republic in all matters and causes of action occurring at any place within its territory. The same and all foreign persons and their successors having any concern in its business, whether as stockholders, or employees, or in any other character whatever, shall be considered as Mexicans in everything that relates to it. They shall never be permitted to allege, with respect to any matter relating to said railroad, any rights as foreign citizens under any pretext whatever. They shall have only such rights and remedies as the laws of this Republic give to Mexican citizens, and it shall therefore not be competent for them to call for the intervention of any foreign diplomatic agent."

This stipulation, thus solemnly agreed to by those accepting grants and entering into contracts with Mexico for the investment of American capital in that country, is but one expression of the extreme jealousy of that Government and of the Mexican people of American interference and American influence. The same feeling is constantly expressed in a variety of forms, and nothing is better calculated to make it burst into a flame than such a measure as Mr. Whitthorne's resolution proposes. C.

TOLEDO, O., January 16, 1882.

THE PRIMARY IN CALIFORNIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Referring to your article of December 22 on "The Regeneration of the Primary," it may be interesting news to some of your readers that in California the election law has taken cognizance of primary elections ever since 1866. Under the present codes, which were adopted in 1872, it is competent for the recognized authority of any voluntary political association calling a primary election to state by resolution that such primary will be held under the provisions of the law for general elections; at the same time the resolution, which is required to be published, must state what qualifications, in addition to those demanded for an elector at the general election, must be possessed by voters at the proposed primary, and persons must be designated to constitute boards of election. These boards are then required to proceed in the same manner as to receiving ballots, hearing and determining challenges, and canvassing as the boards at the general elections; all the penalties of the penal code which are applicable to a violation of duty in the one case being equally applicable in the other.

Thus it will be seen that if the extension of legal safeguards to the primary election were all that is needed to perfect that institution, the desired result would long ago have been attained in this State. It may also be stated that, contrary to what seems to be the custom in New York and the East generally, primaries are here invariably held in the daytime, so that "business men" are at liberty to "consult their own convenience as to the hour" of voting.

Now, when we come to inquire whether these innovations, which some seem to suppose are all that is required for "the regeneration of the primary," have materially altered its character or made it more satisfactory in California than it is in other places, we are obliged to recognize the fact that they have not. The primary works here about as it does everywhere else—viz., with reasonably fair results in the country, and in the cities in a way which is well-nigh the despair of good citizens. When we say the results of the primary are good in the country, we mean the ultimate result of getting candidates of a respectable class; it is not meant that this is brought about by obtaining a full and explicit expression of the party will, for, as a rule, only about one out of ten of the members of a party attends the primary.

The estimation in which primaries are held in San Francisco may be judged from the fact that they are sometimes dispensed with entirely, the county committee appointing a lot of prominent citizens to constitute a nominating convention. A primary is the sure precursor of dissensions, and not infrequently of bolts and rival conventions. At the Democratic primary previous to the election of last year the whole machine broke to pieces; two conventions were held and separate nominations made. Although the differences were compromised on the eve of election, harmony has not been restored, and the leaders are even now discussing ways and means to reconstitute their shattered organization.

Before attempting any explanation of the manifold failures of the primary, let me say that the plan of voting directly for the party nominees instead of for the members of a convention that will select them (which is the plan you seem to regard so hopefully in your editorial of the 22d ult.) has been often tried in the country districts of California, where it is known as "the Crawford County plan," but has not been found to work well. It leads to giving too much importance to local considerations; the average voter will vote for his own townsman, with whom he is acquainted, rather than for a candidate from some other town concerning whom he knows little or nothing. Consequently, if there is one large town in the county, it will usually get all the candidates, and completely shut out the smaller towns. This will infallibly make trouble in the party ranks, and probably defeat the ticket when the general election comes off. Or, if there is no one town that overshadows the rest of the county, there may be a large number of candidates who have received so nearly an equal number of votes that to give the nomination to the one who has received two or three more than anybody else, on the claim that he is the choice of the people, appears absurd. It will frequently happen, too, that the person who gets this meagre plurality is precisely the most objectionable and

weakest candidate in the lot, but who has been able, by unenviable means, to mass the worst elements in the party, and outvote any single one of his more respectable competitors. So, after all the dissatisfaction with county conventions, they seem to be the lesser of two evils.

The favorite theory of professional politicians for accounting for the slim attendance at primaries—viz., laziness or indifference of the voters—will not hold water. If voters had a definite object in view, and knew just how to accomplish it, they would be as eager to attend primaries as the general election. If they saw a clearly-defined issue, to be decided by their votes one way or the other, no exhortation would be needed to induce them to go to the polls. This is shown by the occasional full votes at primaries when there is a "contest" between two men or measures, and when it is known to every voter, beyond the possibility of mistake, exactly what the difference is between voting for one list of delegates or the other. But usually there is no such contest. Frequently there is only one ticket in the field, and when there are two the non-professional politician can seldom tell what is at stake, or what difference it will make if he votes for one rather than the other. He believes the "workers" have some interest in the decision, and that depending upon that decision is a choice of nominees; but he does not understand between whom the choice is to be made, and is quite sure that it is merely a personal contest, involving no political principle. The fact is, so much has local politics become a matter of intrigue that a majority of all the "movements" are now carried on in the dark—a concealment which makes them virtual conspiracies. After the election in this State in 1880 it was announced by the newspapers that the Republican primaries, the nominating convention, and the subsequent election of members of the Legislature in San Francisco had all been carried in the interest of a certain candidate for United States Senator, and yet while this work was in progress the mass of voters were in profound ignorance of the whole scheme. The vast and complicated intrigue, wire-pulling, and log-rolling necessary to accomplish this result had been carried on under the very noses of the voters without exposing what was in progress. Such things are a remarkable example of what can be accomplished in secrecy in this age of newspapers and supposed universal publicity.

Under such conditions as these, the average voter prefers not to vote at all at primaries, and I, for one, say he does exactly right. Rather than not vote understandingly, a person had better not vote at all. "The sacred obligation of the ballot" has been so cried up that a majority of writers and public speakers seem to consider it a merit to vote at random rather than not at all. But there is no virtue in the mere act of voting, as such. If the quality is the same, a large vote is no better than a small one; a full vote, if it is not an intelligent one, has nothing in it preservative of a republic.

It is evident that the main difficulty in the primaries lies a long distance back. Even if every voter knew exactly the sentiments of each of the would-be delegates to the convention toward every declared candidate, there would still remain two serious obstacles. First, the candidates are generally unknown men, selected from mercantile or other pursuits in which they have not come prominently before the people, and consequently their relative fitness for the various positions is unknown. The newspaper discussion, which the *Nation* truly says is the principal guide to the voter at the general election, affords no assistance at the primary, for, except in occasional instances, it has no existence. The party newspapers do not care to criticise unfavorably the men whom, by the decision of the convention, they may afterward have to support and praise, and consequently they keep quiet until after the nominations are made, when they declare that they are all excellent, and it is left for the opposition or independent papers to point out the defects in the ticket.

Secondly, if the voter knew just the candidates he wished to vote for, and the delegates he must support to do it in each particular instance, he is still involved in perplexities occasioned by the multitude of offices to be filled. He may be able to make up a ticket of delegates who will all be favorable to any one of the candidates he desires to see nominated, but, such is the variety of opinions, he will find it impossible to compose a list of delegates who will be unanimously favorable to his choice for every one out of the twenty-five or thirty offices to be filled.

All this only illustrates the practical difficulties in the working of the best-devised system of political machinery, and emphasizes the fact that, after all, the great reliance of the voter for good party nominations is on his power to bolt and defeat the party when it makes bad ones. This is no late discovery. Fisher Ames perceived that "one man making a business of politics can have more influence than six who do not"; and he proclaimed the fact before this Government was twenty years old. If, with the additional experience of eighty years more, all our editors could be brought to see and acknowledge it, we should hear no more in support of that stupendous fraud, "reform within the party."—Respectfully, A. B. Nye.

San Francisco, Jan. 6, 1882.

CLASSICAL AND NON-CLASSICAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In speaking of the gymnasium and the real-school, C. A. Eggert says, in No. 863 of the *Nation*:

"The difference between the graduates consists only in this, that Greek is omitted in the one and some scientific studies and modern languages in the other. In so far as the Faculty claim that the classical schools do better work in preparing students than the real-schools, they mean that the omission of Greek disqualifies the one class and qualifies the other to the degree indicated."

This language is misleading, for it implies that the course in Latin is the same in both gymnasium and real-school. There is before me a copy of the "Gesetz über die Gymnasien, Realschulen und Seminare, vom 22 August, 1876" (published in Leipzig in 1877), giving the laws of Saxony governing these schools. Pages 72 and 73 show the time devoted to Latin in the gymnasium, and pages 110 and 111 the time devoted to it in the real-school:

In the Gymnasium:		In the Real-school:	
1st year,	10 hours a week.	1st year,	8 hours a week.
2d "	10 " "	2d "	5 " "
3d "	10 " "	3d "	4 " "
4th "	10 " "	4th "	4 " "
5th "	10 " "	5th "	4 " "
6th "	10 " "	6th "	3 " "
7th "	10 " "	7th "	3 " "
8th "	8 to 9 " "	8th "	3 " "
9th "	8 to 9 " "		

It thus appears that the boy in the gymnasium devotes to Latin more than two and one-half times as many hours as the boy in the real-school. But this does not represent the whole difference between the acquirements of the two; for one's acquirements in a study increase in a geometrical ratio to the time devoted to it.

Again, pages 74 and 75 of the work above named state the degree of proficiency expected of those graduating from the gymnasium as follows:

"Am Schlusse des Gymnasialcursus ist zu fordern, dass der Schüler ohne Hilfe der Grammatik und des lateinisch-deutschen Lexicons correct und wenigstens von groben Fehlern frei lateinisch zu schreiben, dass er mit einiger Fertigkeit und Gewandtheit über Fragen und Gegenstände, welche den altclassichen Studien angehören, lateinisch zu sprechen im Stande, und dass ihm durch die Kenntniss der lateinischen Sprache auch das Verständniss für den Geist des römischen Alterthums aufgeschlossen worden sei."

And page 111 states the degree of proficiency expected of those graduating from the real-school, as follows:

"Kenntniss der Formenlehre und der Syntax, so dass der Schüler mit Hilfe des Lexicons ein nicht zu schweres deutsches Pensum ohne grobe Fehler in's Lateinische übersetzen kann; die Fähigkeit einen leichteren Abschnitt aus den bezeichneten Schriftstellern ohne Lexicon, einen schwierigeren mit Hilfe des Lexicons richtig zu übersetzen."

Respectfully, Lucius Heritage.

Madison, Wis., Jan. 16, 1882.

PATERNAL COLLEGE GOVERNMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The article entitled "Yale and Harvard" in the last *Nation* suggests to me one consideration which often escapes the attention of fathers choosing a college for their sons.

I know of no institution in which the doors of the dormitories are locked and the windows barred at night, to keep the students in, nor of any in which either periodical visits or visits at unexpected hours are made on the students in their rooms. Nor is there any in which the college officers who lodge in the dormitories are forbidden to absent themselves as long and as often as they choose—at lectures, concerts, etc., or in each other's rooms, etc., etc. Further, the best modern dormitories are so constructed as to hinder as much as possible the passage of sounds from one floor or one room to another. The "college officers responsible for good order in their respective entries" are just as efficient watchmen of students' conduct as the police of a great city would be of the conduct of the people in the streets, if the police were deaf, were not divided into reliefs, but went on and off their beats whenever they felt like it, and had each policeman a quarter of a mile square to attend to. A college officer knows no more of what goes on for good or evil inside the rooms of his entry than a policeman does of what goes on inside the houses on his beat.

If my son can, wherever I send him, do with his evenings in a college building, or who knows where else, what he chooses, and with all th time he spends in his own room or anybody else's what he chooses, in what important particular are his morals safer under the most than under the least paternal of college governments? Does any one pretend to say that the examinations in the paternal colleges are stricter, and that in this way they exercise a more effective control over the use their students make of the time spent outside the recitation-room?

Yours truly, A Father.

January 21, 1882.

P. S.—What, in particular, does President Porter mean by the Faculty's providing for "attractive amusements and athletic activities"? You cite the phrase, and the alliteration makes it a noticeable one. But athletic activity is, we should suppose, quite out of the line of most of those who are here called upon to take it in charge. Then, again, though the Faculty at Yale may at rare intervals afford the students amusements, to ask them or any other faculty to undertake the business of providing regularly attractive amusements is—no joke.

FRUITS OF THE PACIFIC COAST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I did not believe that a single Californian would endorse my criticism of the flavor of the grapes grown in the Golden State; it is, however, in this special case, a mere matter of taste between us, and, as such, the good opinion of Californians as to their vintage is entitled to as much consideration as my own, and justly so.

Your correspondent, Prof. Hilgard, in replying to my comparisons, touches upon another subject, perhaps inadvertently, which is one of vital interest to himself and his neighbors of California: he apparently anticipates a steady improvement in the average quality of the Pacific Coast fruit-crop. I do not; indeed, I am confident that the best Californian average exists to-day, and that the future will rate lower, for the following reasons: The history of pomological enterprise and investment shows clearly that the cleanest and best crops of all kinds of fruit are those which are gathered from newly settled and planted districts, wide apart or far from old and long-continued industry of this character. That result is due to the simple fact that such new orchards and distant ones are for many years free, substantially, from the infinite variety of insect and fungoid pests which always settle upon and remain with old orchards and vineyards. They are never wholly subdued by us, and work sad havoc with a high average yield. I do not think the question of climate has anything to do with this trouble, either to cause or abate the nuisance and consequent deterioration, except as the weather substitutes, when it varies, one severe annoyance for another.

The fruit-growers of California will not escape these plagues; they will be compelled to suffer sooner or later, just as we do here, and the excellent average of their fruit-crop, now so deservedly noticed, will drop rather than rise under the impending inflictions.

Henry W. Elliott.

Smithsonian Institution, Jan. 20, 1882.

Notes.

Harper & Bros. have in press a 'Manual of Historical Literature,' by Professor Charles Kendall Adams, of the University of Michigan.——D. Appleton & Co. have in preparation a fine library edition of the prose and poetical works of the late William C. Bryant, edited by Parke Godwin. Two of the six octavo volumes contemplated will consist of a biography, with extracts from the poet's correspondence. The same firm will publish Professor Robertson Smith's recent lectures in Edinburgh and Glasgow, on "The Prophets"; and a new edition of the late Tom. Hood's 'The Rules of Rhyme.'——G. P. Putnam's Sons have issued the third of the five volumes containing the 'Life of Washington' in their handsome Geoffrey Crayon edition of Irving.——Miss Alcott has issued a new edition of 'Moods' (Boston: Roberts Bros.), revised in the sense of her original conception of the story, which was "an attempt to show the mistakes of a moody nature, guided by impulse, not principle."——The first edition of Newcomb and Holden's 'Astronomy' (Henry Holt & Co.) has been already noticed by us. The third edition, which has recently appeared, is an improvement upon the first in many respects, notably in the mechanical execution of the printing of the woodcuts. The revision is, we find on examination, a real one, and the new matter is inserted chiefly for the purpose of giving more definitions of fundamental terms. The first twenty-eight pages have been entirely rewritten, and we would suggest to the accomplished authors of the book, and to the publishers, the propriety of altering the index at the end of the book to correspond. Such work as this is also included under the term revision.——'Seneca and Kant,' by Rev. W. T. Jackson, issued by the United Brethren Publishing House, Dayton, Ohio, shows that its author has read some of the ethical writings of Kant and of Seneca, that he has looked up the references in Ueberweg, Schwegler, and Teller, and that he is an admiring reader of Cousin, Hickok, Professor Joseph Haven, and President Noah Porter. The ordinary modicum of praise is given to Kant's stoicism, that it sounds good, but doesn't mean much, and beyond this there is little sign of scholarship or acumen in the book. Its one effect in the world of letters is likely to be to increase the number of applicants for the degree of Ph. D. at the University of Michigan, which gave that honor to Mr. Jackson on the easy terms of this essay.——The most important special feature in I. K. Funk & Co.'s handy little 'Revised Version of Mark's Gospel' (from their Teachers' Edition) is the marking of the terminations of verses so distinctly (by "full-face" periods) that the verses, though not paragraphed as in King James's Bible, are almost as easy to find as if they were; in contrast with other paragraphed Bibles, which hide entirely the verse divisions. Among the maps is a "bird's-eye view," which is much more graphic than the prevalent flat plans.——A report of the dedicatory exercises in the hall of the Boston Medical Library Association (founded in 1875) contains a noteworthy list of the loan collection of medical portraits, some of which were subsequently presented to the society. Dr. James R. Chadwick, the librarian, by the way, has reprinted from the Boston *Medical and Surgical Journal* his quantitative and qualitative analysis of obstetric and gynæcological literature for 1876–80. He gives his own country the foremost place in this branch of medical science.——The *Magazine of American History* for December continues its contributions to the Yorktown centennial, by giving a copy of General Getty's topographical map of the battlefield made in 1880, with military details superadded in red ink, and by further reprints of contemporary documents. A portrait of George Clinton, a St.-Mémin vignette, and an etching, are also among the adornments of this number.——We have received from Ralph Trautmann, 312 Broadway, a neatly-enveloped series of steel engravings of American Presidents, and another of "Eminent Authors and Poets." We regret that we cannot praise them as works of art or as likenesses. The second series is absurdly heterogeneous.

—During the past year the number of German bookstores in Germany and in foreign countries increased from 5,540 to 5,750, distributed among 1,333 cities, Germany having 4,376 firms in 987 cities; Austria, 207 in 648 cities; America, 25 in 78 cities; Africa, 4 in 4 cities; Australia 3 in 3 cities, etc.——A son of the late Professor Lotze has just printed an abstract of his father's last course of lectures, which will be of great interest to those who were anxious to know the final form of his opinions. It is entitled 'Grundzüge der Psychologie' (Leipzig: Hirzel, 1881, pp. 100), and covers, in the very brief way of dictata, the entire field of psychology.——Part 1 of the first volume of Wilhelm Wundt's *Philosophische Studien* (1881, pp. 147) contains four articles of great interest to psychologists, as follows: 1. Psychologic methods, by Wundt; 2. Time of apperception by simple and composite concepts, by M. Friedrich; 3. Investigations on the sense of time, J. Kollert; 4. Mathematical induction, by Wundt. Numbers two and three are special investigations conducted in Wundt's psycho-physic laboratory and reported here as scientific investigations are reported in archives—a new departure in philosophical methods of some importance.——From L. W. Schmidt we have the first instalment of an important work edited by F. Strehlke, 'Goethe's Briefe.' This is an index to the poet's correspondence, with source, date, place, and first words, and the volume will also include some unpublished letters. The arrangement is alphabetical as regards the person addressed, about whom enough is told to indicate the nature or occasion of the correspondence. Not less than twenty-two pages are occupied with a mere enumeration of the sources.——From B. Westermann & Co. come two volumes of part 1 ("Schiller") of 'Schiller and Goethe as Judged by their Contemporaries' (*im Urtheile ihrer Zeitgenossen*), put forth by the publishing house of Bernhard Schlicke, in Leipzig, and edited with the greatest care and patience by Julius W. Braun. It is a simple, uncommented arrangement, year by year, of the criticisms of the periodical press of Germany, with a scrupulous regard to the accuracy of the text, even to the orthography of the time. Goethe will fill part 2, and a Lessing is to follow. No one can deny the instructiveness of such a record as this, in which we watch the growth at once of reputations and of criticism, and learn in an impressive way the chronology of the literary productions of the three geniuses in question.——F. W. Christern sends us specimen pages of Paul Lacroix's 'XVIIme Siècle—Lettres, Sciences et Arts: France, 1590–1700,' a profusely and splendidly illustrated work of biography and antiquarianism, with seventeen full-page chromolithographs setting off the 300 woodcuts in the text. It is supplementary to the volume on the same century published two years ago, the two forming, in the author's plan, a connecting link between his well-known and highly-esteemed work on the manners and customs of the Middle Age period, and that on France in the eighteenth century.——'Les Actrices de Paris' is the rather catchpenny title of a subscription work now appearing in Paris in weekly parts, each of which is to contain four pages of biography from the pen of one of the many dramatic and musical critics of France, adorned by a vignette in which scenes from the chief successes of the fair histrionic artist are to be commemorated. With each part also goes a portrait of the subject of the sketch, etched by M. E. de Liphart. Among the ladies who are to sit for their portraits are the chief actresses of the Comédie-Française and the chief lyric artists, including Mmes. Carvalho, Nilsson, Patti, Krauss, Jeanne Granier, Judic, and Miss Van Zandt. The specimen portrait we have seen is of Mme. Nilsson; it is a hard, cold etching from a photograph, and is altogether lacking in charm. The vignette is graceful.——The far more important and critically valuable 'Comédiens et Comédiennes' of M. Francisque Sarcey is now well on in its second series. The latest number is devoted to M. St.-Germain of the Gymnase, one of the finest comic actors of Paris—perhaps the finest outside the walls of the Théâtre-Français. His portrait is here etched by M. Gaucherel.——The other series which M. Jouaust publishes, 'Acteurs et Actrices du temps passé,' is also getting on, and portraits on copper and in words have already appeared of Baron, Grandval, Sarrazin, Poisson, and of Mmes. Le Couvreur, Quinault, Raisin, Duclos, and Champmeslé. It is a useful and entertaining work, although it has far less authority than M. Sarcey's.

—Both the *Century* and *Harper's* for February join in the celebration of the hundredth anniversary of Daniel Webster's birth, the one by a general article (by Professor W. C. Wilkin-

son, of Rochester), and the other by personal recollections, contributed by Mr. John H. B. Latrobe, of Baltimore. Mr. Latrobe's first meeting with Webster occurred in the winter of 1830-31, and all his intercourse with him sprang from their professional relations, so that his narrative, which, short as it is, abounds in interesting anecdotes, has no political bearing whatever. It consists mainly of the impressions made by the social *abandon* of a lawyer and statesman whose fame was of the solidest, with incidental glimpses of his manner of preparing himself for a trial. Professor Wilkinson, on the other hand, who, for aught that appears, may never have seen Webster, pictures the extraordinary hold he acquired upon the generation of which Mr. Latrobe is a lingering representative, and then, acknowledging the sudden and complete ruin of his reputation wrought by his 7th of March speech, asks some one to explain what he calls "the case," the "remarkable" case, and evidently, in the writer's mind, the hard case. A clergyman and a moralist, however, might excusably see nothing mysterious or unjust in Webster's fate. Bluntly but truthfully put, his last public act was that of a political gambler, whose ambition to be President, long insensibly wasting his moral fibre, at last sapped the professional conscience of the "expounder of the Constitution," and led him to give his sanction to an act not more shocking to the humanity of the new North than it was objectionable to any one who judged it from a purely legal and constitutional standpoint. We may be surprised and grieved that so great a man could "give himself away"; but the motive was sufficient, and our history is full of instances of self-abasement and mortification caused by the Presidential mania.

"The bubble floats before, the spectre stalks behind."

That is "the case," and it was already an old case when Webster exemplified it afresh. What made his downfall so startling was the revelation it gave of the growth of anti-slavery feeling, and the fact that his adhesion to the Fugitive Slave Law was, however much feared, unexpected—incredible. On this point Mr. Oliver Johnson has just made public, in a letter to the Boston *Herald*, a fact, derived in confidence from the late Joshua R. Giddings, which sheds a flood of light on "the case." Some time before March, 1850, Mr. Webster communicated to Mr. Giddings, through the late George Ashmun, of Massachusetts, the brief (such a one, doubtless, as Mr. Latrobe describes) of a speech *in opposition* to the Fugitive Slave Law, with the inquiry whether it "would satisfy the anti-slavery sentiment of the North." Of course he was told it would, and he was even fortified with historical references by Mr. Giddings, whose anxiety about his course was completely allayed. The speech actually delivered, as every one knows, was calculated for the other side of Mason and Dixon's line. We commend to Mr. Wilkinson Mr. Cabot Lodge's judgment of Webster in the current *Atlantic*.

—The most important paper in the *Century* is Mr. Edward Atkinson's "Significant Aspects of the Atlanta Exposition," in which Senator Hammond, of South Carolina, famous for his designation of Northern workingmen as "mudsills," is exhumed to show the economic infatuation of Southern slaveholders as to the dependence of the North and the rest of the world on Southern cotton, and the effect of converting the slave into a free laborer. Mr. Atkinson is able to quote most felicitously the testimony of two grandsons of John C. Calhoun, that if he and his associates had had their knowledge from experience of the negro, "there would have been neither slavery nor war." A glance at the cotton machinery in particular (though the exhibition was "neither an international nor a cotton exposition in the ordinary sense of the term"); some statistics of the mixed as opposed to the "all-cotton" planting, with an extract from the writer's pamphlet advocating the former in 1861; a hint of the new era for fine spinning from the roller-gin superseding the saw-gin in the treatment of the green-seed or common cotton of commerce; and the correction of some social and sentimental errors in the intercourse of Northerners and Southerners, form the bulk of Mr. Atkinson's rational discourse. In *Harper's* there are some attractive portraits of the French political leaders of the present time. Mr. Bishop, in his second paper on Mexico, praises the state educational and charitable establishments, and the native art. Mr. G. P. Lathrop depicts some of the obvious features of Philadelphia life and customs, and devotes one line to the University of Pennsylvania. Mr. John Fiske gives us another chapter from his presumable popular history of the United States, "The Romance of the Spanish and French Explorers." Of La Salle he concludes: "America will in the future revere him as one of the chief among her early heroes, and mankind will not refuse him that meed of praise which is accorded to those that endure to the end." We have before us a circular issued by the Chicago Historical Society proposing a joint celebration at New Orleans, by the historical societies of the Mississippi basin, of La Salle's discovery of the mouth of the Mississippi on April 9, 1682; and a petition asking Congress to associate itself with the occasion by a representative delegation and otherwise. The request seems eminently proper, as Congress has already employed the historian, Pierre Margry, to make a collection of historical documents pertaining to La Salle and his prodigious achievements.

—If Bismarck reads the *Atlantic Monthly*, he will be interested in an account of himself given in the February number by Mr. Herbert Tuttle. Mr. Tuttle first saw the German statesman about ten years ago, and the encounter was interesting, as it afforded "a singular illustration of the nervousness which may be bred in the strongest natures by the constant presence of known though invisible dangers." It was at the close of a session of the Reichstag, when Mr. Tuttle happened to hurry down the stairs just before the adjournment, and to "shoot out somewhat abruptly through a public door, just as the Chancellor emerged from an adjoining private entrance, alone and busy with his thoughts." As he saw Mr. Tuttle, "he gave an involuntary start, and seemed almost to shrink back within the passage, but recovered himself instantly, of course, and moved on." The explanation of this start suggested by Mr. Tuttle is that the Prince had the risk of assassination constantly before his mind, and "the recollection of past perils and the apprehension of others, certain though hidden, would not make a brave man timid, but they would make him watchful and suspicious." He thinks that the plan of blowing his brains out on the battlefield, had Sadowa been lost, attributed to Bismarck by a popular legend, was "worthy of him," and "not improbable"; but whether this is so seems to be of less consequence when we learn that the Prince has himself stated that "his more reasonable purpose was to flee to America in case of disaster, and found a new existence this side of the Atlantic," where he would have had a better chance of growing up with the country than Germany could possibly have afforded him in his fallen state. "What a field of speculation," says Mr. Tuttle, "is opened by the thought of so illustrious an exile! What a 'commotion' would have been caused among the crude triflers of American politics if this martial figure had stalked upon the scene with helmet and sabre, and cavalry boots!"

—The second instalment of "Studies in the South" gives, in a picture of a Louisiana negro planter, a suggestion of a type hitherto undreamt of in the South, or for that matter anywhere in the world. He is described as a man in middle life, the son of an African prince or chief, who was captured and sold to traders and brought to America as a slave. Here the father married a young woman of like origin and blood; so that the planter seems to have been of a pure negro strain, though born here. When he found himself free at the end of the war, he had nothing. He went to work as a teamster, and laid the foundation of his fortune by the purchase of a mule. He was evidently a man of great natural capacity and shrewdness, and had the white man's art of making others work for him, and getting the utmost out of them. He knew when to make innovations and when to adopt the practices common among his neighbors. He "saved manure," which is mentioned as having been a thing unheard of before his time, and also introduced great economies by producing as many things in the way of supplies and tools on his own land as possible. He was always ready to pay a little more than the usual wages for a little more than the usual work. Altogether the type is indistinguishable from that of the shrewd, saving, "go-ahead" white man. More curious than all the rest, he was a reading man, and his conversation, as reported by Mr. Harrison, or whoever is the author of these sketches, shows plenty of traces of a very original turn of mind. He had some familiarity with Greek literature through translations, and especially Plato. His study of Plato had led him to the conclusion, which many better Grecians have probably secretly come to without the courage to avow their opinions, that while Socrates was a very sensible man, Plato "talked too much. If he had a big thing to talk about, he talked all the time, and if it was a little thing, he talked just the same." We regret to be obliged to add that the climax is capped by a comparison of Plato to "one of those newspaper men," in whom this negro philosopher thinks he detects the same lack of a sense of rhetorical proportion. He makes the droll suggestion that a meeting between Socrates, Lincoln, and Carlyle would result in "more fun than ever was in the world at one time." Extracts are given also from the conversation of another negro planter of a lower type, which are very instructive as to the relations existing in parts of the South between a certain kind of minister of the Gospel and his congregation:

"After supper the woman went away with the baby, and as we rose from the table I saw a double-barrelled shot-gun standing in the corner of the room, and inquired whether there was much game in that part of the country. 'Dat ain't fuh no game. Dat's fuh dem damned niggah preachahs.' 'What's the matter with the preachers?' 'S'pose I want 'em comin' 'roun hyah to see my wife, when I's 'way from home?'"

The writer has something to say about the use of the term "Bourbon" in the South, the word having no longer, according to him, among the Southerners, any distinct signification: "It is applied indiscriminately by all classes of politicians to anybody who differs from them. It is there a convenient though empty epithet or name of reproach. Every politician insists that his party is the party of progress, of improvement—the representative and embodiment of the only ideas by which society can exist or civilization be maintained; and he is of course entitled to stigmatize his opponents as Bourbons." This can hardly be true, however, except in the more remote and unlettered regions. It is

impossible to imagine a Virginia Readjuster denounced as a Bourbon by a Bourbon.

—*Lippincott's* for February opens with an illustrated article called "On the Gulf Coast," the writer of which advocates the division of the State of Florida between Georgia and Alabama, for the sake of the material interests of all concerned. He admits, however, that there is little chance of anything of the kind being done, and the plan may probably be taken simply as "suggestive" in character, like that sometimes made of separating the city of New York from the State, to solve the problem of municipal government, or dividing up Utah among the adjoining Territories, to break up polygamy among the Mormons. Mary Etta Smith contributes a story, called "Grant's Luck," which deals with what even the wicked Byron in "Don Juan" admitted to be a dangerous subject. We will do no more to excite the reader's curiosity with regard to the tale, for it is hardly necessary to say to any one who knows the invariably pure character of the short magazine love story that nothing really improper is permitted to soil the pages of *Lippincott*. "Our Monthly Gossip" contains a few brief remarks on "Women as Listeners," signed A. E., in the course of which the writer makes the following observation, the combined truth and sarcasm of which inevitably suggest that A. E. is a woman herself: "Woman is primarily a being who listens. She has in these days lost much of her original teachableness, but she has not yet entirely discarded the appearance of being teachable. In her capacity for hearing without obeying lies her true power." Mr. Felix L. Oswald contributes an article on animals, of more than usual interest and curiosity. There is no fancy in imaginative literature more full of pleasingly mysterious suggestions than that of a secret of animal life possessed by man. Lovers of Hawthorne, who have dreamed over the 'Marble Faun,' with its half implication of an unrevealed tie between human and animal life, may be struck with Mr. Oswald's remarks about the Austrian ratcatcher, who "will lock himself up in a stable and after an hour or so come out with a bag full of mice, live or dead, at the option of his employer." The story of the Pied Piper, the legend of Orpheus, throw a sort of poetic light around such facts as these, which even the acceptance of the law of evolution cannot wholly dim or dissipate.

—There is a marked and interesting difference between the library systems of the cities of Boston and New York, a difference which, if it continues, will be still more interesting to our great-grandchildren. The Boston Public Library, following the old-fashioned advice to kill two birds with one stone, meets—with its upper and its lower hall, its unstinted supply of fiction and its wealth of learned books—the wants of all classes of the community at once. The New York system, on the other hand, represents the modern method of division of labor and adaptation of special means to special ends. Its Free Library, to which we called attention last week, for those who cannot afford to pay anything for their reading; its Mercantile and Apprentices' Libraries for those who can pay, but still want for the most part entertaining literature; its Astor Library, for those who wish to study and do not read for amusement; and its Lenox Library for those who do not care exactly to study, but merely to refer to or look at a book, or whose study can without inconvenience be confined to three days in the week—these differentiations take the place of the one heterogeneous collection of the rival city. Boston is more democratic—every citizen has equal rights; New York is more aristocratic—it has different arrangements for different classes of society. Boston is like the country store, with a little of everything for the whole village; New York like the shops of a city, with their limited objects. The Boston Public Library may in time be obliged, skipping the second stage of evolution, to come to the third discrete synthesis, when it will resemble the great Parisian *Bon Marché* or *Printemps*, where everything is collected under one roof and one head, but more carefully divided into departments, which are none the less separate and independent because the division walls are not visible, and which often are separated by a wall or by a story. If Boston should adopt the Chicago plan for a library building, it would be able to classify both its books and its readers most effectually, and to combine the cheapness and efficiency of one organization with a more exact adaptation of supply to demand. But New York must go on in its own way. A rich family and a rich man have provided for the upper classes, intellectually speaking. The middle classes provide for themselves. The poor have too long remained unthought of.

—The climate and productions of Florida, as the southernmost territory of the United States, will probably long continue to be subjects of interest to the class of tourists who look southward, whether for health or pleasure, with the approach of winter. Mr. George M. Barbour's 'Florida, for Tourists, Invalids, and Settlers' (Appletons), and Mr. Samuel C. Upham's 'Notes from Sunland' (Claxton, Remsen & Co.) give some addition to our knowledge of the country as regards its cultivation and state of settlement, especially in its southern portions, which still remain for most travellers practically an outlying territory. Mr. Barbour makes a useful distinction in speaking of the climate, or climates, of Florida. Its north and south range, from the northern boundary to the southern extremity of the peninsula, is about 415 miles (as against 405 for England, between the Lizard and Berwick-on-Tweed), a range that is wide enough for considerable climatic differences; and it is speaking indiscriminately to call either the climate, productions, or soil of a region so extended in latitude a unit. The mainland of Florida extends from about 25° to 31° north. Within these limits Mr. Barbour distinguishes "three Floridas," a northern, a middle or "semi-tropical" zone, extending from lat. 28° to 30°, and a southern or "tropical" zone, extending beyond the furthest southward limit of frost, which varies considerably with different years, but may be taken at about lat. 28°. The resorts best known to Northerners, St. Augustine and Jacksonville, are in or near the northern zone, where the climate is not unfrequently severe in the winter; and much disappointment has been felt by invalids at finding the ranges of temperature in northern Florida nearly as great as in the Middle States (10° to 104° Fahr. at Pensacola, with monthly variations of 33° to 37° during the winter months). The summer temperatures throughout the State are very trying, and the only advantage in the winter climate north of lat. 28° is that the ranges of temperature are less extreme than in the North. Even in the "middle zone" of Florida there is no sure exemption from killing frosts; no crops are really safe, except such as may be grown to better advantage in a higher latitude. When, however, the settler has crossed the frost line, he finds himself in a region where many of the tropical fruits can be profitably cultivated, in particular the orange. Mr. Upham expresses his conviction that Florida will, within no great number of years, "supply the Mediterranean ports with better oranges than can possibly be raised in that country." But his enthusiasm is clearer than his syntax, being hardly borne out by the facts when he says of the Manatee River region, in lat. 27°–30°, "Our climate is far superior to that of any other part of Florida, and I do not think I hazard much in saying, to that of any other part of the habitable globe." All that can justly be said in praise of the Florida climate is that it is not so cold as that of the North, and that, consequently, there is a more limited range for the racking variations of temperature which occur. But it cannot be too often or distinctly stated that racking variations of temperature are the characteristic feature of the American climate in every part of the United States except upon the Pacific slope, and only upon a narrow belt of that. All other parts of the country, whether North or South, have climates that are highly variable as contrasted with any of the climates of Western Europe or other Gulf-stream (island) climates, or with those of the Pacific islands. The real value of Florida for invalids is not so much in its climate (though one may certainly escape from the cold in its southern regions) as in the fact that it is the only country where an American can escape from extreme cold without expatriating himself.

—The irrigation of large tracts of land in some of the southern counties of California has produced malarial diseases to such an alarming extent as to present a serious problem in connection with the further settlement of that region. Most of the lands in Fresno, Tulare, and Kern counties that have been subjected to irrigation are of the class frequently termed desert lands; without irrigation they are utterly valueless for agricultural operations, but with it their productivity is astonishing. Since the latter fact has been demonstrated there has begun a large immigration into the counties named, and extensive irrigation works have been constructed at heavy expense. The possibility of chills and fever was not thought of in connection with the sandy soil and dry climate of the region until the malarial symptoms made their appearance. The progress of the ague for the last two years has been rapid and general, and, as irrigation has comparatively as yet merely begun, the future is dismal to contemplate. The inhabitants of the Brazos bottom are no worse off than those of the irrigated lands of California are likely to be. There is no exemption from the attacks, it being a notable fact that the Chinese, who are to a considerable extent employed as laborers, do not enjoy the immunity which attaches to the negroes in the swamps of the South. Various suggestions of remedies have been made, one idea being that if a system of thorough drainage should be combined with that for irrigation, it would mitigate the evil. Some benefit seems to be derived from having rooms used as dormitories at a considerable elevation from the ground, and huts raised on long poles have been tried, while one wealthy vine-grower has built a three-story dwelling. Others seek immunity by living in villages at a distance from their farms and the irrigating ditches; and perhaps this practice will become universal. As showing that the question is not a local one, confined to the counties named, it may be mentioned that the same experiment was tried, with similar results, in the county of Yolo, a hundred miles north of San Francisco. A large ditch led the waters of a small stream across a number of farms, and in a few years ague became common, families began moving away, and, as irrigation was not indispensable to cultivation in this instance, the ditch was finally closed.

—The Geographical Society of Bremen have published a circular reasserting their belief in

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the truth of the claim of one of their members, Capt. Eduard Dallmann, to have been the first to land upon Wrangell Land, and so, in a certain sense, to be its discoverer; and alleging that the late surveys of Lieut. Berry in the U. S. S. *Rodgers* tend to establish the truth of Dallmann's narrative. The latter was the subject of comment in the *Nation* at the time it appeared (see No. 826, p. 304, 1881), and of no little investigation by geographers on the Pacific Coast. The sum of the arguments at present submitted in his favor seems to be that he might have been mistaken in his identification of musk-ox horns reported by him to have been purchased on the Siberian coast; that a bay does exist near the southeast end of Wrangell Island as he asserted; that his instruments might have been bad, and his positions erroneous; that the map illustrating his account was not made by him, and was erroneously constructed; and that his twice seeing Plover Island was no worse a blunder than that of Kellett, who saw it once. On the other hand, it may be recalled that the log of the voyage is not forthcoming; that no report of the landing was made to his owners in Honolulu, nor to any of the numerous whaling masters and traders with whom he was associated at that port; that his officers on a similar voyage in the following year never heard of the alleged landing; that in that year Wrangell Land was seen and reported to the U. S. Hydrographic office by Capt. Long, and was the subject of interested comment by the navigators of the Arctic fleet and the geographical world, the discovery being widely published, and then for the first time definitely placed on the charts; that during all this time, and for twelve years subsequently, no claim was advanced by Dallmann to the discovery; that his account of his voyage shows a complete correspondence with the old and erroneous charts on which a bay was indicated and the land laid down in an erroneous latitude similar to that adopted by Dallmann; that the bearings of Plover Island, and the course alleged to have been sailed, would have taken him over dry land; that Plover Island does not exist as an island, but was sketched from a view over thirty miles of ice by Kellett, and is part of Wrangell Island; that Dallmann pretends to have seen it within a few miles, and in a sea free from ice, and, according to the map, to have made an impossible passage between it and Wrangell Island. When all these facts are taken into consideration, it is clear that the story is not yet cleared from doubt. Dallmann is at present in Siberia, and his return cannot but be awaited with interest both by geographers willing to suspend judgment and the Society which has so generously defended his cause in his absence.

—It is gratifying to compare the condition of the Harvard College Observatory a few years since—in which its activity was so curtailed that it was prepared to do little but slowly accumulate observations, the reduction and publication of which bade fair to block for a long time the efforts of any one who should assume its directorship—with its present flourishing condition, the old observations being nearly all issued, and all the current work so kept in hand that it is ready for publication at the earliest moment. All this has been effected since Prof. Pickering became the director of the establishment, and the Observatory has risen thus rapidly to equality with the first two or three in the country. The Director's Annual Report (laid before the Board of Overseers January 11) shows that three instruments—the great equatorial, the meridian circle, and the meridian photometer—have been kept actively at work during the past year, the latter instrument having already completed the measurement in three nights of the light of all the naked-eye stars visible in latitude forty-two degrees north, and having proved so satisfactory that a large one is being constructed with object-glasses four inches in diameter, to be used in measuring the light of variables and their comparison stars, as also for determining the light of the brighter asteroids. It will be remembered that the particular line of work chosen for the Observatory by its present director was that of astronomical photometry—a subject previously much neglected, and which he has followed up with an enthusiasm to which may be traced the inception of much work in the same direction abroad. One of the most important advances which Prof. Pickering has effected is his method of photometric observation of the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites. More than one hundred and fifty of these eclipses have already been so observed. The search for celestial objects having singular spectra has been kept up, as well as the photometric study of a number of variable stars. In coöperation with the *Science Observer* and Lord Crawford's Observatory at Dun Echt, near Aberdeen, the Harvard College Observatory has taken an important part in the early distribution, in Europe and America, of circulars relating to the comets recently discovered, defraying the cost of telegrams, and furnishing the necessary observations and computations. Observations with the meridian circle have been made on two hundred and fifty days; the time-service is active as heretofore in the distribution of standard time; the thirteenth volume of the 'Annals' is in process of publication, and eleven papers (mostly astronomical) have appeared during the year as communications from officers of the Observatory. The significance of all this work, and the way in which it is done, are not slowly recognized abroad, as evinced by notices and reviews in *Nature*, in *Copernicus*, in the *Observatory*, and in the *Vierteljahrsschrift der Astronomischen Gesellschaft*.

—The subject of suicide is treated at length by Dr. James J. O'Dea in a volume which will form a useful pendant to Prof. Morselli's essay recently noticed in this journal. Its title ('Suicide: Studies on its Philosophy, Causes, and Prevention,' New York: Putnams) indicates the scope of the discussion, which is rather historical and literary than scientific, though Dr. Farr's figures, among others, are cited, and a number of tables and diagrams are given. Dr. O'Dea has preserved some of the last letters of suicides, which are used in a discussion of insanity as related to suicide; and the testimony of Mr. McJeffrey (p. 270) opens up another curious by-way of the subject. It is to the effect that some animals may intentionally take their own lives. "South American sheep," he says, "have a habit of destroying themselves if they are deprived of sufficient food, or are exposed to excessive cold. They start out in immense droves at the top of their speed," and, plunging into deep ravines or rivers, are destroyed. The author adds, but without giving authority, that "suicides of this character occur among horses and dogs also." It must be presumed that the proof-reader was fresh from this passage when he allowed the odd erratum in the index (p. 317): "Cats, suicide of," to stand, instead of "Cato, suicide of." Dr. O'Dea's book, if not an original discussion in the sense that Morselli's is, will yet be found for the most part interesting reading. The chapters on the prevention of suicide are perhaps the least satisfactory, as the rules prescribed are mostly generalities equally applicable to the pursuit of health, long life, or good digestion.

—A neat little volume called 'What Shall we Act? or, A Hundred Plays from which to Choose; with Hints on Scene-Painting, etc.,' has recently been written by (Mr., Mrs., or Miss) M. E. James, and published by G. Bell & Sons, London (New York: Scribner & Welford). No two persons would ever agree on precisely the same hundred plays as the best for amateur acting, but the choice here made is good enough. It does not include either "Box and Cox" or "Trial by Jury," both of which one has fairly a right to expect; and it does include "The Fool's Revenge," the "School for Scandal," and the "Lady of Lyons," plays in which it is simply hopeless for any amateur to be even tolerable. We remark that the best adaptation of Scribe and Legouvé's "Bataille de Dames" is Mr. Charles Reade's "Ladies' Battle," and not that made under the same title by the late T. W. Robertson (p. 60); and the "Babes in the Wood" is by Tom Taylor, not "John Taylor, Esq." (p. 18). The only American play in the whole hundred is "The Coming Woman," as the author chooses to call the amusing satire known to us as "The Spirit of '76." About one-third of the hundred are adaptations from the French, although their origin is rarely recorded. The preliminary Hints to Beginners, and advice as to make-up, are well considered. The notes on scene-painting are of less value; it seems to us that it is best for amateurs not to make any attempt at so difficult an art: any audience will accept the frank use of screens and hangings. The author's method is to give a slight but sufficient analysis of the action of each play, with prefatory notes as to the time and scenery. Thus, the adaptation of Scribe's "Zoé, ou l'amant prêté," is introduced as follows: "'Loan of a Lover,' a Vaudeville in One Act, by J. R. Planché, Esq. Time in representation, one hour and twenty minutes. Period, early part of this century, or the present. Scene, gardens bordering a canal, near Utrecht." Then comes a list of the characters, with notes on the costumes. A similar plan has been adopted by the compiler of the 'Guide to Selecting Plays; or, Manager's Companion, giving a complete description of 1,500 Pieces, arranged according to the requirements of any company' (New York: S. French & Son, 1881), a pamphlet of 78 double-column pages. Here the plays are classified according to the number of characters, beginning with two-part pieces and ascending to dramas and tragedies with thirteen characters and more. Of course the analysis of the plot is far briefer than in 'What Shall we Act?' but it is quite sufficient. The same pamphlet also contains useful lists of plays having a French character, a Scotchman, or an Irishman; of plays suitable for the army and for the navy; of "temperance" plays; of "favorite old comedies"; and of plays in which there are only male characters. The proof-reading is very careless.

—For the English series known as the "Parchment Library," Mr. Andrew Lang has edited 'The Poems of Edgar Allan Poe' (London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.; New York: W. J. Widdleton). He has prefixed an essay on Poe's poetry which may be cordially recommended to all who enjoy the charm of beautiful English, or who, liking Poe's "very valueless verses," as Mr. Henry James, jr., once called them, are yet a little at a loss to define the cause or the limits of their liking. Mr. Lang begins by renouncing the consideration of Poe's career as a man, to consider only his work as a poet. He pauses, however, long enough to say that "Poe wanted as a man what his poetry also lacks; he wanted humanity." And again: "Poe's verse is so far from being a criticism of life, that it is often, in literal earnest, a criticism of death." With much insight, Mr. Lang considers Poe's theory

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of poetry, his choice of melancholy, as "the most legitimate of the poetical tones," his ignoring of all conceptions of duty and truth; and he declares that Poe "deliberately discards *sanity*; he deliberately chooses *fantasy* for his portion." However temperately expressed, this criticism is surely destructive enough for the fiercest contemner of Poe; but Mr. Lang proceeds to set forth the solid grounds on which Poe's fame may rest securely. "We shall never appreciate Poe if we keep comparing him to men of stronger and more human natures. We must take him as one of the voices, almost the 'shadow of a voice,' that sound in the temple of song and fill a little hour with music. He is not like Homer, or Scott, or Shakspere, or Molière—a poet that men can live with always by the sea, in the hills, in the market-place. He is the singer of rare hours of languor, when the soul is vacant of the pride of life and inclined to listen, as it were, to the echo of a lyre from behind the hills of death." In short, the charm of Poe's poetry is, in great measure, "the incommunicable and inexpressible charm of melodious words." Moreover, "as his life sank into poverty, bereavement, misfortune, and misery, his verse more and more approached the vagueness of music, appealing often to mere sensation rather than to any emotion which can be stated in words." And further, "we cannot define the nature of the witchery by which the most difficult task of romantic art was achieved. Poe did succeed, as is confessed by the wide acceptance of poems that cannot be defended, if any one chooses to attack them. They teach nothing, they mean little; their melody may be triumphantly explained as the result of a metrical trick. But, 'Ne faict ce tour qui veut.' The trick was one that only Poe could play."

—The third Philharmonic concert in Brooklyn on Saturday night presented a striking contrast to the majority of these entertainments, at which the modern element is usually predominant. The programme contained Haydn's "Surprise" Symphony, Mozart's Concerto in A major (No. 488, Köchel), and Beethoven's Fourth Symphony. Mr. Thomas has no superior in this or any other country as an arranger of programmes, and it is very seldom indeed that any improvement could be suggested in his schemes. But in the present case we humbly submit that one of the elements that should always be taken into consideration was overlooked—the element of variety. The three compositions performed are all characterized by a calm, serene, and dispassionate spirit that tends to become monotonous if sustained for two hours. This defect could have been easily avoided by choosing the third or fifth symphony instead of the quiet and placid fourth. It is not necessary to have turbulent and heaven-storming passion in every composition, but some agitation and excitement are called for at every concert, which otherwise becomes as unsatisfactory as a drama would be without any conflict of motives. The Mozart concerto, moreover, is a decidedly uninteresting composition. The theme of the first movement is fresh and attractive, but all the rest is soporific. Not even Mr. Joseffy's refined phrasing and smooth execution could invest it with any charm; and although the thoroughly modern cadenza of his own which he introduced seemed as much out of place as many of the modern additions to mediæval buildings that are to be seen in Europe, it was yet fully as good as anything in the concerto. We are among the warmest admirers of Mozart's works for the stage; but we insist that his compositions for the pianoforte are thoroughly antiquated and should be allowed to repose in peace. The time was when they were justly considered beautiful, but music (especially pianoforte music) is such a progressive art that this can no longer be said of them. We should prefer to hear Mr. Joseffy in Brahms's new concerto, which has lately been so favorably received in several German cities. It is a well-known fact among musicians that the most delicate and critical form of composition is a string quartet, since the piano does not here lend its aid, like charity, in covering up a multitude of sins. The same is true of orchestral compositions in which the strings are predominant, and the wind instruments with their more powerful waves do not drown such trifling inaccuracies as may occur. In all the works interpreted at this concert the strings did play the leading rôle; and it is high praise to state that Mr. Thomas's orchestra was just as effective here as in its rendering of modern compositions, in which it has no superior. Mr. Joseffy, it should be remarked, was recalled, and played as an encore an arrangement of his own of a Bach prelude, whereas at the public rehearsal on the preceding afternoon he had played some "Songs without Words" by Mendelssohn.

W. R. GREG.

Miscellaneous Essays. By W. R. Greg. London: Trübner & Co. 1882.

Mr. Greg's death leaves a sensible gap in the ranks of English literature, and the publication of his miscellaneous essays gives a fair opportunity for expressing our estimate of a writer who has exerted considerable and deserved influence over English opinion. Mr. Greg's turn of mind led him to oppose many of the prevailing ideals and opinions of his day; and an author who took up the attitude of Cassandra no doubt thought that his forte lay in the originality of his speculations. But this was not so. Mr. Greg's intellect, though acute and vigorous, was preëminently wanting in freshness and versatility. He had not a touch of that talent, traceable in every line of Bagehot, which enables a theorist to put well-worn truths in a new point of view. Hence he displays little skill in the analysis of character. The "Great Twin Brethren" is an elaborate comparison between Louis Napoleon and Mr. Disraeli, written some time before 1870. Every statement which it contains is true, and worth consideration. But the similarities in the career of the two distinguished adventurers on which Mr. Greg dwells are patent, and it is difficult to point out a sentence in which he throws a ray of light on the character of either the French Emperor or the English statesman. It is further apparent that "Cassandra" was in this case no prophet, and failed to perceive the singular incapacity for actual government which ultimately brought Louis Napoleon to the catastrophe of Sedan, and turned Lord Beaconsfield's last ministry into something little better than a splendid failure.

Nor, again, did Mr. Greg possess anything like the extensive knowledge or the capacity for sympathy which gave for a short time such commanding influence to the author of the 'Essay on Liberty.' We are convinced that Mr. Greg's natural powers were in some respects considerably greater than John Mill's; but it is perfectly clear that Mill tried (sometimes not very successfully) to gain a width of view which Mr. Greg neither aimed at nor, we may suppose, wished to obtain. Though, again, no man tried more earnestly to conduct controversy in a fair and candid spirit, Mr. Greg betrayed in all his utterances on political or social subjects an unmistakable bias. He was intentionally a fair advocate, but the spirit of judicial calmness which pervades the writings of such a man as Thirlwall is quite alien to the trenchant, forcible polemics of an author who, not by interest but by force of position and natural bent of mind, was "retained" through life as the representative of capitalists. Whatever the form or the title of Mr. Greg's political writings, he in fact always wrote from the point of view of a manufacturer. It were the grossest injustice to compare Mr. Greg to Gradgrind or Bounderby, but it is not unjust to say that he saw with the utmost clearness just those points in the position and the aspirations of artisans on which men like Gradgrind and Bounderby delighted to dwell. The ignorance, the gullibility, the perversity of workingmen were never really out of his thoughts. All his writings might have been dated from Coketown, and his views (as, for instance, when he identifies the whole body of artisans with the admirers of Dr. Kenealy) were not a little distorted by the smoke of the factory.

But the limitation, and even the distortion, of Mr. Greg's outlook on life were not wholly a loss either to himself or to his readers. He gained as a controversialist by the honest dogmatism which enabled him to put forth without hesitation and with perfect sincerity the strong points of the case which he undertook to argue. Moreover, just because he was not haunted by that desire to sympathize even with opponents which is the disease of many modern thinkers, he was able to see with extraordinary clearness the one side of any question on which his attention was fixed. Any person inclined to make an idol of the intelligent artisan was certain to benefit greatly from a study of Mr. Greg's works. There an enthusiast would learn that English operatives had, to say the least, their fair share of original sin as well as a good number of acquired vices of their own, and that any scheme of policy based on the notion of uneducated Englishmen being by some mysterious law of Providence more virtuous, more wise, and more just than their educated countrymen, rested on delusion, and was, therefore, doomed to failure. This lesson is, one might think, a very simple and obvious one, but it was a lesson which at different periods of Mr. Greg's life, and notably in 1866 and 1867, needed to be forced home on the attention of reformers. If ever there was a man created to impress this lesson upon the apathy and the ignorance of the public, this man was Mr. Greg. He was clearly one of those natures that delight in conflict; he felt it his duty to challenge all the loose thinkers and wordy sentimentalists of the day to combat, and, this duty being to him a pleasure, he performed it with untiring vigor and unceasing zest. To say that he always came off successful in the fray would be a good deal more than is true, but in isolated encounters he constantly had the best of his adversaries; and if he not unfrequently failed of achieving that complete victory which was to be expected from his logical prowess, his failure arose from the provoking fact, which keen and honest logicians find one of the most surprising of phenomena, that lax thinkers and enthusiastic sentimentalists do occasionally, by irregular, and therefore reprehensible, intellectual methods, get hold of truths which have escaped the attention of men of sense. Mr. Greg, unless we are greatly mistaken, throughout the war of Secession held with the South. There is no doubt that he had, like hundreds of other acute and, as far as intention went, fair-minded Englishmen, an ample store of reasons for his belief that Jefferson Davis had made the South into a nation, and into a nation which could not be conquered. General Grant's armies supplied a practical confutation of Mr. Greg's theories, and proved, not exactly by methods of logic, that the sympathies rather than the reasons of English democrats and English artisans had led them nearer to the truth than thoughtful politicians.

This is not the only occasion on which Mr. Greg's political forecasts were not verified by events. To say this is, however, not really to detract greatly from his essential merits. Cassandra, we may be sure, was, in spite of tradition, quite as often wrong in her predictions as right. Tradition, nevertheless, has recorded only her successful prophecies, and tradition has dealt fairly and discreetly in the matter. A teacher is to be remembered not by the errors which he shares with thousands, but by the merits which are his own; and those who, like ourselves, see, as they think, clearly enough the restrictions of Mr. Greg's genius, are the more bound amply to acknowledge his sterling and conspicuous intellectual and, one may say, moral virtues as a controversialist. His strength lay in two characteristics: he never attempted to win his case by any other force than by the strength of his argument. Sarcasm, irony, humorous exaggeration, all the hundred modes of appealing to men's feelings rather than to their understandings, which have been employed profusely by authors as different as Carlyle, Matthew Arnold, and Newman, were utterly foreign to Mr. Greg's manner of dealing with his subject and with his readers. He might be, and in our judgment he was, greatly influenced in forming his opinions by a bias against modes of thought and feeling alien to his own; but he invariably defended his views by means of strict, careful argument. He placed before his readers the precise proposition which he intended to maintain, and then stated as clearly and tersely as he could the grounds on which he held it to be maintainable. This habit of direct, fair discussion had the immense advantage that it always forced even those who were not convinced by Mr. Greg's reasoning to reconsider carefully the grounds of their own dissent from it. He possessed, further, a rare capacity for discriminating between the different degrees in which his arguments carried satisfaction to his own mind. He could distinguish, and make it clear to his readers that he distinguished, between conclusions which he held to be certain, and those inferences which he believed to have in their favor but a slight amount of probability. In all spheres of inquiry the qualities possessed by Mr. Greg are of value, but they are of most value when applied to questions of religion or of theology, for these are the questions to which most men are specially prone to apply lax, incoherent, inconclusive modes of reasoning. Among all the writers who during the last thirty years have taken part in the theological discussions of the day, it would be scarcely possible to point to any single author except Mr. Greg who has not attempted to back up his theological or his anti-theological convictions by an appeal to feeling, to rhetoric, or to passion.

Moreover, by a piece of happy good fortune, Mr. Greg got rid of more than half his natural prejudices when he entered on that very field of inquiry in which ordinary thinkers find themselves most hampered by the distorting influence of a religious or a sceptical bias. The follies of the workingman, the false economy and the practical injustice of trades-unionists, have no connection whatever with speculations as to the immortality of the soul or the truth of the resurrection. Mr. Greg could discuss such topics with perfect calmness because he could, when thus engaged, dismiss from his mind all recollections of strikes and lock-outs. The result is that, though he was obviously deficient in religious or poetical imagination, though he could not pretend to be an accomplished theologian or a well-trained historian, he produced essays on topics of what may be fairly called divinity which every intelligent person can read with interest and profit. Their interest lies in the light which these perfectly calm and very sensible speculations concerning the "Enigmas of Life" throw upon opinions of candid laymen who are not tied down to belief in any special theological dogmas, and yet are not, and do not pretend to be, enthusiastic devotees of any form of agnosticism. One may fairly infer from the tone of Mr. Greg's views that he, and hundreds of English laymen with him, have become profoundly sceptical as to all the supernatural elements of the received creeds, and we may also infer that Mr. Greg (and in this we are well assured he represents an immense number of men who never give printed utterance to their opinions) was not, in the proper sense of the word, a convinced disbeliever in theology. He, clearly enough, did not look with any fervent hope on any of the different forms of positivism and humanitarianism, and felt as keenly as any orthodox apologist the weakness of a host of current sceptical arguments.

The value, as contrasted with the interest, of his theories on matters of religion consists mainly in their impressing on every one who studies his works the absolute necessity of placing clearly before one's mind the exact nature and limits of every problem which one wishes to solve. A student, for example, who reads the article on "The Prophetic Element in the Gospels" will not, in point of information, learn much which is not well known to every educated man. Such a student will not find, in our judgment, any lasting satisfaction in the suggestion thrown out by Mr. Greg as an explanation of the early belief in the fact of Christ's resurrection. But any careful reader will learn from his mode of treating the alleged prophecies of Christ what is the precise point at issue between Mr. Greg and his opponent, Mr. R. H. Hutton. Such a reader will also see what are the admissions which two fair disputants respectively feel themselves called upon to make, and may hence, by a little effort of thought, not only understand the nature and the limits of the matter in controversy, but also form for himself a fair conception of the considerations by reference to which the point in dispute ought to be decided. Mr. Greg has other merits on which, did space allow, we should be glad to dwell; but it is no small tribute that we pay to an habitual controversialist when we assert, as we do with great confidence, that the result of his labors has been to induce thousands of his countrymen to examine the burning questions of religion with the calmness, the fairness, and the good sense which most persons find it far easier to bring to the consideration of political or social problems than to the solution of theological perplexities.

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.—II.

Memoirs of Count Miot de Melito, 1788–1815. Edited by General Fleischmann. From the French, by Mrs. Cashel Hoey and Mr. John Lillie. 2 vols. London: Sampson Low & Co.; New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. 1881.

"'WHAT I have accomplished hitherto,' he said to his brothers and to a few general officers with whom he was on familiar terms, 'is nothing. There will be no repose for Europe until she is under one only head—an Emperor whose subalterns should be kings, who should distribute kingdoms among his lieutenants, making of one the King of Italy, giving Bavaria to another, raising a third to be Landamman of Switzerland, and a fourth to be Stadtholder of Holland, while all of them should hold places in the Imperial Household, with titles of Grand Cup-bearer, Grand Butler, Grand Equerry, Grand Huntsman, etc. It may be said that this plan would be an imitation of the empire of Germany, and that the idea is not a new one; but there is nothing absolutely new; political institutions do but revolve in a circle, and it is often necessary to return to what has been done before.'"

But what Napoleon failed to see, until it was too late to recede from his policy, was that the symbols and phrases he was prepared to use might not be adapted to cheat the imaginations of fools all over the world, and that the knaves whom he used as his instruments need not of necessity perceive that their interests were identical with his own. The invasion of Spain revealed that in his scheme of a European empire he had paid no heed to either of these considerations, and the consequence of the omission was his own overthrow.

The better part of Count Miot de Melito's second volume is taken up with a narrative of the events in Spain from the surrender of General Dupont's army at Baylen until the final expulsion of the French. The Count was the intimate friend and adviser of Napoleon's brother Joseph through all those stormy years, and his history shows that the most efficient ally which Wellington and the Spaniards had in effecting the expulsion of the French invaders was the gigantic selfishness of Napoleon himself. He could not endure that his tools should conceit themselves to be aught but the merest tools, and the better to keep them in their places he so broke up and divided the executive power that unity of action became impossible. King Joseph was titular King of Spain, but he had no authority over the troops who were supposed to be upholding his authority. The French marshals corresponded directly with Napoleon—nay, in order still further to guard against the possibility of encroachments on the fulness of his own supremacy, each marshal, with the troops under him, was declared independent of every other, and the range of his military operations limited to a particular province. Thus there was an Army of Portugal, an Army of the South, an Army of Catalonia, which not only did not, but were forbidden by their instructions to act in unison against the common enemy. The position of King Joseph himself was fraught with such unceasing and bitter humiliation that the wonder is that a man should have existed so destitute of dignity and self-respect as to be capable of enduring it. According to Count Miot de Melito, Joseph Bonaparte was a man of mild and amiable disposition, sincerely attached to those principles of equality and political liberty which had been proclaimed at the opening of the French Revolution, and in accepting the Spanish crown it was his desire and intention to establish himself in the hearts of his new subjects, and reign as a constitutional sovereign. Napoleon, of course, had far other ideas. He heaped scorn upon the notion that Joseph, as King of Spain, had any duties or any rights except to obey the orders of the Emperor, and live sumptuously in a palace at Madrid. The Emperor had conferred the right upon the understanding that the corresponding duty should be punctually performed. The following is the Count's picture of the situation of this miserable King, as he followed the march of his imperious brother to Madrid to avenge the defeat and capitulation of Baylen:

"As we approached Burgos, we crossed the field of battle on which the engagement of the 10th had taken place—it was covered with the bodies of the slain. A melancholy spectacle! yet it did not impress me so painfully as the appearance of the town when we entered it. Almost all the houses were deserted and plundered; the furniture was broken up and the fragments lay in the mud; one part of the town on the other side of the Arlanzon was in flames; a brutal soldiery were breaking doors and windows, and smashing everything that came in their way, consuming little and destroying much. The churches were sacked; the streets were choked with the dead and the dying; in fact, we witnessed all the horrors of an assault, although the town had made no defence! . . . We remained a fortnight at Burgos, and during our

stay I had time to become sick of horrors. We may date from this period the manifest moral change which took place in the French army. The resolution of abandoning the villages, and even the towns, to which the inhabitants had come, had resulted in the impossibility of procuring any regular supplies for the army, and the soldiers, thrown upon their own resources for the necessaries of life, were no longer under any restraint. They would no longer do anything but fight and plunder; military discipline vanished, and the Emperor, who witnessed all this disorder, being unable to command the daily distribution of rations, was obliged to tolerate it. I saw a bivouac fire kept up all night under the very windows of the Archbishop's house, where the Emperor was lodging, by burning musical instruments and articles of furniture taken from the houses. King Joseph remonstrated, but his interference was ill received, and the pain with which he witnessed such treatment under his own eyes of one of the most important towns of the kingdom that he was supposed to govern, gravely affected his health. . . . It was evident that he (Napoleon) would leave on the throne only the mere shadow of a King. And in fact, as soon as he had put his foot on Spanish territory, all other authority but his own ceased to exist among the French, and that of the King, feeble enough hitherto, completely disappeared. . . . (Napoleon) dispensed with even the simplest civilities, and neither permitted him to share in the command, nor to partake in the renown of the military achievements. The King was reduced to following in the track of the headquarters. He would have even gone without an escort, if his Guards, the only regiment at his command, had not defended him against the bands that gathered on the rear of the French troops as soon as they passed by."

It was in vain that Count Miot de Melito earnestly and repeatedly entreated his friend and patron to relinquish an illusive title which brought him nothing but insult and humiliation. Even "the semblance of a kingly crown" exercised so powerful a fascination over the mind of Joseph that he tamely endured to be insulted and trampled upon by his brother rather than relinquish it. It was this meanness of disposition in the men who surrounded him which seemed to justify Napoleon's contempt for humanity, while it increased almost to insanity his belief in the power of his own will. At Madrid, probably for the first time in his life, he discovered that there were moral forces in the nature of man which his methods could not reach, and far less subdue.

"None came to meet the French, none sought to propitiate their new masters by attention to the generals and officers. Even curiosity seemed to have lost its power. For several days no women appeared in the streets; none even could be seen at the windows. The theatres were reopened by order of the French Government, but no Spaniards attended the performances. At the houses in which the soldiers were quartered, everything they required was either given them, or they were suffered to take it, but nothing was offered, and the masters of the house avoided as far as possible all contact with their guests. Never did the inflexible Castilian character display more obstinacy, and never was the greatest misfortune that can happen to a capital city, that of falling into the power of the enemy, borne with more of dignity and pride. . . . In vain did the Emperor try to change the public mind by using the means that had succeeded elsewhere. He had flattered himself that his famous name, and the desire to behold so extraordinary a man, would have attracted the populace to him; that the road from Madrid to Chamartin would be thronged with a curious multitude, and that he would be watched and followed. Nothing of the kind occurred. He passed through the town to visit the palace of the Kings of Spain; no one followed or even stayed to look at him on his way. He held a grand review of the army on the plain between Chamartin and Madrid. It had been announced two days beforehand in the hope that some of the inhabitants of the town would be attracted by curiosity, and that he should receive some kind of homage from them. In this also he was disappointed: the review took place, but there was not a single Spaniard present."

But Napoleon dared not withdraw from an untenable position, lest he should weaken in France itself the belief in the felicity of his fortune on which his authority was founded. As little did he care to concede either to his brother Joseph or to any of his marshals such a measure of independent power as was absolutely essential in the circumstances, but which might ultimately have been used against himself. He adopted the middle course of quartering a portion of his vast armies upon the Spanish people, without even making an attempt to govern the country, and thereby kept as it were at fever heat, through the entire area of the peninsula, the national hatred against the French. When the demands of the Russian expedition made it impossible for him to fill up the gaps in his Spanish armies occasioned by their battles with the English, by disease, hardships, and the incessant losses caused by the guerrilla warfare, the beginning of the end was manifestly at hand. When the utter annihilation of the Grand Army during the retreat from Moscow compelled him to withdraw, in large numbers, the best of his soldiers from Spain, the end was no longer doubtful. But it was accelerated by the divided counsels and the quarrels among his generals, which made the headquarters of King Joseph a scene of mere anarchy. Up to the very night before the battle of Vitoria the leaders of the French army were unable to decide whether they would fight or whether they would retire; and in case of an unsuccessful battle, no measures were taken to clear the direct road to France, or to reconnoitre and ascertain the nature of any alternative route. The battle of Vitoria was, in consequence, fought in such a confused and haphazard fashion that 80,000 veteran French soldiers fled in irretrievable confusion before their losses in killed had amounted to 1,000 men. The road behind them being encumbered with heavy artillery, baggage-wagons, and all kinds of *impedimenta*, their artillery, ammunition, baggage, and treasure had all to be abandoned. The victors, so precipitate was the flight of the French army, succeeded in capturing only a very small number of prisoners. The Count, who was present with King Joseph at this the closing incident of the French invasion of Spain, gives a vivid narrative of the retreat from Vitoria:

"The battle was lost. It was then four o'clock in the afternoon. The King and Marshal Jourdan left the battle-field, and, bearing to the right toward Vitoria, without entering the town, reached the high road to France. Both the road and the plain that it crosses to the north of Vitoria were obstructed by the great park of artillery—men were busy spiking the guns—by a train of wagons and treasure-chests, containing several millions in specie, which had been left open for all; by the King's carriages, ready for starting; by those belonging to the generals and heads of the military administration, and by quantities of baggage of all kinds. In the midst of all this we discussed the direction in which we should retreat with our immense convoy. The advance made by the enemy on our right led us to fear that the road to France was already cut off, and we determined to take the road to Salvatierra. But where was it? Which was it? How were we to find it? Nobody among those about the King could point it out. . . . We only knew that Salvatierra was to the east of Vitoria, and no better guide was to be found than an inhabitant of the latter town who had been employed in the King's household, and who offered to conduct us. Just as we were setting out across the fields under his guidance, the enemy appeared on the left of the town, which had been left quite uncovered by the retreat of the Army of the South, and a strong party of hussars charged forward on the plain to the north of Vitoria. This unexpected attack terrified the crowd round the block of carriages, and they fled in all directions, seeking the road to France or that to Salvatierra. In a few moments dreadful confusion prevailed. The artillerymen cut the traces of the gun carriages; part of the troops left the ranks and sought safety in panic-stricken flight; one hundred and fourteen cannons, twenty-seven howitzers and their ammunition wagons, the treasure chest of the army, containing over twenty-five millions, that of the King, the fortunes amassed by generals, officers, and civilians, were all abandoned, and became the prey of the conqueror. I was close to the King, whom I had not left during the whole of that fatal day, when the rout began. He fled, like the rest, and was in danger of being taken by the English hussars. I saw a man struck by a bullet fall at his horse's feet. Fortunately for the King, his regiment of Light Horse Guards . . . now came up. General Jamin, its commander, drew up his men in battle order, charged the hussars, and drove them back. . . . Meanwhile, having taken by haphazard the right road to Salvatierra, we presently found ourselves among impassable marshes and deep ditches, where some persons were lost. . . . We entered the town, where we found a small French garrison, together. I was at supper with the King . . . when Marshal Jourdan arrived. As he came in he said: 'Well, you *would* have a battle, and now it is lost!' Then he sat down to table, shared our meagre repast, and nothing more was said on the subject."

The Count's 'Memoirs' extend to the final overthrow of the Emperor at Waterloo, and should be read by all interested in the occurrences of that stirring period.

FORNANDER'S POLYNESIAN RACE.

An Account of the Polynesian Race, its Origin and Migrations; and the Ancient History of the Hawaiian People to the Times of Kamehameha I. By Abraham Fornander, Circuit Judge of the Island of Maui, H. I. London: Trübner & Co. Vol. i., 1878. Vol. ii., 1880. 2 vols. 8vo. Pp. xvi.-247, vii.-399.

It was only as the extinction of the Polynesian race hastened toward completeness that its origin began to be adequately studied. Wilhelm Von Humboldt was the first to approach the question seriously from the philological point of view (in his 'Über die Kawi Sprache') and Bopp's work on the Malayo-Polynesian languages (1841) directed new attention to the question of origins. Neither of these scholars, however, had before him the linguistic and other data necessary for his researches; these data have been accumulated by more recent students, as Sir George Gray, Mr. Wallace, Taylor, A. H. Keane, Judge Fornander, and Adolf Bastian, whose collection of Polynesian myths has very recently appeared ('Die heilige Sage der Polynesier,' etc., Leipzig, 1881). The consensus of these researches is striking. The Malay theory of Bopp and his followers as regards the origin of the true Polynesian is now regarded as untenable, though it is based upon the common elements in the Malay and the Polynesian languages. Fornander, Bastian, and Keane agree that the large brown Polynesians are of Aryan descent; that, in the words of the latter (*Nature*, Nos. 583–586), they are "Caucasian in all essentials, and without a trace of Mongolian blood." Without committing ourselves to this conclusion, let us look briefly at the grounds upon which it is based.

As found in Judge Fornander's discussion, they may be classified as threefold—the ground of languages, of customs, and of tradition. His argument points to this conclusion, that the Polynesians are a branch put out from Aryan stock in its earlier days, long before the Vedic irruption in India. We should premise that the Polynesians are the inhabitants of the following groups: in the North Pacific, the Hawaiian islands; in the South Pacific, New Zealand, the outlying eastern portion of the Fiji group, the Lagoon or Ellice Islands, the Phœnix, the Tonga or Friendly, the Samoa or Navigators, the Harvey or Cook, the Manihiki, the Paumotu or Tuamotu, the Marquesas, and the Society groups, with some scattering islands, as Uvea, Rotuma, Vate, Nina, and Waihu or Easter Island, remarkable for its hundreds of gigantic stone statues, of unexplained origin. In all these groups and islands one language and race are found. Judge

Fornander seeks to trace the language, and those who speak it, to an Aryan source by the way of the Fiji Islands, and of a previous sojourn in the Indian Archipelago and in India. His argument may be resumed as follows:

1. "Were every other trace of a people's descent obliterated, the identity of the nomenclature of its places of abode with that of some other people would remain an evidence of the former habitats of the absorbed people." Thus the names of headlands, rivers, cities, villages in North and South America would often infallibly indicate the European descent of the people who bestowed them. Hawaii (Hawa-ii, Hawaiki="little Hawa"), takes us to *Jawa*, the second of the Sunda Islands; Oahu, to a tract of country in Borneo named *Ouahou;* Molokai, to *Morotay*, or *Moroty*, one of the Moluccas; Lehua, Lefuka, and Levuka, to *Labouk*, in Borneo; Bora-Bora and Polo-Pola, to *Pulo-Pora*, an island near Sumatra; Namuka, to *Namusa*, in the Moluccas; Puna, to *Puna*, the name of a mountain tribe in Borneo, and to a district and a river in India. Judge Fornander gives a considerable list of these derivations.

2. "Languages in their development pass from the simple to the complex, from monosyllables to polysyllables, from agglutinative to inflectional. Thus considered, the Polynesian language is one of the oldest on the earth. Its identity with the pre-Malay dialects still existing in Malaysia is established; and it is especially the older surviving form of a once common tongue." Whitney says of the Aryan pronominal roots that they were "of the simplest phonetic form; a vowel only, or a consonant with following vowel." That is an accurate definition of the present Polynesian syllabic elements. The vocal elements have a primitive fewness; the Hawaiian language is written with twelve letters, and has probably but about twenty distinct sounds. But most striking of all is the coincidence of Polynesian with Indo-European numerals. The words for one, *ka, ke, ta, te, ha, he*, "refer to a common origin with the Sanskrit *ka* and *sa*, the Greek τo, τη, ὸς, ἡ, the Gothic *tha*, the Latin *hi-c, hæ-c, ho-c.*" For two, the Malayo-Polynesian *lua, rua, dua, duo*, and the Indo-European *dui, due, duo, dau*, are often identical, and never much unlike; for three, the correspondence is not quite so palpable, though the radicals in both groups of languages are essential—the Polynesian *toru, tolu*, and the Indo-European *tri*. The number four corresponds in all the varieties of the two families of languages; the Indo-European *chat, quat, chit, tet, pet*, and *fid* are closely related to the *pat, fat, pa, fa*, and *ha* of the Polynesian and Malayan. Up to the number four the Indo-European and the Polynesian numerals are substantially the same; but now a significant break occurs. The Polynesian word for five is *lima*, and not *peng* or *pente*. *Lima* means also a hand, and it is a purely indigenous Polynesian word, appearing in none of the Indo-European languages. The quaternary system of counting was long retained in the former; it was not adopted in the latter. The conclusion is hard to resist that the Polynesian forefathers parted from the Aryans at a time when they, like the Australian aborigines of the present day, could not count further than four.

3. Traditions and Mythology. The Polynesian traditions are of a former habitat on some very large island or continent to the westward. "The universality of the tradition proves its antiquity. . . . In the Marquesas group, numerous expeditions have from time to time, till quite lately, been started in search of this traditional land of mystery and bliss, and their course was invariably to the westward." Their traditions of the creation and the fall of man, and of the flood, accord closely with those of the Hebrews. "In the Tongas and New Zealand they make reference to the killing of the younger by the older of the sons of the first man. The Hawaiian legend is fuller, and gives a completed genealogy of both the older and younger branches from the first man to the time of the flood. . . . The very names of the hero of the flood and of his wife *Nuu* and *Lili-noe*, point to the Hebrew or Arabic *Nuh* or *Noe*," and possibly, we may add, to the Hebrew Lilith, the name of Adam's first wife. In the legend of the flood there is conformity, even in details, to the Chaldee version of the legend: "such as the truce or respite of seven days before the flood should come; the fastening of the animals in couples, to be stowed away in the ark; the sending forth of the raven, or dark-colored bird at the first (instead of the dove, as in the Chaldee account); sacrifice offered before entering the ark, not referred to in Scripture," etc., etc. (See George Smith's 'Chaldean Account of Genesis,' p. 236.) Judge Fornander adds of the Polynesian legend: "I think it may justly be ranked as another independent version of that great cataclysm which at some remote period spread desolation over the present Mesopotamian basin." Many of these traditions are of great beauty, but we cannot here find room for them. In the Fiji group, "where many shreds of Polynesian folk-lore have been stowed away that have been forgotten elsewhere," there is a legend that "in former ages men built a vast tower, being eager for astronomic information, and especially anxious to decide the difficult question whether the moon was inhabited. To effect their purpose they cast up a high mound, and erected thereon a great building of timber. The tower had already risen far skyward, and the hopes of its builders seemed near fulfilment, when the lower fastenings suddenly broke asunder, and scattered the workmen over every part of Fiji." (Williams's 'Fiji,' p. 199.)

4. Upon the question of the physical resemblances between Polynesians and Caucasians we cannot dwell to advantage, graphic representations being, of course, necessary in evidence; but we may refer especially to the woodcuts reproduced from various sources in Mr. Keane's papers, already mentioned, as being very serviceable toward a conclusion. These illustrations make a sufficiently clear distinction between the three races into which Mr. Keane divides the Pacific Islanders as a whole: the "Caucasian," the Mongolian, and the dark (Negrito, Papuan, Austral). It will not be denied that the former group bears a resemblance to Europeans which cannot be traced in the latter; and this resemblance has a strong corroborative value in the argument, though it could not, in itself, be taken as a proof. Judge Fornander makes little account of the physical likeness, reminding us, indeed, that great dissimilarity of appearance may be found in peoples of known community of race. "What can be more dissimilar in appearance than the light-haired, blue-eyed, high-statured Scandinavian, and the black-haired, dark-eyed, low-statured Bas-Breton? And yet their community of race is now undisputed. Appearance may be the result of physical and local conditions and surroundings operating for ages in a given direction. . . . Something deeper, older, more expressive of the consanguinity of peoples I hold to be language." The argument from likeness, however, has been put in such shape by Mr. Keane as to become interesting. On this point we may refer the reader to the photographic album of the Berlin "Anthropologische Gesellschaft," in which many photographs of Polynesians can be compared with the European types in the same volume.

We have left ourselves little space to speak of the probable lines of migration from the "Aryan plain" to its present habitats of the Polynesian race. The following passages summarize Judge Fornander's views upon the subject:

"I think the facts collected will warrant the conclusion that the various branches of [the Polynesian] family, from New Zealand to the Hawaiian group, and from Easter Island to the outlying eastern portion of the Fiji archipelago, are descended from a people that was agnate to, but far older than, the Vedic family of the Aryan race; that it entered India before these Vedic Aryans; that there it underwent a mixture with the Dravidian race, which, as in the case of the Vedic Aryans themselves, has permanently affected its complexion; that there also, in greater or less degree, it became moulded to the Cushite-Arabian civilization of that time; that, whether driven out of India by force, or voluntarily leaving for colonizing purposes, it established itself in the Indian archipelago at an early period and spread itself from Sumatra to Timor and Luzon; that here the Cushite influence became paramount to such a degree as to completely engraft its own legends, myths, cult, and, partially, institutions, upon the folklore and customs of the Polynesians; that it was followed into this archipelago by Brahminised or Buddhist Aryo-Dravidians from the eastern coasts of Deccan, with a probably strong Burmah-Tibetan admixture, who, in their turn, but after protracted struggles, obtained the ascendancy and drove the Polynesians to the mountain ranges and the interior of the larger islands, or compelled them to leave them altogether; that no particular time can be assigned for leaving the Indian Archipelago and pushing into the Pacific—it may have occurred centuries before the present era, but was certainly not later than about the first century of it; that the diversity of features and complexion in the Polynesian family—the frequently broad forehead, Roman nose, light olive complexion, wavy and sometimes ruddy hair—attest as much its Aryan descent and Cushite connection, as its darker color, its spreading nostrils, and its black eyes attest its mixture with the Dravidian race; and, finally, that if the present Hindoo is a Vedic descendant, the Polynesian is *à fortiori* a Vedic ancestor."

Judge Fornander's second volume is devoted to research into the early history of the Hawaiian Islands, as deducible from tradition and ancient chants (*meles*), gathered in great part by the auth orduring his thirty-four years' residence in the Islands. The closing incident of the Polynesian history proper is that of the visits and of the death of Captain Cook. The account here given of it (pp. 157–200) is by far the best that has yet appeared; and from the fact that Judge Fornander has gathered up much local testimony to supplement that of the printed accounts, we may doubt whether a more complete and judicial history of "the episode of Lono" is likely to be produced. This volume contains many Polynesian chants and traditions, most of them hitherto unpublished, and collected by Judge Fornander himself, who has added extremely careful and faithful translations in every case. The Polynesian proof-reading is remarkably good, better even than the English, though the book was printed ten thousand miles from the author; the only erratum of this sort that we have noticed is in a Fijian name, *Veuua* for *Venua*. A serious, we might say calamitous, fault in this book is one for which, under the circumstances, we must hold the publishers responsible: it is the total absence from it of index, contents, chapters, subject-divisions, or even head-lines. The usefulness of the work is of course materially diminished by this inexcusable remissness. But the abundance, richness, and variety of its contents make it a contribution of the highest value to Polynesian studies; and it is to be hoped that the author will follow it, as he intimates in his second preface, with the comparative glossary of Polynesian and Aryan dialects upon which he is now laboring.

McCLELLAN AND POPE.

The Peninsula. By Alexander S. Webb.

The Army Under Pope. By John C. Ropes. [Campaigns of the Civil War.] New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1881.

THE summer of 1862 may well be considered the darkest period of the Rebellion. In the spring the President keenly sympathized with the popular demand for vigorous, energetic movements against the enemy; and his instincts plainly told him that such movements were perfectly feasible, though his distrust of his own opinions about purely military affairs made him hesitate to relieve the man who had created the Army of the Potomac almost from nothing, and who yet seemed so reluctant to bring it into actual use. How intensely Lincoln felt the necessity of active operations is shown by these few words which, from the fulness of his heart, he wrote on the back of one of Halleck's letters from the West: "The within is a copy of a letter just received from General Halleck. It is exceedingly discouraging. As everywhere else, nothing can be done." Finally, however, the Army of the Potomac did get off, the President, on certain conditions, waiving his own judgment, which was against the advisability of the plan selected. Hardly had it started before he had reason to believe that one of the conditions which he considered of vital importance had not been complied with, and he interposed his authority to withdraw enough of McClellan's army to insure compliance. The Peninsular campaign went slowly along, ending in a retreat to the James River, and further calls for reinforcements. The President, meanwhile, had summoned two officers from the West, where more progress had been made, and had given them control in front of Washington in the hope of achieving something positive. But the summer ended with all the Eastern armies defeated and crowded in a confused mass around the fortifications of Washington, and the high officers openly accusing each other of treachery and treason. The history of these events is presented in the third and fourth volumes of the series of "Campaigns of the Civil War," and it is presented in a manner greatly in contrast to nearly all previous discussions of the same subject. With the exception of the papers of the Massachusetts Historical Society (noticed in No. 845 of the *Nation*), we can hardly recall a book about McClellan's or Pope's campaigns which does not bear the strongest evidence of having been written to justify certain prejudices for or against these officers. In the two books now under consideration it is impossible to find a particle of this prejudice in either direction; and if to this we add that they show careful research and thorough knowledge of the facts, combined with intelligent criticism, we do not know that any higher praise can be given.

A very considerable portion of General Webb's book is taken up with discussing the relations between the Administration and McClellan, and, in fact, this was the most important feature of the campaign. For although many bloody battles were fought in it with great gallantry, yet in no one of them does McClellan appear as an important factor; the battles were fought by the corps commanders, most of them on the defensive, and all of them without any definite plan. McClellan's mind was constantly busy with other matters, and the most important among these, as shown by his own despatches, were the relations between himself and the authorities at Washington. These relations were of the most anomalous character. The Administration had lost faith in McClellan, and withheld part of his troops, yet, still hoping that he might accomplish something in the field, it did not relieve him. For this lack of faith McClellan was himself responsible; his "delay was protracted too long, even for a patient people"; "he drew too heavily upon the faith of the public," and he made no effort to put himself in sympathy with the Administration.

The result of the Peninsular campaign was "a lamentable failure—nothing less," and the historian of it must necessarily seek to fix the responsibility of that failure. First of all General Webb finds that Norfolk should have been taken during the winter, and then there would have been no *Merrimac;* next, at Yorktown, there was a complete misunderstanding as to the part to be performed by the Navy, and McClellan "expected more than the Government could promise or the Navy accomplish"; at the same time it was a great mistake of the Administration to retain McDowell's corps; but even with the troops McClellan had, more than three times those of the Rebels, his operations were of the most feeble and impotent character. At Williamsburg was "a battle fought without a plan, with inadequate numbers, and at a serious sacrifice without compensating results." After the battle "the promise of a rapid pursuit failed of being made good." Arrived in front of Richmond, McClellan's "promising advance received an unexpected repulse" at Fair Oaks. For nearly a month afterward he lay idle on both sides of the Chickahominy—his inaction being partly due to bad weather—believing that the enemy had double his own force, though in reality the enemy was inferior to him; when suddenly Lee and Jackson began "executing a scheme which was to put an entirely new face upon the situation." By this scheme the Army of the Potomac was thrown upon the defensive, and although numbering 92,500 against 80,762 of the Rebels, it was forced to defend itself in retreat to the James River; and there the campaign ended.

With the lapse of time, and the disappearance of McClellan as a political element, his status in history is gradually becoming fixed, and this book takes the historical, as distinguished from the partisan, view of his career on the Peninsula. Some portion of the blame of his failure must undoubtedly be laid upon the Administration; the rest of the blame lies with himself, because he did not possess the qualities requisite to "obtain from his army the best service of which it was capable"; because, in short, he was not a great commander.

Mr. Ropes's book is the history of another failure, a failure due not to lack of confidence on the part of the Administration, but to bad generalship in the field, aided by the inefficiency of the commander-in-chief. It opens with an admirable summary of the situation of affairs in July, 1862; reciting the causes on which the Administration founded its distrust of McClellan, and showing how this distrust had resulted in dividing the Eastern army into four portions. When this error became evident, three of these detachments were then united into one army under Pope. As to McClellan, after he had reached the James River, the political situation did not permit his removal, but the breach was too wide for him to be relied on as the chief general. It was therefore thought that his "army might be removed to northern Virginia; portions of it might from time to time be incorporated in the army under General Pope, and if that officer made a successful campaign, the difficulty as to McClellan would settle itself."

This distracted condition of the Union Army gave Lee an opportunity which he was not slow to profit by. The moment Pope began to advance toward Gordonsville, and two weeks before the withdrawal of McClellan's army had been ordered, Lee sent Jackson to defend the railroad at that point; and as soon as McClellan began to withdraw he hastened to join Jackson with all his force in the hope of overwhelming Pope before McClellan's troops could come to his relief. The political necessities of the North had forced it into a thoroughly false military position, and Lee, with true military instinct, grasped the opportunity thus given him. The battle of Cedar Mountain, in the author's opinion, was fought in consequence of a mistake of Banks as to his instructions; there was no necessity for it, and it accomplished nothing. The following movements of Pope on the Rappahannock were judicious. But when Jackson's daring flank march had brought him to the railroad in Pope's rear on the night of August 26, the crisis of the campaign had arrived. At this critical moment and throughout the next four days Pope completely misjudged the movements and intentions of the enemy; his orders were entirely inapplicable to the actual state of affairs, and they resulted in his utter defeat after a series of battles lasting for three days. This is a brief outline of the author's account of this campaign; it seems to us in every way just, and it leaves the question of Porter's action where it properly belongs—*i. e.*, as a matter of secondary importance. The campaign was lost because Porter withdrew McDowell and Sigel from the vicinity of Thoroughfare Gap, and thus made possible the junction of Longstreet and Jackson, instead of holding that point at all hazards and crushing Jackson before the rest of Lee's army could come up.

The action of Fitz-John Porter, though, as we have said, a secondary matter in the sense that the issue of the campaign depended on other causes, was of course a matter of considerable importance, and much space is given up to the discussion of it. His orders were conflicting, vague, and evidently based on a misapprehension of the real condition of affairs. In this trying situation the author concludes that Porter endeavored to do his whole duty—a somewhat different verdict from the dictum of the Schofield Board, that Porter exercised a proper discretion to disobey the orders of his commanding general, and thereby saved the army from complete disaster on the 29th of August. Neither of these is likely to be the last word on Porter's case, though, in the light of facts now known, every one must be convinced that he was guilty of no such shameful charges as those on which he was tried, and that his inaction has brought upon him a wholly excessive punishment.

In reading this book we cannot but congratulate the publishers upon their success in securing Mr. Ropes to write the history of this campaign, and we cannot but hope that Mr. Ropes will write of other campaigns with which his studies have made him familiar. Although he has seen no military service, he has every qualification for a military writer—an admirable military judgment, a clear and attractive style, a good sense of perspective, a thorough knowledge of the facts, and a mind unclouded by any of the prejudices of the war period.

The series, as a whole, judging by the four volumes now published, will unquestionably form a most valuable and trustworthy history of the principal military operations of the war.

Young Folks' History of Russia. By Nathan Haskell Dole, translator and editor of 'Rambaud's Popular History of Russia.' Illustrated by more than one hundred engravings. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 1881. Small 8vo, pp. 520.

MR. DOLE has an excellent power of telling stories, and has made a history of Russia which is interesting from beginning to end. It is perhaps

no fault of his own that he loses his way in the intricacies of what he calls "Russia of the Princes"—the period between Yaroslav (1054) and the Mongol conquest (1238). We think, however, that his failure in this confused period is mainly due to two faults of his own: he nowhere states clearly what were the rival principalities of the house of Rurik, and he is led by his desire of completeness to crowd his pages with unimportant names and events. He has given two valuable maps, one ethnographical, the other showing the successive acquisitions of territory; but he has strangely enough provided no map to illustrate historical events.

In one feature the book deserves high commendation—the text is almost free from dates, but these are given copiously in the margin, and these marginal notes are not merely a guide to the text, but often contain bits of desirable information additional to that in the text; as (p. 333) where a picture of the great bell "Tsar Kolokol" is accompanied by a statement of its size and weight. We do not think anything is gained by translating the names, and speaking of Yaroslav as "Fiery Fame," and Sviatopolk as "Holy Host"; it gives a sort of grotesque incongruity to have these names side by side with Vladimir, Boris, and Olga. We wish Mr. Dole had been as careful to translate his dimensions. What will it mean to an American boy to read (p. 126) that the Tartars came within one hundred *kilometres* of Novgorod, or (p. 333) that the great bell weighs 130,634 kilos? On page 101 Henry III. should be Henry I.; and on page 128, Silicia should be Silesia. The illustrations are numerous and well engraved; some of them a little far-fetched, but nearly all really illustrative. Mazeppa is of course mentioned in the text, but only his historical career; the young reader therefore—who can hardly be expected to be familiar with Byron's poem—will be astonished to find him represented as fastened naked to the back of a horse, as if this was his usual attitude in leading his troops.

Supplement to the Revised Statutes of the United States, embracing the Statutes, general and permanent in their nature, passed after the Revised Statutes; with references connecting provisions on the same subject, explanatory notes, citations of judicial decisions, and a general index. Volume i. Legislation of 1874–1881, the Forty-third, Forty-fourth, Forty-fifth, and Forty-sixth Congresses. Prepared and edited by William A. Richardson, one of the Judges of the Court of Claims. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1881.

THERE are two editions of the Revised Statutes of the United States, the first printed in 1875, the second in 1878; but the latter does not include the great mass of general laws enacted between the publication of the two; so that the Revised Statutes, without this Supplement, do little more than bring the laws down to December, 1873. The title of the work indicates its contents and, what we have just said, its extreme importance—indeed, its necessity—to lawyers and judges throughout the country. It was prepared and edited by Judge Richardson, under a joint resolution of Congress, and the name of the editor is a guarantee of the painstaking accuracy and faithfulness of the manner in which his work has been done. In its passage through Congress it received the sanction and approval of the Senate Committee on the Revision of the Law, comprising a number of well-known lawyers. This committee reported, with regard to the notes and references, which number several thousand, that they are "the result of annotations made by the editor from time to time during a series of years for his own use, with great care and often with much research, in which he has had the benefit of more than twenty years' experience in such kind of work." It should be added that no attempt has been made by Judge Richardson to improve on the language of the Statutes compiled; the volume is a reproduction of the existing laws in the language of their enactment, and in chronological order.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alcott, Louisa M. Moods: a Novel. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 50.
Arsiesis, and Other Poems. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 25.
Avery, I. W. History of the State of Georgia, from 1850 to 1881. New York: Brown & Derby. $4 50.
Biddle, A. and G. Treatise on the Law of Stock-Brokers. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $5.
Boisen, H. B. First Course in German. Boston: Carl Schoenhof.
Cadol, E. A Child of Israel. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Co. $1.
Collignon, M. Manuel d'Archéologie Grecque. New York: J. W. Bouton. $1 25.
Davids, T. W. R. Lectures on the Origin and Growth of Religion, as illustrated in Indian Buddhism. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2 50.
Duval, M. Précis d'Anatomie. New York: J. W. Bouton. $1 25.
Fitzerald, P. F. Philosophy of Self-Consciousness. London: Trübner & Co.
Farmer's Annual Hand-Book for 1882. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Foote, H. W. Annals of King's Chapel. In two volumes. Vol. i. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Gerspach. La Mosaïque. New York: J. W. Bouton. $1 25
Griffith, R. T. H. Yusuf Zularkha. London: Trübner & Co.
Guthrie, F. The First Book of Knowledge. New York. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Hamerling, R. Aspasia: a Romance of Art and Love in Ancient Hellas. 2 vols. New York: Wm. S. Gottsberger. $1 75.
Search the Scriptures. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.
Sheppard, N. Character Readings from the Stories of Charles Dickens. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.
Shorthouse, J. H. John Inglesant: a Novel. 2 vols. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. $3 50.
Thompson, S. P. Elementary Lessons in Electricity and Magnetism. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. $1 25.
Tradleg, N. A Son of Belial. Autobiographical Sketches. London: Trübner & Co.
Traill, H. D. Central Government. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. $1.
Transactions of the Cambridge (Eng.) Philological Society. Vol. i., 1872-80. London: Trübner & Co.
Varona, Adolfo de. Sewer Gases: their Nature and Origin. New York: D. Van Nostrand. 50 cents.
Wars of the Roses. Vol. iii. of Chautauqua Library of English History and Literature. New York: Phillips & Hunt. 50 cents.
Walford, L. B. Dick Netherby. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Winsor, J. Memorial History of Boston. Vol. iii. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 2, 1882.

The Week.

It has been an important week in the financial markets here and in Europe. The trouble which has been so long threatening in Paris culminated in the suspension, on Monday, of the Union Générale, the bank which was organized a few years ago under Roman Catholic influence, and which had sprung like a mushroom into an apparent prosperity that was wonderful; its capital stock having been twice doubled in three years, and its deposits increased from 30,000,000 to about 140,000,000 francs. It was a highly speculative and venturesome concern, but not more so than many other "institutions" which the speculative craze in France has brought into being. The suspension of the bank was the signal for heavy demands on London for specie; and as these followed a drain caused by the liquidation of speculative accounts which had been going on for some time in Paris, the Bank of England suddenly advanced its discount rate to 6 per cent. from 5 per cent. This reacted on the New York market by advancing the rate of foreign exchange to the point at which gold can be exported at a profit. The prospect of gold exports from here hardened the rate for money loans, and depressed the speculative markets at the Stock Exchange. The latter, however, were well sustained by influential speculators, and on Tuesday, as the situation in the foreign markets was certainly no worse if no better, some improvement resulted.

The crisis in Paris has led to heavy drafts of gold on the Bank of England, and, as a consequence, London has begun to draw upon New York. The process by which this international drain is effected is mainly by the sale of French securities at low rates in England, and of American securities (held by English investors) in New York. There is nothing in such a movement to occasion uneasiness here, since if we buy our own Government and railway bonds or stocks from foreigners we shall buy them at prices which we consider them worth, and shall get full measure for the money we send abroad. Such a crisis could not have happened in Europe at a time when we were better prepared to meet it. Our trade is bottomed upon the largest stock of gold ever accumulated in the country, and undoubtedly the largest held by any country at the present time. Moreover, the prices of our securities—or, at all events, of those held abroad in very considerable amount—were on the "ground floor," or very nearly so, before the French trouble began. At the time when French investors were beginning to go wild over Union Générale and other bubble companies, the assassination of President Garfield and the outbreak of the railroad war put a damper on speculation here from which it has not recovered. There is therefore scarcely any inflation, either in the Stock Exchange or in the general markets, for a crisis to wreak vengeance upon. The grain speculation in Chicago, which had carried prices of wheat above the exporting point, has succumbed in part to the menace of an outflow of gold and a consequent rise in the rate of interest. It is a natural and inevitable result that any staple article of international trade which we hold in excess of our own wants should fall in price at such a time. Speculators may hold on by the teeth for a while, but they must let go sooner or later. It is not worth while to waste breath denouncing the "bulls" in wheat and cotton. The laws of trade will take care of them. If the rate of interest does not rise sufficiently to make them drop their load, that fact will itself be proof that we have an excess of gold which we can spare without inconvenience. If gold is exported, it will be because it is the cheapest commodity we at the moment have to send. If much gold goes, it will lower the rate of money in London and advance it here, and in time the latter will cheapen other commodities, so that they will be exported in place of gold. The stock in the country is greater now than was ever before known—perhaps double that of any former period—and is increasing at the rate of $3,000,000 per month by the yield of our own mines. It is not reasonable to expect that we shall always retain this increment, and it is not desirable that we should retain it after we have accumulated what we need for our circulation.

Guiteau's brother-in-law and attorney, Mr. George Scoville, has issued an address "to the American people" in which he asks for contributions of money to enable him to present the case on appeal to the General Term of the Court, there being "in his opinion ample reasons for a reversal of the judgment." He says that the defence has been made by him for three reasons: first, from loyalty to his wife, Guiteau's sister; second, because he felt the defence "to be just and required by humanity"; and third, "to save the nation the lasting disgrace of hanging an insane man," and at the same time "to place on the records of history, through a judicial proceeding, the solemn judgment that it was impossible for an American citizen of sound mind to murder the President of the United States." Mr. Scoville is poor; his services in the case, instead of bringing him reward, have already been a heavy drain upon his slender resources, and he cannot continue them unless aided by charitable contributions. In his self-sacrificing endeavors to save the life of his brother-in-law, he has had the personal sympathy of many well-disposed people. But he would be wrong in supposing that any of that sympathy is extended to his wretched client. In this last appeal he has been particularly unfortunate in the choice of his arguments. There is no doubt the whole civilized world very generally agrees with the jury in the verdict that Guiteau is rather a villain than a madman, and was in a responsible condition when he murdered President Garfield. It will strike every person of common sense that under such circumstances a declaration of the "solemn judgment of the American people that it was impossible for an American citizen of sound mind to murder the President of the United States" would be a very risky experiment. It would simply advertise the fact that if any rascal takes it into his head to shoot the President, the worst thing that can happen to him is to be sent to a lunatic asylum, but that under no circumstances will he be hung, it being the "solemn judgment" of the American people that any American citizen who assassinates a President cannot possibly be of sound mind. We do not think the American people will subscribe much money for such a purpose.

Mr. Scoville has asked for a new trial in Guiteau's case, mainly on the grounds of want of jurisdiction, newly-discovered evidence, and misbehavior of the jury in reading or hearing read a newspaper calculated to prejudice their minds against the prisoner. This misbehavior of the jury is inferred from the fact that a "guest" of the National Hotel swears that he found in one of the rooms used by the jury a copy of a newspaper containing a report of proceedings in court with editorial comments on the case, and that on the newspaper some of the jury appeared to have written their names or initials. Whether these facts, if true, would raise the presumption that the jury had made themselves acquainted with the contents of the newspaper is a matter chiefly of abstract interest, since, according to concurrent despatches, they say that the whole story is an invention, and that their names have been forged. The newly-discovered evidence merely relates to the prisoner's insane behavior near the time of the assassination, and is very trivial. The question of jurisdiction is the only serious point left in the case, and in all human probability Judge Cox took the views of his brother judges as to this before deciding it.

The public attention during the week has been mainly taken up with Mr. Blaine's diplomatic performances in South America, as revealed by the correspondence presented to Congress. He appears to have directed Mr. Christiancy to recognize Calderon as the Government of Peru, without much regard to the amount of actual power he enjoyed, and apparently without regard to the fact that all the power he had he owed to Chilian forbearance. This recognition Mr. Blaine seems to have considered equivalent to a protectorate by the United States; for, when the Chilians subsequently got tired of Calderon, and arrested him, he treated it as an insult to our Government, and directed Mr. Trescott, who was sent out as a special envoy, to demand an explanation of it, and to break off intercourse with the Chilian Government if the explanation was not satisfactory; and he intimated that the explanation would not be satisfactory unless "accompanied by the restoration or the recognition of the Calderon Government." In fact, he made the

arrest of Calderon a *casus belli*, and if he had stayed in office, would probably have on this point either engaged us in war with Chili, or have overborne her on a pretext to which neither international law nor our own diplomatic traditions give the slightest countenance. He at the same time, too, took occasion to revive the extraordinary doctrine, which, when first propounded by General Hurlbut in his remarkable "memorandum" on Peruvian affairs, he had repudiated, that a victor who seeks indemnity for the cost of a war must always submit the question of the nature and amount of the indemnity to arbitration, and that he is bound not to take land if he can get money. Mr. Frelinghuysen happily got into office in time to prevent this curious folly from bearing fruit. He addressed an inquiry to the Chilian Minister in Washington to know whether any offence was meant by the arrest of Calderon, and having got a prompt and friendly denial, directed Mr. Trescott to make no threatening remonstrance about the matter, and not to go round among the other republics on his way home, as Mr. Blaine had ordered, to prepare for some kind of confederation; and at the same time took occasion to promulgate once more the old and long-established American policy of non-interference with the affairs of foreign states, and to acknowledge in the fullest manner that independence of Peru and Chili which Mr. Blaine seemed to have forgotten.

The President on Friday sent to the Senate a despatch from Mr. Trescott, received very recently, which gives Chili's final terms of peace. Mr. Trescott says that the Chilian Government disclaims all intention of offending the United States in arresting and carrying off Calderon; that Chili will accept the good offices of the United States; that the Chilian authorities will facilitate conferences between our envoy and the Provisional Government of Peru, "with the exception of Señor Calderon." Chili insists on the cession of the Tarapaca district, the payment of an indemnity of $20,000,000 within ten years; Arica to be occupied until the indemnity is paid, or ceded if it cannot be paid; Chili to appropriate besides the guano deposits of the Lobos Islands. In the event of Peru refusing these conditions, Chili would not any longer require the good offices of the United States. The State Department says that the remainder of the despatch is obscure, owing to some difficulty with the cipher, but the above is given as its substance. Had Mr. Blaine's method of treating this South American business been adopted by the present Administration, the question of peace or war with Chili would now be actually upon us.

There is something exceedingly diverting in Mr. Blaine's relations with his envoy, the now renowned General Hurlbut. The correspondence recently published, on which we comment at length elsewhere, contains some rich tid-bits on this subject. Hurlbut was really sent to Peru, as the Minister of the United States, to transact its business; but in Mr. Blaine's correspondence he is treated as if he were a wild young man who had been sent abroad for his health, or to extricate him from an unfortunate amour, and who is getting into fresh scrapes, and spending too much money, and whom his guardian has every now and then to haul over the coals. Hurlbut's follies began, it appears, almost as soon as he reached his post. How soon Mr. Blaine became aware of them we do not know, but he must have known about them as they occurred. His first published despatch, in which he castigates his ward, and says he cannot trust him any longer, objects to nearly everything he did after he went to Peru. It is extremely amusing, therefore, to find that on the 3d of December last he had heard, with "profound astonishment and regret," that Hurlbut had been getting a concession of a railroad and coal mine for an American company from (sham) President Calderon, on account of whose arrest he (Mr. Blaine) was near going to war with the Chilians. Hurlbut wrote home, in the innocence of his heart, saying the "grant was very valuable and the possibilities of the company very large," evidently thinking that a "valuable grant" and a company with "large possibilities" would make Mr. Blaine's mouth water. He must have been amazed when, instead of approval, he received a wigging. The continuance of Hurlbut at his post in spite of his escapades is the most delightful feature in the transaction. It seems as if Mr. Blaine liked the boy so much that his pranks secretly delighted him although he had to rebuke him publicly. We doubt whether Hurlbut knows to this hour why people are abusing him at home, and why Mr. Trescott has gone out to help him. He probably thinks this is simply a new phase of the old joke, and that Mr. Trescott's behavior will cause "astonishment and regret" in Washington also.

Senator Allison, of Iowa, has introduced a bill to provide for the issue, by the Treasury, of gold certificates of denominations not less than $20, to any person depositing an equivalent amount of gold coin in the Treasury, such gold coin to be held exclusively for the payment of the certificates on demand. This plan is identical in principle with the system which regulates the issue department of the Bank of England. The Bank issues a certain fixed amount of notes based upon Government securities, corresponding in principle to our greenback circulation. Beyond this fixed amount it may issue any sum whatever upon the deposit of an equal amount of gold, which shall be kept in the Bank's vaults for the redemption of the notes. These extra notes are merely Government warehouse receipts for gold. There is no reason why our Government should not issue similar warehouse receipts. There would be much convenience in having them, since the cost of transporting coin would be avoided, and the loss resulting from abrasion would be saved. Furthermore, the banks in large cities would be enabled, if they should choose, to dispense with their present machinery for handling Clearing-house balances. The banks of New York, for instance, could place their joint gold reserve, now stored with the Bank of America, in the Sub-Treasury, and enjoy the security which the Government affords without expense. Another advantage would be that persons having gold and requiring paper circulation would no longer be required to accept silver certificates instead of gold certificates. It is a fact not generally known or appreciated that a large part of the outstanding silver certificates have been issued against deposits of gold, the holders of the gold desiring paper money for convenience in use, and not being able to obtain it except in the form of silver certificates—the issue of similar gold certificates having been suspended, in anticipation of specie resumption, in 1878. Senator Allison's provision that three-fourths of the reserve held for the redemption of greenbacks shall be gold and one-fourth silver is open to objection. Although theoretically and legally the Secretary of the Treasury may make the whole reserve fund silver if he chooses, yet practically he makes the whole of it gold by giving the public the option to take what they prefer; and the presumption is that the Department will continue to do so, whoever may be at the head of it, unless some mandatory statute requires him to do otherwise.

The introduction in the Senate of a bill to buy $350,000 worth of land for the extension of the mint in Philadelphia, and the introduction of a bill in the House of Representatives to spend $1,000,000 to build a mint in New York, revive an old and familiar controversy. The argument on one side is that as this is commercially the central city of the Union, toward which all great enterprises tend, the Federal business ought to be concentrated here so far as possible. The argument has been pushed even to the extent of insisting that Washington be abandoned as the seat of the National Government, and New York be made the capital. As to the mint, it is contended that as more of the precious metals come here and are kept here than anywhere else in the country, this city is the most suitable place for carrying on the work of coinage. It is obvious that arguments of this kind would have greater weight if we were now for the first time setting the Federal house in order. Things which have been settled, such as the situation of the mint and the capital, will not be unsettled except upon stronger considerations which might prevail if the question were now an original one. There is another ground, however, upon which Representative Hutchins's New York Mint Bill will be successfully opposed. There is no need for two mints within ninety miles of each other. If we have one here, the one in Philadelphia must be given up. The whole Pennsylvania influence, therefore, will be encountered. But this is not all. Let it be understood that the Government thinks of abandoning Philadelphia, and so many cities will contend for the succession that no one of them is likely to be successful, and Philadelphia will keep the mint after all.

There seems good reason to believe that Congress will pass some bill for the relief of the Supreme Court this winter. The lawyers who support Senator Davis's bill object to the inference drawn from its provisions that its effect will be substantially to abolish the Cir-

cuit duty (the actual trial of cases with a jury) of the Supreme Court judges. The bill provides that the intermediate appellate courts shall be constituted of one Justice of the Supreme Court, three Circuit Judges, and two District Judges—though any three of these are made a quorum. This does not require a Supreme Court Justice to sit in that court, but it contemplates such service by him, and, what is more important, leaves unrepealed the existing law which requires each Supreme Justice to go on Circuit at least once in two years. The main controversy will be as between appellate courts in the Circuits and a new Appellate Court at Washington. All the Supreme Judges are understood to be in favor of Mr. Davis's plan except Mr. Justice Field.

The mail brings from San Francisco a broad and very yellow sheet of seven columns, upon which is printed a remonstrance from "the pro-Chinese minority of California to the American President and Congress" against the passage of certain pending bills. It says that a Congressional investigating committee in 1876 presented "overwhelming testimony" establishing "the vast utility and great necessity of Chinese labor to California." This, however, was before the Morey letter forgery worked a change—as seems to be the case—in the opinion even of the opponents of the anti-Chinese craze. The remonstrance quotes some of this testimony—that of railroad president Crocker, who says that "without Chinese labor we should be thrown back in all the branches of industry"; that of the Rev. Mr. Gibson, who says that "the standard of Chinese morals is higher and better than that of any other heathen nation"; and that of many citizens who bear witness to Mongolian industry, intelligence, honesty, and thrift. The remonstrance further takes the ground that opinion in California has been misrepresented, and is not nearly so unanimously anti-Chinese as is commonly supposed. Unfortunately for the success of this plea for consideration of the rights of the minority, the politicians who represent the State in Congress are on the anti-Chinese side, and the other politicians are guided by them in their votes on the question.

Secretary Kirkwood's proposition to authorize by law the appointment of three Commissioners, who are to visit the different Indian reservations for the purpose of examining their agricultural and grazing capacities, and to report their opinion as to whether such reservations should be reduced in size or not, and to do various things to promote the settlement of the Indians in severalty and their progress in civilized pursuits, is criticised by several newspapers as a mere attempt to create comfortable places for some of his friends. This is doing the Secretary great injustice. There is an abundance of important work for such a commission which the regular force of the Indian service has neither time nor opportunity to attend to. Of course it would be essential to have the Commission composed of men who to a high character unite good business capacity and practical experience in Indian affairs. Possibly men might be found in the present board of Indian Commissioners who possess all these requisites. Another recommendation made, or rather repeated, by Secretary Kirkwood, to increase the salary of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, and to give him an assistant, deserves favorable consideration. The duties of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs are perhaps more trying and onerous than those of any other officer in the Government. They require not only an honest and clear head, but business ability and experience of a high order, great knowledge of men, untiring watchfulness, and an inexhaustible working capacity. It is an absurd thing that, of all the bureau chiefs, the one who has the largest quantity and the most difficult kind of work on his hands and the greatest responsibility to bear, should have the smallest salary. No wealthy private corporation would hesitate to pay a man in its service such as the Commissioner of Indian Affairs should be, three times as much. And even with such pay this office would still be one of the most undesirable places, considering the fact that, in spite of the most honest endeavor to do right, he is at all times exposed to accidents in the service which the greatest vigilance cannot always prevent, and which may be apt to cast suspicion upon his integrity.

General Curtis, the Special Agent of the Treasury Department, complained of to the Secretary of the Treasury, under the United States statutes, by the Civil-Service Reform Association, for collecting assessments on Government officers, has put in his answer. He denies that he is an "employee," but his letter of appointment shows that he was "employed" by the Government. He also denies that he asked for any assessments, but he confesses that he received them, which is under the statute an offence equally with asking for them, and punishable as such. Judge Folger will doubtless do justice on him in due course. Thurlow Weed has written a very droll letter to the *Tribune*, enclosing one received by him from Naval Officer Burt. He had inquired whether in the Custom-house competitive examinations candidates were admitted "irrespective of party." Mr. Burt answered that certainly they were, thinking, doubtless, that this was a triumphant answer. The aged politician to whom it was addressed, however, received it as a confession of guilt, and writes indignantly to the *Tribune*, pointing out that "the traitor who endeavored to destroy the Government and the Union and answered more idle questions than the patriot who perilled his life in the Union army, carries off the prize." The letter reads like a burlesque, but we believe it to be perfectly serious, and to express the veteran's real view of the situation. He appeals to Chester A. Arthur to put a stop to this infamy.

The death of Dr. Bellows removes one of the most conspicuous figures of New York life during the last thirty years. He was the minister of a very small denomination, but there was no public interest which did not during that period owe something to his untiring activity, his ready sympathy and generosity, and his remarkable powers of statement and persuasion. His sympathy was inexhaustible. No unfortunate cause or man ever failed to receive a patient hearing from him, and as much help as was deserved, or he could give. He first became widely known through his labors as president of the Sanitary Commission during the war, and probably nothing did more than this Commission to make the memories of the war sacred and tender. But the things which made him widely known were but a very small proportion of those which brought him love and honor in private life. He has been happy in having his career close before his natural force had sensibly abated, or he had been compelled to limit the sphere of his usefulness. That he was himself aware, however, that the end was not far off, appeared in some remarks he made at the monthly meeting of the Century Club only a fortnight ago, when, discussing some affairs of the club, of which he was one of the founders in that old New York—now very old and very distant—of forty years ago, he observed, with some pathos, that the future of the club now concerned him but little personally, and that his interest in it was intended for those who were to enjoy it after him.

The loss of the North Riding of Yorkshire is a blow to the English Liberals, rather as showing that they have not gained what some thought they had gained than as showing that they have lost ground they formerly held. Parties are closely divided in the North Riding, with a strong leaning to the Conservatives. At the last two elections it was divided between them, the Liberals having one member of the two. The Conservatives have now succeeded in again filling their own seat by a tolerably large majority for that constituency, defeating Mr. Rowlandson, a tenant-farmer candidate, who ran on the land-reform issue. His failure shows that this part of the Liberal programme has not made much impression on the Yorkshire farmers, or overcome the intense and deeply-rooted prejudice which English county voters have almost always shown in favor of candidates who own broad acres, or are the sons or brothers of men who own them. The Honorable Guy Dawnay, the successful candidate, is an out-and-out Tory, taking the Tory drawing-room view of Mr. Gladstone, that he is the apostle of atheism and communism, and that most of his works furnish "the darkest pages in British history."

The Freycinet Ministry has produced a strictly business programme, because, as the Premier says, "Nations do not live by politics but by business." It drops the revision scheme, which constituted the principal part of the "politics" of the Gambetta Ministry, promises not to buy the railroads, which has under the influence of the late speculative mania been much agitated, and not to refund the five per cent. rentes, in deference to the numerous small holders. Moreover, the negotiations with England for the Treaty of Commerce are to be continued on the footing on which Gambetta has placed them, and the other reforms of the late Ministry are to be carried out in the same spirit. In fact, a more soothing programme there could hardly be.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

MR. PORTER concluded his address to the jury in the Guiteau trial on Wednesday at three o'clock. The jury were then asked whether they would prefer to hear the charge at once or wait until the next day. After consultation they decided to hear it then. Judge Cox's charge bore heavily against the prisoner. In summing up he told the jury that if they found from the "whole evidence that at the time of the commission of the homicide the prisoner was laboring under such a defect of his reason that he was incapable of understanding what he was doing, or of seeing that it was a wrong thing to do," they must acquit him. But if they found "he was under no insane delusion, but had the possession of his faculties, and had power to know that his act was wrong; and if of his own free will he deliberately conceived the idea and executed the homicide, then, whether his motive were personal vindictiveness, political animosity, a desire to avenge supposed political wrongs, or a morbid desire for notoriety—or if you are unable to discover any motive at all—the act is simply murder, and it is your duty to find a verdict of guilty as indicted." On the conclusion of the judge's charge the jury immediately retired. The court then took a recess until half-past 5 o'clock. At the expiration of the recess the jury filed into their seats, after having been out not quite half an hour, and gave a verdict of "Guilty as indicted," which was received with "uproarious applause" by the audience. Guiteau shouted out: "My blood will be upon the heads of that jury—don't you forget it." The jury came to a unanimous decision on the second ballot. The foreman stated, in conversation with a reporter, that there had been little or no doubt in the minds of the jury since Dr. Young, in whose opinion they placed much reliance, gave his testimony. The verdict has been received with approval throughout the country. Guiteau published another "Address to the American People" on Thursday. On Saturday Mr. Scoville filed a motion for a new trial. One of the reasons on which the motion is based, and the only one of importance, is the court's want of jurisdiction. The case will have to be reviewed by the court in banc, but there is no probability of the verdict being set aside.

Friday has been fixed for hearing the arguments on the motion for a new trial in the Guiteau case. Meanwhile Mr. Scoville has issued an "Address to the American People," asking for contributions to enable him to "secure competent counsel."

Mr. Blaine has written to the chairman of the sub-committee "On the Death of President Garfield," to say that he will be prepared to deliver his eulogy of President Garfield, in accordance with the request of the committee, either on February 25th or 27th. The latter date has been chosen.

In answer to the recent resolution of the Senate, on Thursday the President sent to Congress a mass of diplomatic correspondence, including the letters which passed between Lord Granville and Mr. Blaine on the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, and the correspondence between the State Department at Washington and the representatives of the United States in South America on the Chili-Peru difficulty. In the first-mentioned batch is Lord Granville's reply to Mr. Blaine's letter of June 24. In this reply Lord Granville says that he does not propose to enter into a detailed argument in reply to Mr. Blaine's observations, but calls his attention to the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, and says that "Her Majesty's Government rely with confidence upon the observance of all the engagements of that treaty." Mr. Blaine's letter in reply to this communication is dated November 29, 1881, and has already been made public. It contains, to use his own words, "a summary of the historical objections to the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty and of the very decided differences of opinion between the two Governments to which its interpretation has given rise," and proposes the modification of the treaty.

The correspondence concerning Chili and Peru covers a period of several years, and is very voluminous. It contains, among other things, Mr. Blaine's and Mr. Frelinghuysen's instructions to Mr. Trescott. Mr. Blaine recounts the various steps which led up to the arrest of President Calderon and the suppression of the provisional government of Peru by the Chilians. He then directs Mr. Trescott to inform the Chilian Government that the President of the United States looked upon the arrest of Calderon as an "unwarrantable offence" and "an act of unfriendly import," which might perhaps require the breaking off of all diplomatic intercourse between the United States and Chili. Mr. Frelinghuysen, however, in his letter of instructions, dated January 9, 1882, promptly revokes Mr. Blaine's instructions, and directs Mr. Trescott to "extend the kindly offices of the United States impartially to both Peru and Chili," and says that the President will himself determine, after report has been made to him, whether the conduct of Chili in deposing Calderon is or is not cause for offence on the part of the United States. Further, Mr. Frelinghuysen tells Mr. Trescott not to come home by Buenos Ayres and Rio Janeiro, with a view to calling a congress of American republics, as directed by Mr. Blaine. All attempts to dictate to Chili that she shall not annex Peruvian territory are also given up. The difference between the careful, moderate, and sensible character of Mr. Frelinghuysen's policy in this South American matter, and the extraordinary course which Mr. Blaine had taken, is very clearly brought out by a comparison of these two letters of instructions to Mr. Trescott.

On Friday Mr. Frelinghuysen submitted to the Senate the substance of a despatch which had been received from Mr. Trescott, special envoy to Peru and Chili. Mr. Trescott says that he has had several confidential conferences with the Chilian Minister of Foreign Affairs, and that the Chilian Government disclaims any intention of offending the Government of the United States in the arrest of President Calderon, and that the good offices of the United States Government will be accepted by Chili, but that the terms of peace presented by Chili embrace the following points: absolute cession of the Tarapaca district, and in addition thereto the payment of an indemnity of $20,000,000, payable in ten years, during all of which time the positive occupation of Arica by Chili is required, and should the indemnity be unpaid, Arica is to be ceded to Chili; and besides this, Chili is to appropriate the guano deposits of the Lobos Islands. But in the event of Peru refusing these conditions, the Chilian Government would decline any further proffer of the friendly interference of the United States.

An interview with Mr. Blaine on the subject of his diplomatic correspondence relating to Chili and Peru was published on Monday. Mr. Blaine denied that his instructions to Mr. Trescott had been drafted and given to him without the knowledge of the President; or that any attempt was made by the United States to push the claims of private citizens against Peru, or that he instructed General Hurlbut to prosecute the Landreau claim. Mr. Blaine further said that his policy was not "a departure from the conservative methods of our country," but on the contrary that it was "directly in the line of our safest precedents laid down by our most distinguished and conservative Secretaries of State." Mr. Blaine, in conclusion, said that he was influenced in taking the course he did by a desire to save Peru from the "heavy hand of England," which she "felt upon her at every turn," and that if Chili is allowed to annex the territory she wishes, the "end will be an absolute domination of English influence in both Peru and Chili."

Leave of absence has been granted by the State Department to General Hurlbut, Minister to Peru, to return to this country.

The Refunding Bill has continued to occupy the attention of the Senate during the week. On Thursday Senator Sherman made a speech defending the bill and attacking the numerous amendments to it which have been offered, and a motion to lay the subject on the table was defeated by a considerable majority. On Friday the Davis amendment, doing away with the five years' time limit, and making the new bonds redeemable as soon as the remaining continued bonds are disposed of, was adopted; but the proposition to make the new bonds irredeemable for three years was lost by a vote of 25 to 36. This was the first direct test of strength between Mr. Sherman and Mr. Windom, the former being of the opinion that a specified time is necessary to give the bonds a market value in comparison with the present outstanding bonds. On Monday the debate was mainly on the Vest amendment, which was made the text for a number of attacks on the national banks. Senator Edmunds asked the Senators who were so hostile to the national banks what they proposed as a substitute. Did they wish the Government to go into the banking business? or should State banks be again set up as a substitute? No satisfactory answers were given to these questions.

In the House no measure of much importance was debated on Thursday or Friday. It is said that private bills have been introduced to such an extent as to interfere seriously with the transaction of public business.

The House Committee on the Census have amended the McCord Apportionment Bill and have reported it to the House. The bill, as amended, gives the House 320 members, the ratio of representation being 154,285.

The House Committee on Territories on Saturday listened to the arguments made before it by a large number of citizens of Dakota for the admission of the southern portion of that Territory as a State.

The sub-committee of the House Committee on Agriculture have reported favorably to the full committee a bill providing for the establishment of a Bureau of Animal Industry, with a view to preventing the exportation of diseased cattle, and the spread of infectious diseases among domestic animals. It imposes a fine on persons or corporations transporting such animals.

The President signed the Census Deficiency Bill on Saturday. He was governed in so doing by the opinion of the Attorney-General.

The bill providing for the retirement of Associate-Justice Hunt, of the Supreme Court, has been signed by the President.

The President has accepted the resignation of Mr. J. Stanley Brown as his private secretary and has appointed Mr. F. J. Phillips to succeed him.

The Secretary of the Treasury has decided that Apollinaris is a natural water, and exempt from import duty.

General N. M. Curtis, a special agent of the Treasury Department employed in the New York Custom-house, has written to the Secretary of the Treasury in reply to the charges filed against him by the Civil-Service Reform Association of New York, charging him with having violated the letter and spirit of the law prohibiting employees of the Government from requesting, receiving, or giving money for political purposes from or to employees of the United States, while acting as Chairman of the Republican State Committee of New York during the late Presidential campaign. General Curtis denies, particularly and specifically, that he violated, or intended to violate or disregard, the letter or spirit of the section referred to, for the reason that he has not been since January 15, 1880, such an employee or

executive officer of the United States as is referred to in the section which he is accused of having violated, nor has he personally levied assessments or requested any persons to make contributions.

It is stated that the Grand Jury at Washington has, for the last ten days, been engaged in making a general investigation of the Star-route cases, in the matter of "straw bonds and expedited routes," but has not yet directed particular inquiry to any special case.

The statement that Special Agent A. M. Gibson, who made a report which was so damaging to the persons implicated in the Star-route frauds, has been discharged from Government employ, is denied by Attorney-General Brewster. The publication of this false report is believed to be part of a plan to misrepresent the Government in all its proceedings in regard to the Star-route cases.

A disastrous fire occurred in New York on Tuesday. A five-story building, formerly occupied by the *World* newspaper, on the corner of Park Row and Beekman Street, was totally destroyed by fire, with the loss of a number of lives. Fourteen persons were reported missing, and eight were injured in escaping. The loss on property is estimated at $600,000.

On Thursday Lieutenant Danenhauer, of the *Jeannette*, telegraphed to the New York *Herald* correspondent in Paris that Lieutenant De Long's party had been traced to a definitive locality on the west bank of the Lena. It seems the *Jeannette* entered the ice near Herald Island on September 6, 1879. Her forefoot had been twisted since the 1st of January. She drifted to the Northwest for twenty-one months, and was finally crushed, and sank on the 12th of June, and Lieutenant Danenhauer and the others made their retreat over the ice to the New Siberia Islands, and thence in boats to the Lena delta.

FOREIGN.

On Thursday the bill for the revision of the Constitution was debated in the French Chamber of Deputies. M. Gambetta made a speech, in which he said that the country desired a limited revision, but was not prepared to expose its present tranquillity to the hazards of an unlimited amendment. He said that *scrutin de liste*, by enlarging the electoral basis, provided the means of rendering personal power impossible. He denied that any idea of dissolving the Chamber was entertained. The Government bill for the revision of the Constitution was then rejected by a vote of 305 to 117, and M. Gambetta handed in the resignations of himself and his colleagues. The Premier's defeat was expected, and does not seem to have produced a very profound impression in France. On Monday the new Cabinet was announced; it is composed as follows:

President of the Council and Minister of Foreign Affairs—M. de Freycinet.
Minister of Public Instruction—M. Jules Ferry.
Minister of the Interior and of Worship—M. Goblet.
Minister of Justice—M. Humbert.
Minister of Finance—M. Léon Say.
Minister of Public Works—M. Varroy.
Minister of War—General Billot.
Minister of Marine—Admiral Jauréguiberry.
Minister of Commerce—M. Tirard.
Minister of Posts and Telegraphs—M. Cochery.

This Ministry is regarded with favor in Paris, and seems likely to receive general approval throughout Europe.

On Monday it was announced that in view of the claims lodged against it, the Union Générale, acting in conformity with legal advice, had decided to suspend payment until the general meeting of its shareholders, which will be held on Friday next. The Union Générale was supported by the entire clergy and the Roman Catholic aristocracy of France, the Comte de Chambord alone being said to hold 5,000,000 francs of its shares. Great efforts were made by the French bankers to avert the threatened panic on the Bourse. M. Bontoux, the manager of the Union Générale, is mainly responsible for the failure. He employed the funds in wildcat speculation.

At a meeting of the directors of the Bank of England on Monday it was decided to raise the Bank rate to seven per cent. without delay, if further withdrawals were threatened.

A despatch from Paris says that Lord Lyons, the British Minister, had an interview on Friday with M. Gambetta, and handed him the reply of England to the concessions made by France in the matter of the Anglo-French commercial treaty. The negotiations are now said to be sufficiently advanced to admit of the hope that there will soon be an exchange of signatures.

The libel case of M. Challemel-Lacour against M. Rochefort, of the *Intransigeant*, is to be tried again, as the Appeals Court has overruled the judgment of the court of the first instance, and ordered a trial on the merits of the case.

The London *Times* has published a letter of Mr. Gladstone in reply to a correspondent who urged the release of the imprisoned "suspects." Mr. Gladstone says: "The first duty of the Government is to law and order. It cannot consistently release these individuals until they have lost their power or have renounced their intention of pursuing a course of disturbance. Neither of these conditions is, so far, apparently fulfilled. The Government thus has no alternative but to persevere with a most painful duty."

At a meeting of Parnellites in London on Monday it was decided to oppose the proposed adoption of the *clôture* at the coming session of Parliament.

It is said that the cause of the military reinforcements and police activity in Ireland at present is the extraordinary number of secret societies in Limerick and Clare. The existence of these societies, however, gives no credibility to the reports which have been circulated concerning a projected uprising, as they are purely agrarian and socialistic associations, supported by Irish-American funds.

The despatches from Dublin on Monday stated that there was a panic on the Dublin Stock Exchange. It is expected that two or three large houses will fail during the present week unless assistance is rendered them. Business is at a very low ebb, and tradesmen are unable to collect debts, as the debtors are mostly landlords.

A very heavy snow storm prevailed on Sunday in Wales, and much snow fell in some parts of England and Scotland. There was a very severe storm in the counties of Dublin, Kildare, and Wicklow, Ireland, causing great damage to property.

In the case of the outlaw leader O'Connell, who appeared as Queen's evidence against his two fellow-prisoners, the Crown has withdrawn all the indictments against him. More troops have been sent to Ireland. The property defence fund now amounts to £17,500, and the fund for ladies in distress to £14,000.

England and France have given reassuring explanations to all the powers in regard to their collective notes to the Khedive of Egypt, and it is believed that the matter will be settled without further diplomatic communications.

A telegram from Cairo says that the deputation of the Notables have arrived at an understanding with the Government concerning most of the new rules of procedure, and have authorized Sherif Pasha, the Premier, to negotiate an arrangement with England and France in regard to the subject.

There has not been much news of importance from Herzegovina during the week. The insurrection is said to extend over a very large district of both Herzegovina and Bosnia. There have been a number of small skirmishes, but the results were unimportant. The Austrian Minister of Foreign Affairs, Count Kálnoky, has introduced a credit of 8,000,000 francs, for the suppression of the insurrection, in the Austrian Parliament.

A Berlin despatch states that the Emperor has specially thanked Prince Bismarck for his defence of the Imperial rescript in the Reichstag on Thursday, the 25th inst.

In the Reichstag on Monday, the Secretary of State announced that the Bundesrath had sanctioned the budget as passed by the Reichstag, and read an Imperial message closing the session.

In the Prussian Landtag the Minister of Finance announced that, in consequence of the modification of the Imperial budget passed by the Reichstag, the contribution of Prussia to the empire will be so far reduced as to render the projected loan of 5,000,000 unnecessary.

The Spanish Cortes will probably meet toward the end of February, when it is expected that some changes will be made in the Cabinet, but a crisis is not expected.

In regard to the proposed Spanish pilgrimage to Italy, the Spanish Government has informed the Italian Government that it will refuse protection to any Spanish pilgrim guilty of participating in a political demonstration in Rome. Much stir is reported to have been caused at Madrid by the publication of a circular letter from the Papal Nuncio to the bishops, recommending that they use their best efforts to promote the pilgrimage to Rome. The Spanish press declare that the pilgrimage would probably prove a Carlist demonstration, and they call on the Government to assume an energetic attitude in the matter.

The census returns show that the population of Rome and its suburbs is 300,292, an increase since 1871 of 55,808.

King George of Greece opened the session of the Chamber of Deputies on Monday. In his speech from the throne he extended a hearty welcome to the representatives from the new provinces.

A despatch from Corfu states that a plot against the life of the King of Greece has been discovered. It was to have been carried out while he was travelling from Athens to the Piræus.

Prince Dolgoruki, the Governor-General of Moscow, is going to take extraordinary measures to secure the safety of the Imperial cortége to Moscow on the occasion of the coronation of the Emperor. He proposes that the Emperor shall go to Moscow by the carriage road instead of by the railroad, and that the crowds in the streets shall be separated from the procession by trenches, barriers, and lines of troops.

The Russian Committee of Pardons has revised the cases of 650 political exiles, liberated 328 of them, and reduced the sentences of the remainder.

The Swiss Council of State has confirmed the decision of the National Council to change the Swiss Consulate at Washington into a legation.

A despatch from Calcutta says that the Amir of Afghanistan is developing a ferocity worthy of his most blood-stained predecessor. A reign of terror prevails at Cabul, 1,100 persons being imprisoned for political offences.

Accounts from Havana report that the continued droughts and the prevalence of worms have so injured the tobacco crop that no change of weather can remedy the damage. The crop will be a small one, and poor in quality.

TUESDAY, January 31, 1882.

ANOTHER CHAPTER OF MR. BLAINE'S DIPLOMACY.

Mr. Blaine was so alarmed last summer by a rumor he had heard that the Government of Colombia was going to ask for a European guarantee of the neutrality of the Isthmus Canal that on the 24th of June he wrote a despatch to Mr. Lowell, which was communicated to Earl Granville, in which he denied absolutely the right of any European government to interfere with or about the Canal or the Isthmus in any manner whatever. He laid it down that any European guarantee of the neutrality of the Canal would be an indication of unfriendliness to the United States, and would be resented as such; that the United States would itself assume the control of the Canal and guarantee its neutrality, and would not permit any other power to share the responsibility. The despatch was very uncourteous and even menacing in tone. It was, as we pointed out at the time, a very extraordinary document, in view of the fact that its object was not to bully Great Britain into an abandonment of all claim of control of the Canal, but to persuade her to do so, and Mr. Blaine meant, he said, to be courteous. But what made it still more extraordinary was the fact that it made no mention whatever of the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, and indeed ignored its existence. That treaty is, however, still in force, and is part of our "supreme law of the land," and cannot be abrogated by the President at his mere pleasure. When a treaty entered into in time of peace between two equal and friendly powers has become oppressive, inconvenient, or antiquated to either of them, the custom of civilized nations is for the one which objects to it to propose its abrogation to the other, and not to withdraw from it until negotiations for this purpose have failed. This was undoubtedly the course which diplomatic usage as well as the rules of civilized intercourse imposed on Mr. Blaine. He ought to have communicated to Earl Granville the American objections to the treaty, and asked Great Britain to agree to its abrogation. What he actually did was to threaten Great Britain with American hostility in case she should urge certain claims or rights which the treaty has already accorded to her.

Earl Granville took nearly five months to answer, and then said (November 10) rather drily that he considered the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty still in force. But in the meantime (November 19) it appears to have occurred to Mr. Blaine, or to have been brought home to him, that he ought to say something about the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty; so he then sent a proposal to Lord Granville for its abrogation. On getting Lord Granville's answer, he sat down (Nov. 29) and wrote the despatch which he ought to have written at first, giving an historical résumé of the American objections to it, but seems to have been quite unconscious in composing it of the very severe condemnation which, by implication, it passed on his own methods. The American discontent with the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty began within six years after it was signed, and has continued ever since, and caused much discussion during Mr. Buchanan's Administration, though the matter was pushed aside afterward by the war and the troubles growing out of it. Mr. Blaine's historical sketch adds nothing, or very little, to the knowledge already possessed by the public on this point. But it does show that this dissatisfaction was always expressed in very courteous proposals to the British Government for the abrogation of the treaty by—to use Mr. Buchanan's language in his message—"mutual consent," in order to "commence anew." In fact, there is no precedent to be found in the history of our diplomacy for Mr. Blaine's mode either of asserting a claim or beginning a negotiation. His language is only known as the language of a military power to a small state whose coercion has been determined on, or to a state with which everything was in readiness for a bloody war. It is no answer to this criticism to say that his despatches were intended for the domestic stump. We weigh so much in the world now, and our threats and invective have so much significance, that the use of our diplomatic machinery for electioneering purposes is a serious offence against the national peace and dignity.

Mr. Blaine has also supplied the newspapers with an explanation of his diplomacy in South America. Upon the point whether the President saw and approved of his despatches, Mr. Blaine states positively that he did so. The exact nature of the connection of the State Department or of General Hurlbut with the Peruvian Company, the Cochet claim, the Landreau claim, the Crédit Industriel, and Mr. J. R. Shipherd, is hardly yet ready for thorough discussion. We are evidently destined to hear a good deal more on this topic, and we need to know a good deal more in order to talk about it intelligently. But Mr. Blaine's sensitiveness and anxiety about the form in which Chili was to exact her indemnity for the cost of the war, will strike the public as very remarkable. It would appear from his explanation that the main object of his despatch of Mr. Trescott as a mediator to Peru was to get Chili to take a money indemnity instead of annexing territory. The impetuous Hurlbut had settled this question to his own satisfaction, by laying it down as part of the law of nations that a conqueror was bound to take his indemnity in cash if he could get it, and not to take land unless the cash was not forthcoming. Mr. Blaine's instructions to Hurlbut contained no foundation for this startling novelty, for they acknowledged the right of Chili to use her discretion in the matter; and in the subsequent letter of reproof to the same diplomatist, he takes the same ground, although he had already informed General Kilpatrick that the conqueror was not fit to judge whether he should take territory or money—that this ought to be settled by an outside arbitrator. How Mr. Blaine managed to reconcile these two contradictory positions in his own mind we do not pretend to know, and the puzzle is deepened by the fact that in his instructions to Mr. Trescott he again adopted General Hurlbut's law, which he had repudiated, and informed the new envoy that the United States Government "holds that between independent nations hostilities do not from the mere existence of war confer the right of conquest until the failure to furnish the indemnity and guarantee which can be rightly demanded." The best defence that can be offered for this proposition is that it is not quite comprehensible. What Mr. Blaine meant by it was probably that Mr. Trescott was to oppose any cession of Peruvian territory to Chili. Why he should wrap this up in the form of a statement of law it would be hard to say, unless he wished to disguise it. As law it is simply bosh. No rational diplomatist, whether Chilian or other, has ever "held" or contended that the "existence of war" "conferred the right of conquest." Nothing confers the right of conquest but conquest. The Chilians claim the right of conquest solely because they have conquered, and what Mr. Blaine wished Mr. Trescott to do was to oppose the exercise of rights derived from very complete conquest—rights which have never been denied to the conqueror till the appearance of Mr. Blaine on the diplomatic stage, and which the United States has exercised on a large scale in his lifetime.

In the explanation to the reporter, he gives way to his feelings about the things which Chili was going to take, in a style more suitable to a great speculative capitalist than to a prominent publicist and diplomatist. He objects to the territorial indemnity because it is so valuable; he seems to have appraised it all with great nicety. The Lobos Islands, he says, "would sell at auction for twice $40,000." "The province of Tarapaca contains the wonderful beds of nitrate which are capable of producing an enormous revenue. Under judicious management, this province is estimated to be capable of producing from $30,000,000 to $40,000,000 a year." This may be all true, but what has an international lawyer to do with it? It was the business of the Peruvians to count the cost, and consider the value of what they might lose, before they went to war, just as it was the business of the Southerners before they seceded, and of the French before they attacked Germany. It is emphatically not our business to step in to save them from the consequences of their folly or bad luck. Moreover, Mr. Blaine may console himself with the reflection that the Lobos Islands and the province of Tarapaca will be very "judiciously managed" by the Chilians, and will probably contribute more to the world's wealth than if the Peruvians kept them.

Mr. Blaine further explains, however, that he is chagrined at Chili getting all this business, because it will be done with English capital and English ships. But he must not make himself too miserable over this, because, owing to the hostility of himself and his friends to foreign commerce, Peruvian business is already done with English capital and English ships. The Chilian annexation will really make no change in the situation. In 1878, Peru exported $49,475,000, in products. Of this Great Britain took $26,161,525, while the United States took only $1,203,602. Peru owes about $226,340,000, which is nearly all held in Europe. Her exports, too, are now carried almost wholly in English ships. If any one asserts that we can remedy this state of things by meddling in South American politics, he is simply showing his unfitness for the

management of our foreign affairs. It can only be remedied by such a change in our tariff and navigation laws as will enable American products to compete in foreign markets with "the pauper labor," and on the seas with the pauper sailors, of Great Britain.

THE GUITEAU TRIAL.

The trial of Guiteau has been in many ways the severest ordeal to which the feelings of the American people have been exposed since the close of the war. The crime was bad enough and impressive enough to make the public more anxious to have justice done on this murderer than on any murderer who had gone before him. And in addition to this, the remarkable and indeed unprecedented extent to which foreign nations, and particularly the English people, had joined in the American horror and mourning over the assassination, had created an unusually strong desire that the trial should in solemnity and decency, and in the swiftness of its justice, prove in foreign eyes worthy of the occasion which called for it. It is needless now to recall the bitterness of the disappointment which followed the opening of the proceedings. The air of cheap melodrama which the District Attorney thought proper to give it; the theatrical accumulation of evidence to prove facts over which there was not the shadow of a dispute, ending with the revolting and wholly unnecessary production of the dead man's bones, were a great shock to the public, and it was deepened by Judge Cox's decision to allow the prisoner to behave in court in any manner he pleased. The degrading scenes which followed are still fresh in everybody's memory. They furnished unfriendly foreign critics with plenty of material for reflections on the administration of American justice, filled even friendly ones with amazement, and, it is safe to say, made many people here blush who never blushed before.

Of the way in which order was preserved, or rather not preserved, in the court-room, which for a time had all the effect of a deep national disgrace, it may now be said that it was probably an inevitable result of the license which the Court had decided to accord to the prisoner. It is useless to try to impose respectful silence on a dense crowd, in whose presence you permit a lunatic, whether real or pretended, to go through any antics he pleases—as useless, nearly, as if a monkey had been introduced into the court-room and permitted to play tricks on top of a barrel-organ. It is the mood of a crowd which determines its behavior, no matter what the police may threaten, and a decorous mood was impossible in the presence of Guiteau's participation in his own defence.

It must be said, however, that scandalous as the outward results may have been, there was, long before the close of the trial, a very general disposition on the part of the public, both lay and professional, to acquiesce in Judge Cox's view of his duty as regarded the license given to the prisoner. It was undoubtedly a new feature in criminal proceedings; but not a few are now ready to say that its novelty was no fault of the Judge, and that it is truly wonderful, considering how often insanity has been used as a defence in murder trials, that the problem which Judge Cox had to solve for the first time had not frequently arisen before. The problem is, in short, whether, when a prisoner sets up insanity as a defence, it would not be passing on the question of his guilt or innocence to treat him in court as sane and responsible, and insist on his behaving as if his defence were a sham. That no lunatic has hitherto attempted to take as active a part, lunatic fashion, in his own trial as Guiteau has done, and sought to support his plea by actual demonstration before the jury, is in truth somewhat extraordinary. There can hardly be a doubt that, in spite of the failure of the plan in this particular case, it will be tried hereafter, perhaps frequently; and all courts in which the prisoner's innocence before conviction is a legal presumption, or in other words, all Anglo-Saxon courts, will have to make some provision for the preservation of good order when insanity is pleaded, and there is any likelihood that the prisoner means to make a display of his symptoms to the jurors. The simplest remedy in such cases would seem to be a private trial. No country can afford, without bringing serious discredit on the administration of justice, to permit many such exhibitions as occurred daily in the court-room during the Guiteau process.

Judge Cox can, however, now fairly point to the verdict as in part, at least, the result of his experiment. The demonstrations of his insanity given by Guiteau were not successful. There is after all a certain method in madness. Even the crazy are crazy by certain rules, about which long experience has left little doubt, and Guiteau did not observe them. He did not conceal his acuteness or the rapidity and accuracy with which his judgment worked on things which concerned him deeply. The only proofs of insanity he furnished were his violence and indifference to appearances, which are the marks of insanity which it is easiest to simulate—almost as easy, in fact, as to simulate the gait of a drunken man. The play of his mind on the case in no other way indicated marked defectiveness; so that it is probable he himself had the largest and most effective share in his own conviction.

It can hardly be said that the case has made any important contribution to jurisprudence. The charge of Judge Cox on the legal marks of insanity was a model of lucidity and accuracy. He left no haze whatever about the subject, though he acknowledged the insuperable difficulty the courts have had in dealing with it. There was some foolish talk, when the experts were examined, about their having resolved to seize this opportunity to clear up all doubts about the relation between mental unsoundness and moral or legal responsibility, as if it was any part of their business to testify in the interest of public safety, or in any interest but that of simple truth. As a matter of fact, they contributed nothing new to the literature of the subject. What the trial has done is to make plainer than before something that was already well settled, though occasionally obscured by sympathetic juries—viz., that if you are sane enough to live and do business in the world, and be treated in the ordinary relations of life as sane, and you plot or plan a crime beforehand, and in plotting and planning it show that you know and fear its possible consequences, and have taken precautions against them, or made calculations to enable you to escape from them, you will be held responsible for your act and suffer the legal penalty. In other words, to be enabled to commit crime with impunity, it is not enough to be queer or eccentric, or cherish delusions about your own place in the world, or exhibit incapacity for keeping your engagements. Your conduct for a long while before your crime must be such as to show that you were indifferent to the consequences of your acts. In other words, the doctrine of insanity *ad hoc*, as it were, or of sudden temporary insanity, lasting long enough to serve a particular unlawful purpose, has probably received the worst blow ever inflicted on it.

We cannot pass from the subject without expressing deep regret over the character of Judge Porter's closing speech. It is impossible not to hold it responsible for much of the turbulence and indecency of the last day. It consisted largely of a stream of very coarse vituperation directed against the prisoner. A little of this is perhaps tolerable in a criminal trial, but not more than enough to give emphasis and point to the review of the evidence, and touch the moral sympathies of the jury. In favor of steadily blackguarding the prisoner, at point-blank range, no matter how low or degraded he may be, there is not a word to be said. The mere fact that the prisoner cannot answer ought to be enough to make counsel very sparing in the use of this weapon. The prisoner is brought into court, not to be railed at, but to be tried. The immediate effect of Judge Porter's abuse in this case was to take away from Guiteau's retorts and comments much of the air of ruffianism they would otherwise have had. It is not in human nature to expect any man under any circumstances to sit still under such a stream of billingsgate, much less a great scoundrel on trial for his life. Moreover, it was plainly unnecessary. It undoubtedly fell on the ears of the already convinced and very weary jurors.

It now appears that the prisoner will have an appeal to the next General Term of the court, which will not sit till April, and that if the appeal is rejected, he cannot be executed till June, when the court adjourns. Is there any good reason why Congress should not bring this great horror and scandal to a speedier close by passing a short act authorizing the General Term to hear the appeal at once, and permitting judgment to be executed immediately afterward? Otherwise we shall probably have Guiteau playing the lunatic with increasing vigor for the next six months, before a disgusted nation, in the hope of finally cheating the gallows, after all, by a reprieve.

GAMBETTA'S FALL.

The defeat of Gambetta in his contest with the Chamber over the *scrutin de liste* has been more complete than was anticipated, the vote being 305 to 117. The formal issue in the debate was whether the revising powers of the Constitutional Convention should be unlimited, or limited by the instructions of the Chambers, Gambetta contending fiercely for the limitation, under which he meant to estab-

lish the *scrutin de liste* and certain changes in the constitution of the Senate, which we enumerated last week. His devotion to the *scrutin de liste* is not surprising. There is little doubt that the *scrutin d'arrondissement* has done a good deal to weaken the control of the executive over the administrative machine, and to bring about a state of things somewhat similar to that which we see in this country, in which legislators make their support of the Government depend on the extent to which they are gratified in the matter of appointments. The member from a small district has to settle with all the office-seekers and wire-pullers of the district as a condition of his continuance in public life, and he can only satisfy them by wresting patronage from the Ministers. Under this system the French civil-service organization, which was once so remarkable for its discipline and obedience to the executive, has been rapidly falling into disorder, and the time of the Ministers has been taken up, to a degree before unknown in France, with the work of bargaining and adjusting "claims" with Deputies of their own party.

Of course one marked result of this is that absence of interest in real public questions on the part of the legislators with which we are so familiar here. Another—and for the Cabinet perhaps a more important one—is the impossibility of keeping together a compact majority for any great length of time. There are never enough offices "to go round," and for the one member who is satisfied with the "recognition" he gets, ten are annoyed. In fact, French leaders are discovering, what we have so long known, that public patronage is rather a disintegrating than a cohesive force. Besides which the French Deputies are not kept in the traces, even when disgusted, as they are here, by a powerful party organization out of doors, with its settled usages and traditions and its stern and ruthless requirements in the matter of fealty. The consequence is that the ministerial majority has become a rope of sand, by which no Ministry can count on living for more than a week or two.

It is not wonderful that Gambetta should wish to alter this state of things, resume the old governmental control of the civil service, and create a compact majority held together by community of opinion, and put an end to the "group" system. But what is surprising is the want of tact he has displayed in pushing his plan on an evidently hostile majority, in the teeth of the fact, which was made plain enough at the last election, that the country did not share his impatience for a revision. The change he seeks is a kind of change which an English Minister would consider himself fortunate in being able to bring about within ten years. But the defect of the French Constitution which Gambetta's fall most forcibly illustrates is the inability of the Ministry to dissolve the Chamber of Deputies without the consent of the Senate. It is difficult to see how a responsible Ministry without the power of dissolution can ever work successfully. In the first place, the Minister's power of dissolution is most effective in preventing petty revolts in his own party. The rank and file learn to hide their small chagrins when they know that if they indulge them too frequently they may have to run the risk and expense of a general election. And then, when a Minister comes to loggerheads with the Chamber, he ought to have the power of laying the question in dispute before the country at once and getting its decision, and getting with the decision, if favorable, a new majority pledged to support him. No imitation of the English system seems to be workable in which this feature is left out.

The French have now got back to what they call a "business Cabinet," or what we should call a Cabinet without politics. M. de Freycinet, the Premier, is probably the safest man in the Republican party, and although he is by profession an engineer, and has been a railroad manager, he is not beset with the passion for public improvements which was one of the weak points of the Gambetta Cabinet. He has filled several administrative posts with the highest credit, the last subordinate place being that of Minister of Public Works in the Waddington Ministry, which he succeeded as Premier in 1879. He is powerfully supported by Léon Say, who is now the most noted and orthodox political economist in France, and has what greatly strengthens an economist's authority—a large and well-managed fortune of his own. Jules Ferry also reappears on the scene, and so do M. Tirard, M. Cochery, and Admiral Jauréguiberry. In fact, in the matter of talent and prestige, the new Cabinet is almost the exact opposite of Gambetta's. Gambetta surrounded himself by comparatively obscure men, whose chief title to their places seemed to lie in devotion to his fortunes. The most conspicuous, if not the only, exception to this rule was M. Paul Bert, whose appointment to the Ministry of Public Worship had, however, the unfortunate air of being intended as a striking mark of the new Ministry's contempt for worship of every kind, both public and private. The Cabinet as thus constituted, too, recalled somewhat too vividly the great defect of Gambetta's career as Dictator during the war. Even those who most highly appreciated his services in prolonging the French resistance could not deny that he seemed somewhat reluctant to call men of established reputation to his aid, much less to be guided by their advice. But there were not many even of his enemies who expected him to make up his first Ministry on the same principle, and refuse or avoid the coöperation of men of independent views. He did it, however, and it proved from the outset a source of decided weakness, and largely contributed to his downfall. This downfall, taken in connection with the composition of the new Cabinet, must be considered on the whole as a sign of the very healthy condition of French politics. It shows that the country is slowly but surely getting over the need of a "necessary man," which has hitherto been the prominent feature of French political life and has worked the ruin of every régime which has preceded the present republic, and for a while made Gambetta to many people a "shape of dread."

The present financial situation in France is highly favorable to the success of the new Cabinet. Its accession to power finds all that portion of the French public which has anything to lose very sick, sore, and much afraid of and probably hostile to all speculative enterprises, home and foreign, and not the least interested in the revision of the Constitution. No combination that could be made would be much better fitted to satisfy this mood than M. de Freycinet's. France, after ten years of extraordinary prosperity, due in the main to an industry, and above all to a frugality, which no other people in Europe has displayed, has shown at last that she is not free from the weaknesses of her neighbors. Speculation, which under the Empire was mainly confined to the court circle, has taken hold of nearly everybody who had savings, not excepting the peasantry, and France has had her first purely financial panic since the Revolution. This may seem a startling assertion, but it is literally true, for all the other financial crises since 1789 have been brought about by political convulsions. The effect of them on the public mind was therefore invariably to cause a desire for a saviour of society who should bring back business prosperity by the use of the strong hand. In fact, it has until now been almost a settled tradition of French politics that the true remedy for a panic was military or semi-military rule. The experience of a panic, therefore, which has not only occurred in a time of general peace and prosperity, but is plainly due to the sanguine temper produced by peace and prosperity, and which is plainly curable only by sober business government and hard work, is undoubtedly a most valuable one. Every time Frenchmen get over an internal difficulty without the aid of troops they make an immense gain.

The greatest drawback in the new Cabinet from the commercial point of view is to be found in the return of M. Tirard to the Ministry of Commerce. He is a financier of the Boutwell type, having acquired his notions of international trade from the management of a jewelry store, and brought to the late negotiations for the renewal of the treaty of commerce with England a very narrow retail spirit, combined with a curious notion that it was his duty to discourage not only certain of the lines of international exchange, but certain branches of manufacture. It was almost admitted before he went out of office that the conclusion of a treaty through him was impossible. Whether the negotiations have in the meantime gone too far to be upset by his return to office, we do not know. But that hopes of a successful issue are still entertained is shown by the passage of a bill in the Chamber, on the motion of Gambetta's Minister of Commerce, M. Rouvier, providing for a three months' further extension of the existing treaties.

CHARLESTON REVISITED.—I.

JANUARY 23, 1882.

OF things not political, observed while spending the last holidays in Charleston, a few seem worthy of note. There can be no doubt that the general current of feeling, the tone of speech, is one of encouragement. "We have come through the worst," "Things are looking up," "We are more hopeful," "The times are better," are but a few of the common phrases. This, too, it should be remembered, is after a less abundant

cotton crop, and with a smaller rice crop than for many years. On two estates which I knew, not a grain of rice was gathered. Of outward signs of improvement, two or three are very evident. A considerable beginning has been made on the much-needed work of repaving the streets. The railroads have built new and extensive stations for both freight and passengers. A fine avenue has been surveyed along the upper front of the city, and thence up the Cooper River shore. The High School for Boys is in new quarters, in what was once the well-known mansion of Judge King, now remodelled and enlarged. What is still more important, work is to begin at once upon a very large, fine schoolhouse for the lower wards—a part of the town which, in proportion to area, contains the largest number of intelligent and well-to-do families. The East Bay, with the crowded wharves and cotton-presses, and the great cotton-ships in the harbor, looked just as they used to do, but the phosphate-works upon the Neck and along the shores of both rivers are something so novel as to surprise even one who was looking for them. The discovery of the phosphate-beds, and the sudden and extensive development of a new industry in the manufacture of fertilizers from it, are matters of common history now, but the wonder of the long concealment of their value and the opportuneness of the discovery is none the less. Said to me Prof. Holmes, to whose research the result is mainly due: "Almost forty years ago Prof. Agassiz staid six weeks in my house, and we went over and over the phosphate-beds, studying the fossils in them and writing whole books about them, but we never thought of the chemistry of them."

A new experiment is just now undertaken upon the Sea Islands which may have scarcely less important results in the future of the State. It is what has always been considered impossible on any great scale—the cultivation of grass for hay. A native grass has been found apparently answering all the requirements of the case, and the tests of one or two years have been so satisfactory that more than one estate in St. Andrew's parish is now devoted to this crop. To give up plantations once bearing Sea Island cotton to grass seems like the rooting up of the ancient vineyards in the Rheingau a generation ago—enough to make the old masters turn in their graves; but with the conditions of labor and capital now existing, and as they must exist for a long time to come, variety of industry is the true wisdom.

The specific traces of the war are very few. The wide gap still to be discerned through the heart of the city marks the path of the fire of December, 1861. The city endured continuous though inconstant shelling for five hundred days; and for nearly three years the whole lower half of it was tenantless and deserted. It is the effect of that dampness of climate which makes the whole city look so like an old English town, to obliterate very quickly any marks of external repairs. A house untouched for ten years is as gray as if it were a hundred. Yet a closer inspection reveals curious proofs of the desolation of that time. We chanced to be occupants of a very old house, the reputed residence, I believe, of the last Colonial Governor, but at any rate so old as to have nothing distinctively Southern about it—no sign of porch or gallery. It stands square, grim, and severe, with iron railings and lamp-posts in front, the exact London house of the last century. The heavy, hand-made window-sashes were such as used to be sent out from England in that day; but three or four, either upper or lower, had been recently replaced by the slight frames of machine-make. Just below us was the Battery, the small park and promenade at the meeting of the two rivers. There are fine houses on the inner side of it with pleasant gardens. Walking round it on Christmas Eve, in the warm air, sweet with rose and violet, and, beyond, the glitter of a sunlit sea, it was easy to believe in and to share the pride which every true Charlestonian takes in it. I had last seen it, one April afternoon, under a dull, leaden sky. The big rain-drops came in sudden, fitful gusts, but no one heeded them, for out against the misty horizon Fort Moultrie and Fort Sumter were answering each other. The high walk was full of people, yet not a sound was heard except the slow grating of wheels upon the street pavement, and now and then the quick splash of a wave driven over the parapet by the east wind. Women stood with awe-struck faces. I recall one with folded hands and tears on her cheeks. No one then could have supposed that the engagement would be harmless to life; and if there were hearts that trembled for the loyal Anderson, the flower of Charleston was at Fort Moultrie.

We went thither on Christmas Eve. The brick walls are still intact, but within it is only a mouldering heap of sand scarce kept in shape by the straggling wild grass. There is now a large summer village on Sullivan's Island stretching the whole three miles of its length, as odd a mingling of rude cabins and fine houses (according to Southern needs) as can be imagined. At the water's edge at low tide may still be seen the boiler of a stranded blockade-runner, and further out the turret of a monitor is visible. But by way of contrast, on the other side, sheltered in the lee of the island, is going on the peaceful preparation of the brush-work with which to repeat the Mississippi jetties, to deepen the channel over the bar. One man keeps solitary ward at Fort Sumter. For two-thirds of the year no one cares enough about him or his to provide any regular means for getting thither, but in the late winter, when the Northern tourists swarm this way, there are frequent excursions to the fort.

The war is truly very far away from what is now the working world of Charleston. I do not mean to draw too general conclusions from personal experience; but where not one dissenting voice is heard, it is fair to infer unanimity of feeling. One day's stay would prove that the war is neither a forbidden nor a delicate subject. It is simply frankly mentioned as occasion requires. Personal griefs have been softened by time; the past, with its pains and its losses, is absolutely the past, and, because it is never to be renewed again, there is no longer bitterness. The cordial welcome is made only the more kindly if it be to Northerners. Criticism of themselves is outspoken: "We believed what the Charleston *Mercury* told us." Of the burning of the bridge over the Ashley, one said: "We did it ourselves; and it was such a pity." "A great piece of folly," said another. The evidences of the thorough acceptance of the new conditions of life crowd upon any careful observer. "You may go through the land, and you will not find man or woman who would wish the old ways back again." But there is deep regret in the tone in which they speak of the next years after the war. They are "the bad times"; "the troublous times of twelve years ago"; "the hard years when we were so heavily taxed by the Radical Administration of the State." "The dark days" in their speech are not the days of the war, but of that early struggle to renew their homes, to build again the waste places. Hearing this, one understands the thankfulness with which it is said: "We are encouraged; we have now the control of this city and of our State, and of our principal municipalities."

This means most in Charleston itself; for there is there a clinging personal affection and pride for the city unlike anything elsewhere. It has never been a large community, and in no other city has there been so little change in the leading influences for a century. Even the war did not alter it permanently. New men and new fortunes have come in, but the old traditions are held fast with a sense of age and of history which give to the society an individuality and a charm to be found nowhere else in our shifting time, since the Boston of forty years ago disappeared. You find the feeling not only in the fond memories of the aged; the children are born to it. Said an audacious young person from a big city in the West: "I have been out in the *village* this morning." To which her hostess, a loyal little maiden, replied: "Yes, I know it is small, faded, if you like, and old; but it is because it is old that I love it. It might be the great-grandmother of your young, fine Western town." If in their losses and their poverty the world has swept on and left them something behind, seeing the patient endurance, the sweet dignity that accepts the narrowed lot, you feel for once—so much the worse for the world.

Of the great mourning last autumn, the indignation and the sorrow in the South were not exaggerated. More than that, there is a feeling of surprise that any should suppose it could be otherwise. "When the President, the head of the Federal Government, fell by the bullet of an assassin, we rose up with one feeling." At the annual dinner of the New England Society in Charleston on Forefathers' Day, it was not a New-Englander, but the District Attorney, "a South Carolinian, born and reared, a Confederate soldier who has nothing to go back on," who said: "There were no flowers on that bier more fragrant than those sent by the people of South Carolina. . . . The whole State, the whole South, the whole country attended at that funeral." Of President Arthur's first message he said: "The President of the United States says nothing about the Southern section of our country, thank God! and in the eloquence of that silence he speaks golden words, and tells us all that there is nothing that divides us now—that all is covered up in the grave of the lamented Garfield." It happened to us the very next day after the dinner to listen to the Christmas greetings and the New-Year's wishes of a large party of schoolgirls. The scene had all the brightness which youth and hope must always wear, so that there was a strange pathos in the grave shadow that came on even the youngest faces as the chronicle of the old year was read. It was but a girl's voice, yet it was the echo of a nation's lament, and she spoke wiser than she knew: "By that grave, strife and contention have been hushed as never before."

WHAT IS THE STATE OF ENGLISH OPINION ABOUT IRELAND?

London, January 17, 1882.

My main difficulty in answering the question which heads this letter is my doubt as to the truth of the assumption on which the inquiry itself rests. Is there any such thing as a determinate "English opinion" with regard either to Irish affairs or to any other of the chief political problems of the day? There are plausible grounds for asserting that no such definite national opinion in reality exists. Politicians, it is true, of every school, asseverate with confidence that certain dogmas of their own are accepted by all Englishmen, with the exception, indeed, of a few fools or fanatics whose absurdities are not worth taking into account. One orator asserts that the English people are prepared to support the Government through thick and thin. Another speaker is well assured that all men of

sense hold the Ministry in contempt, and are determined that at any price the law shall be maintained in Ireland. Some of my friends are certain that the country will not tolerate coercion; a few hint that the time has come for conceding Home Rule and of trying the experiment of letting Ireland take care of herself. From the honesty and confidence with which equally acute observers pronounce contradictory judgments on the drift of English sentiment, it is impossible not to infer that in fact the nation, or even (what is a somewhat different thing) the electorate, has not in reality come to any definite conclusion whatever as to the proper policy to be adopted in dealing with Irish difficulties.

Nor is the vagueness, the uncertainty, and the fluctuating character of that public opinion which is supposed, rightly or not, to be the ruling power in a free state, a mere transitory accident. Till some crisis arrives the English democracy is likely enough neither to form nor to express a clear, imperative decision on Irish policy. One set of opinions will counterbalance another; the prejudices or principles of strong Tories will be counteracted by the sentiments or convictions of violent Democrats, and the nation will remain content to leave the conduct of affairs to the Ministry in power. Indeed, the most marked feature of modern English politics is the increasing influence of the executive. Any Premier who can retain the trust of the electors is little checked by objections to details of his policy. Mr. Gladstone's popularity (which I do not believe to be as yet seriously diminished among the large constituencies) no doubt gives the Government a freedom of action which would not be possessed by a Cabinet guided by a less popular chief. Still, any one who reflects on the course of events during the last fifteen years will, I think, conclude that the English democracy show a tendency to confer wide discretionary powers upon any statesman whom they recognize as their leader. Lord Beaconsfield might, I conceive, have considerably altered the details of his foreign policy without either increasing or diminishing his influence. If he had occupied Egypt, if he had given genuine support to the claims of Greece, even if he had gone a good deal further than he did in opposing the progress of Russia, he might have done so without losing office an hour sooner than the day on which he was compelled to resign. Mr. Gladstone, again, has had and still has pretty much *carte blanche* as to the minutiæ of his political conduct. The Land Bill was for all intents and purposes what he chose that it should be. He was at perfect liberty to bring in either a much less effective or a much more revolutionary measure. Whatever the bill had been, the electors would, it is probable, have insisted on its being passed.

So it is with regard to coercion. Few are the signs that popular constituencies object to the arrest of Mr. Parnell. Few, again, are the signs that public opinion absolutely demanded his arrest. The most curious feature of the whole crisis through which England and Ireland have been passing since the Ministry came into power, is the calmness of the English people. I do not mention this as wholly to their credit. Indifference to the sufferings of Irish landlords is not a bit more deserving of praise than indifference to the wrongs of Irish peasants. And it is impossible to keep one's mind free from a suspicion that public calmness is to a certain extent another name for perfect indifference. Still, on the whole, my belief is that the absence of passion and violence which has hitherto marked the bearing of Englishmen at a time when there was and is much to excite their justifiable irritation and anger, is due in the main to two permanent causes. Fifty years of really free government have accustomed the people of Great Britain to freedom of discussion, and to that toleration of even unpopular opinions of which freedom of discussion is, or ought to be, the parent. At the same time the vast increase of the electorate has created a disposition to place large if temporary authority in the hands of the Minister of the day, and to hold that all matters of administration (using that term in a very wide sense) must be left in the unfettered control of the man or men who possess the confidence of the country. The approval of the country may, of course, be at any moment withdrawn. The palpable failure of the ministerial policy, any movement in Ireland which required to be put down by measures which shocked the ordinary sense of humanity, any concession to Irish demands which was held by the mass of electors to compromise the dignity or the prosperity of the country, might in a moment drive Mr. Gladstone from power. The Conservative reaction of 1874 ought no more to be forgotten by an impartial observer than the Liberal triumph of 1880. Whenever the next crisis arrives, the voice of the nation will no doubt make itself heard in tones the import of which is unmistakable. Meanwhile, the best course to be taken by any one who wishes to form an estimate of the probable future current of opinion is, to dismiss from his mind the delusion that any one predominant English opinion about Irish affairs does at this moment exist, and to try to trace out the different opinions which, as a matter of fact, appear to exist among different bodies of men.

The definite opinions entertained either by large numbers or by persons of any weight with regard to the "Irish question" (if I may use a convenient piece of political slang) are, as far as my observations go, fourfold:

First, the Government, as represented by Mr. Bright and the vast majority of the Government's supporters, hold that the one essential matter is to ensure the operation of the Land Act. Until that measure of agrarian reform has had time to produce its beneficial effects, society must be kept together by means of what is called coercion, or, in other words, by a system of arbitrary arrest exercised by Ministers who, like Mr. Forster, are assuredly men of humanity, heartily desirous of avoiding acts of oppression, and utterly averse to bloodshed. Many persons who will not agree with Mr. Bright in holding that arbitrary arrest and a suspension of the ordinary course of law are "a resource of civilization," will yet, if they are candid, admit that there is a good deal to be said in favor of the policy advocated by the member for Birmingham, and that at any rate the Government's scheme of ruling Ireland by means of humane despotism intended to give time for the operation of agrarian reform, is sure to commend itself to some of the best feelings of Englishmen. The great merit of Mr. Bright's favorite resource of civilization is that it does not involve those acts of violence which, even when legally justifiable, leave behind them an amount of popular resentment which the lapse of years may not efface. Mr. Bright and Mr. Bright's special followers are exactly the persons to appreciate at the full the tremendous evils of violence and bloodshed. Mr. Bright can probably remember the Peterloo massacre. Whether the conduct of the magistrates and yeomen in 1819 was legal, is still matter in dispute. That the slaughter of unarmed men was not for years forgiven by the artisans of Lancashire, there is no doubt whatever. The policy of coercion may not be a policy of justice; it is assuredly a policy of humanity. The evil of suspending the regular action of law is a great evil, but it is one which does not powerfully strike the popular imagination. Every man who listened to Mr. Bright at Birmingham was able fully to appreciate, and did appreciate, all the evil and cruelty involved in any course of action which necessitates the free use of armed force.

The plain truth is that the sentiment of English electors is, when their passions are not very violently roused, the sentiment of humane men, who detest the shedding of blood. Those who recall the suppression of the Sepoy revolt may doubt the humanity of the English electorate; but it should be remembered that in 1857 the whole civilized world believed the Indian troops to be guilty of atrocities the commission of which has certainly never been proved; that Englishmen, no less than Americans, do in fact think much less of the sufferings of Asiatics than they would of the sufferings of Europeans; that Ireland is not India, and that during the last twenty-five years considerable changes have been wrought in English sentiment. Those who reflect on these matters will come to the conclusion that even Conservatives would, in 1882, not tolerate anything like the horrors of 1798, and that it is natural for English Radicals to look with considerable favor on the policy which, if illogical and arbitrary, is yet not inhumane, and which promises a fair chance of success to the scheme of reform which it is hoped will render the Irish people contented. The fact that Irish landlords suffer hardship or even injustice does not, I am afraid, very vehemently annoy English electors. English squires are not themselves quite so popular with laborers and artisans as squires are apt to suppose, and Radical electors have learnt to think, rightly or wrongly, that Irish landowners have all the faults of English squires, and a good number of their own to boot. If the Land Act palpably fails of its object, or if, after all, the executive are compelled to use measures of repression more violent than arbitrary arrests, the Ministry may lose popular support. Meanwhile, the ministerial view of the situation seems to be, on the whole, the view adopted by the majority of Liberal electors.

Secondly, some writers, of whom Mr. Goldwin Smith is by far the most distinguished, advocate the doctrine that the right mode of dealing with Irish disturbance is rigorously to enforce the law by the strict use of legal means, and that if through the unsuitability of trial by jury to the present condition of Ireland the law cannot be enforced, the part of wisdom is to suspend not the action of the law, but the course of trial by jury. I so decidedly incline to think this view the only sound view that I am not at all likely to do it injustice; but I am convinced that it has little hold, and never will have much hold, upon ordinary public opinion. Conservatives who tremble for the lives and property of Irish landlords cannot be brought to believe that a mere change in legal procedure will be of any considerable effect in checking the tyranny or violence of tenants excited by the cry of "no rent." Radicals, on the other hand, will always think (mistakenly in my opinion) that to abolish trial by jury is a far more serious inroad upon the principles of the Constitution than to pass coercion acts which appear, at least, to be a temporary resource intended to tide over the pressing difficulties of a crisis.

Thirdly, there are undoubtedly to be found persons who believe that the one cure for the political diseases of Ireland is the establishment of martial law throughout that country. It is now nearly a year, if my memory does not deceive me, since the sole organ of militant Toryism, the *St. James's Gazette*, announced that the proclamation of martial law was the one thing needful; and there are probably many persons who hold in a vague way that Ireland can be brought into a condition of order by the free use of cannons and bayonets. Whether this sentiment is or is not widely spread I am not in a

position to assert. Probably there is no one, from the Prime Minister downward, who can form a really trustworthy opinion as to the extent to which the transactions of the last two years have tried the patience of English electors. The man who can believe that "force *is* a remedy" for evils which are the growth of the mistakes, crimes, and calamities of centuries, believes, as it seems to me, in the face of all reason, that a medicine which has failed time after time is a specific. But I do not wish to underrate the possible influence of views which I do not share. The utter failure of the Land Act, or deeds of cruelty which excited the severe and just indignation of the whole of Great Britain, might at any moment carry the people of England and Scotland, so to speak, off their feet. I should, under certain circumstances, witness with much more of grief than of surprise the growth of a general conviction that justice had been tried with Irishmen in vain, and that there was nothing left for England but to show her power. I cannot even mention the possibility of such a turn in popular sentiment without reiterating my firm belief that no change of feeling could be more calamitous to the United Kingdom. I do, however, hold it quite possible that the cry for martial law may gather strength. Meanwhile, the advocates for the use of force belong, to judge from appearances, mainly to the well-to-do classes. No public meeting of a popular character has, as far as I know, been held in support of a policy of what may be termed violent coercion. The Property Defence Association did not, apparently, enlist the sympathy of the mass of the electors. One may doubt whether even wealthy Englishmen feel much inclined to support a proposal for entrusting the duties, responsibilities, and powers of the Government to a society which must of necessity be composed for the most part of violent partisans.

Fourthly, any one who studies the signs of the time will perceive that an idea is gradually gaining ground that the true solution for the Irish question is that England should grant Home Rule to Ireland. The only politician who has avowed this doctrine is Mr. Labouchere. He is not a man whose proposals carry any great weight with the public. This particular suggestion was heard with patience by his constituents, but they gave no sign that it met with their approval, and Mr. Bradlaugh has not, as far as I have observed, endorsed the views of his colleague. But, for all this, it is worth while to pay attention to Mr. Labouchere's utterances. He is a man of ability; he knows the world; he is freed from many conventional trammels; he has good opportunities for seeing which way the wind blows. He is not likely to have made himself gratuitously the advocate of an unpopular view unless he had some reason to suppose that he was putting forward ideas which might, in the not distant future, command a good deal of support. It is fair to conjecture that he believes the time to be drawing near when the English democracy, wearied with attempts to conciliate Ireland, may think that the wisest course is to let Irishmen have their own way. He may not be utterly mistaken. English workingmen are becoming naturally impatient at the amount of time given by the Imperial Parliament to Irish questions. They think, I am told, that we ought now to have an "English session." They are probably—though on this matter no one can speak with certainty—averse to measures of violence. It is, therefore, conceivable that democratic electors might in time come to think that the evils of Home Rule are exaggerated, and that to concede local government to Ireland would at once satisfy Irishmen and save trouble to Englishmen. It is fair to add that I do not myself think this solution of the Irish question either desirable or possible. The inhabitants of Great Britain, are, I believe, firmly determined not to resolve the United Kingdom into a federation; and any party which was believed, rightly or wrongly, to be favorable to the dismemberment of the empire would, I suspect, when a crisis arose, find themselves as weak as did the Northerners who on one ground or another suggested the advisability of letting the South secede in peace. But it is one thing to hold this opinion and another thing to shut my eyes to the fact that views favorable to the concession of some sort of Home Rule are gradually gaining ground, and will sooner or later demand and receive serious discussion.

Amid the chaos of opinions with regard to Ireland, men of sense among all parties are, as it seems to me, beginning to agree in at least one definite conclusion. There is no one certain or immediate panacea for the evils under which Ireland is suffering. The country is passing through a revolutionary period. Whatever may be the outcome of what is going on before our eyes, every one whose thoughts are worth having is convinced that the restoration of social order and general prosperity in Ireland must be a matter of years, and perhaps of many years.

A. V. Dicey.

EGYPTIAN AFFAIRS.

Alexandria, January 10, 1882.

During the last few weeks public attention has been distracted between the claims of the cholera at Mecca, the movements of Arabi Bey, and the press laws. But inasmuch as hardly any trustworthy information comes through the medium of such daily papers as have not yet been suppressed, the information which is to be obtained on all these topics is usually of a desultory and fragmentary kind. It bears upon it much of the impress of gossip in the sense that it oscillates between two opposite extremes of exaggeration, and the real truth only evolves itself after a long and patient examination of every class of witnesses who have anything to say upon the matter. It may be said at the outset, that when one speaks in Alexandria of public attention, it must not be supposed that general news of any kind excites the same sort of interest which it does in a European or American capital. There is, even in the most intelligent circles of society, a certain want of energy and political inquisitiveness which is partly due to climatic influences, and partly to absorption in commercial affairs. The result is that the most amazing alternations of Bedouin massacres, wholesale expulsion of foreigners, and patriotic insurrections are discussed in an easy and courteous way over the dinner-table and in the presence of happy families, with somewhat less zeal or passion than the prospects of the Oxford and Cambridge boat-race are discussed with in England toward the close of Lent. It is, in fact, extraordinary for a traveller who has recently arrived from England to find how the alarming Egyptian news which figures in conspicuous, large-printed telegrams, shrinks into moderate proportions when the real facts are ascertained, and when the reported news, even if true, is laid side by side with a number of small explanatory circumstances which reduce it to insignificance. In a word, it may be laid down generally that the large majority of telegrams despatched from residents here to the European papers are false. They are not usually baseless, but their falsity consists in the impossibility of telling the news in a form which really would be truthful through the condensed medium of the longest of the telegrams which have ever appeared.

With respect to the cholera, there is no doubt that at first great delay and negligence took place in establishing such a quarantine as would prevent the pilgrims returning from Mecca bringing the cholera with them. The memories of one of the last epidemics of cholera in Alexandria, in which residents here will tell you that as many as fifteen hundred persons, Europeans as well as natives, died in a day, have naturally made the public somewhat sensitive on the subject. However, a quarantine was soon established at two points on the homeward route to Egypt, and sanitary authorities were constituted, having large powers to arrest the spread of infection. One difficulty experienced was that of suddenly extemporizing at El-Wisch, one of the resting points adjoining the Red Sea, commissariat arrangements sufficient to provide for incessant caravans of pilgrims arriving from Mecca without provisions for a compulsory stay of weeks duration. It seems, however, that these difficulties have, on the whole, been surmounted, and with the exception of flying rumors that an occasional pilgrim succeeds in breaking the quarantine and swimming across the Suez Canal, the reports are much more favorable. In the meantime, the deaths from cholera at the seats of the disease are largely reduced.

The audacious or eccentric step taken by Colonel Arabi Bey in writing a letter to the English *Times* is felt to be a guarantee for his disposition to substitute appeals to reason in the place of appeals to sedition. The difficulty in according credit to his assertion that the movement he represents is nothing but a genuinely patriotic one, and means neither more nor less than "Egypt for the Egyptians" (and not for highly salaried European officials) is due to the fact that in the case of such an inanimate native population as this, not represented by any public press worthy of the name, it is impossible to distinguish between what is the mind of the people and what is the mind of a few persons who only use "the people" as their stalking-horse. A truly patriotic cry in this country ought to receive sympathy in all constitutionally governed countries. But it would be a misfortune to arrest the real progress of Egypt by breaking up the only conditions under which order and prosperity can be at present secured, even if this be done in the time-honored name of popular rights. Within this country there are at least four distinctly-recognizable political parties, and there are any number of political parties outside the country, including that of Ismaïl, the last Khedive, and the various foreign representatives of the different classes of Egyptian securities. The parties inside the country are that of the Khedive himself, that of Colonel Arabi Bey, that of the Sultan of Turkey, and that of the French and English Control. The party of the Khedive is less distinct than any of the others, owing in some measure to the personal excellences of the Khedive himself. It may still be a matter of doubt whether it was from timidity or from moderation that in last September he abstained from adopting the advice tendered him to have Col. Arabi Bey seized on the spot and tried by court-martial as a rebel. It is certain that the present Khedive is a man of genuine and exceptional piety, though not a fanatic; that he is a friend of education and of social reforms; that he desires to do his work well as a ruler of the country, and that his private life is of rare goodness, even from a Western standpoint. But many of these very qualities would dispose him to sympathize with one or other of the three parties which compete with his own. His religion might lead him to be Pan-Islamic and to favor the aggression of Turkey; his good sense and recent antecedents would lead him to support the European Control; his patriotism must make him not altogether indifferent to the cry of the party which professes to be characteristically patriotic. It is yet uncertain to which party he will finally incline.

The recent engagement of England, on behalf of united England and France, to support him in any emergency, seems to be an indication that he has finally closed with the only party which can effectually carry on the redemption of the country from years of misgovernment, as well as secure his own throne. The Assembly of the Notables, which is just getting to business after receiving and replying to a courteous address from the Khedive, from which little political augury can be extracted, may, perhaps, soon throw a fresh light on the future. A.

Correspondence.

THE POWERS OF A QUORUM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An instance occurs to me which may go to confirm to Mr. Whitmore the validity of the Maine Supreme Court's presumption in law that the "other man" was either "thar or tharabouts." In 1787 the majority of the Pennsylvania Assembly, which was Federalist, but not a quorum, wished to pass a bill for holding the convention to consider the new Constitution. The bill allowed only ten days for the election of delegates, in order to cut off the anti-Federalists of western Pennsylvania from getting the intelligence in time to take part. The minority absented themselves, but a mob seized enough of them to make up a quorum, carried them into the House, and held them in their seats while the bill was passed by a majority of the quorum thus obtained. Mr. Whitmore will perhaps perceive from this instance that some of the "fathers of the republic," as well as the Maine Supreme Court, understood that there are quorums and quorums. J.

Norwalk, Conn., Jan. 27, 1882.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your Boston correspondent, who inquires concerning the power of the voting majority of a quorum to bind the non-voting but present minority, may get some light from the case of Bank *vs.* Mount Tabor, 52 Vermont, 87.

A quorum is that part of an entire deliberative body—usually, but not always, a majority of the whole—which has power to act for the whole, very much as the officers of a town, or some other like select body of citizens, may act for the whole municipality of which they are but a small part. According to the authorities cited in the case above referred to, if, in public matters, the whole number of such a select body be duly called on to act, and given an opportunity, then the act of the majority is sufficient.

Very respectfully yours, H. A. Harman.

Bennington, Vt., Jan. 27, 1882.

THE RAISED STANDARDS OF OUR COLLEGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your discussion of the merits of the Harvard plan as compared with the Yale plan of college government—the former being based on the supposed ability of the student to choose his own course of study, and on his willingness to follow it out unconstrained, while the latter treats the college student as a mere schoolboy, to be guided and figuratively birched—you call the former the European, the latter the American idea of the college. But you do not state why most American colleges, especially the smaller ones, have failed to introduce *Lernfreiheit* (freedom of studies), and why this system is of so late growth even at Harvard. Yet the reason is very simple. It is but fifty years since a boy who from his primary school went on through all the institutions of learning that culminated with the college degree of B.A., would, in the absence of either precocious skipping, on the one hand, or of lagging or interruptions, on the other, attain that degree at the age of eighteen or nineteen—that is, at the age at which, at the present day, most freshmen enter upon their course at Harvard, being not much older, indeed, than the freshmen of other high-grade colleges, like Yale, Amherst, or Princeton. The Bachelor's degree of our best American colleges was then no higher than the "certificate of maturity" given to those who finish their studies at a German gymnasium or French lycée, or than a pass from the highest form at Eton or Rugby. It was therefore then quite proper that the same discipline, both in the direction of the choice of studies and in keeping them to their books and out of bad ways, should be applied to the American college students as to the *Primaner* and *Secundaner* of Germany, and to the boys in the four upper forms of the French lycée and of the English "public school." But during the last fifty years the academic department in several of our best colleges has grown upward as much as two, three, or even four years. These colleges, therefore, have to deal with very different material, both in the pupils—formerly boys, now young men—to be taught, and in the subjects to be imparted. While the freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors of Harvard in 1832 corresponded pretty closely to the first and second-year *Secundaner* and the first and second-year *Primaner* of Germany, etc., at present the students of the three upper Harvard classes, at least, must be ranked with the attendants at a philosophical faculty in Germany, Switzerland, Austria, or the Netherlands, or with the hearers at the Sorbonne in Paris.

So much for the *personnel* of those who are to be taught. But as to the things to be taught, there is a vast difference again between those rudimentary branches which make up a good education, and the higher pursuit of the same studies which constitutes learning or scholarship. It may be granted that the amount of Latin, Greek, rhetoric, and mathematics which our boys can learn, and at our high schools do learn, by the time they reach the age of eighteen, is necessary to give them that culture to which they all aspire, and that this modicum of knowledge and practice in these branches must lie at the bottom of all further literary and scientific training. But it by no means follows that when this broad foundation has been laid, it may not then be high time for the student to understand that this life is too short for the acquisition of all art and learning, and that he must now choose one or more specialties in which he may make himself a proficient scholar, whereas he can only become a smatterer if he spreads his efforts over all the fields of human knowledge. Thus the choice of studies as well as the abandonment of discipline is the natural outgrowth of the raised standard of our better colleges, and it should go hand in hand with the upward extension of the college course.

And here I am met with the greatest obstacle to the successful working of American colleges, the great difference in the meaning of the word "college" when applied to the different institutions bearing that name—a difference so great that the Bachelor's degree of one college does not imply as high a proficiency in science or letters as is required for admission to the freshman class of another. As long as this difference is not clearly recognized, both by the governing and teaching bodies, and by the public that patronizes them, no rational treatment of the American college problem can be reached.

Respectfully, L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., Jan. 22, 1882.

THE NOMINATION OF CANDIDATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having seen no very satisfactory suggestion of a method of nominating candidates by political parties before elections—not even in the letters appearing in the *Nation*, nor in your comments upon them—I venture to call your attention to the mode now successfully operating in France. No doubt you are familiar with it; so I will simply ask you to discuss it in your own way for the benefit of your readers.

What is known as the "Crawford County System" of nominations has been spoken of by correspondents. The Democratic party in this county (Cumberland) follows that system; but it neither satisfies them nor the Republicans, who are usually in the minority. Were we sure that a Republican could not win, we should often like to join in the preliminary or nominating election, so as to secure the nomination for the best Democrat. It is hard enough for the minority party to be outvoted. It is still worse for them to see the public officers selected by a bare majority of the other party—that is, by about one-fourth of the voters. Then, too, our own candidates are selected by influences over which we have little control.

I have sometimes thought it would be an improvement if candidates of all political creeds were to nominate themselves and be voted on at the election itself, with a provision in the election law that in case of no election the two candidates having the highest number of votes should be voted upon over again. This would involve one, or at most two, elections. As matters now stand there may be three elections, more excitement, more discontent, and more danger of improper practices.

Yours respectfully, A.

Carlisle, Pa., January 30, 1882.

SERVANTS' CLOTHES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To my mind the artist you quote in your article of this week on "Men's Clothes" appears to make a grave point when he says that the present style of evening dress tends to make gentlemen of fashion indistinguishable from waiters. This uniformity of black coat and white cravat for both master and menial is certainly open to objection, and often leads to awkward mistakes. Persons from remote and provincial parts of the country, when occasionally introduced into the gilded saloons of metropolitans who have made their "pile," may bow before a servant of courtly presence and bearing, like the late lamented director of ceremonies, lay and clerical, in New York high life, instead of to the less portly and portentous host. In the street the drab suit and folded arms of the Jehu very conveniently distinguish him from the gentleman holding the reins by his side. And if it be consistent with democratic ideas to put a coachman in capes and cockade, what American could object to clothing the evening waiter in some mild and subdued form of regimentals? As you prudently suggest, our busy and money-making citizens can hardly be expected to be so taken captive by the æsthetic lectures and knee-breeches of Mr. Wilde as to be induced to array themselves at evening parties in scarlet waistcoats and rose-colored neckties. But why not try some of these new-fangled clothes on their flunkies?

If even the most cultivated and learned men of

the Old World, if not of the New, manifest an innate longing for stars, ribbons, and epaulets, we certainly should expect to find no difficulty in imposing on our domestics at social entertainments such distinguishing and becoming garments as flame-colored vests or scarlet breeches. Nothing would please Bridget more than to stick a high-colored feather in her cap. The breast of Pompey would be quick to swell beneath the gilded decoration of a chain. There would be, therefore, no great difficulty in harnessing up all our dependents at balls and parties in uniforms more or less pronounced, according to tastes. The waiting-women might be compressed into stomachers, or have their heads powdered. Every little maid might beam with embroidered sunflowers, or glow with painted Jacqueminots, or be made soft with violets in water-color. The butlers and the pages might wear wigs. Perhaps, indeed, only the chosen æsthetes, who have the courage of their convictions, and whose enthusiasm in the cause of clothes reform is only heightened by the railing of the Philistines, would venture on this innovation at the outset. But by the natural process of evolution in fashions, if a beginning were made by simply having the flunky's locks curled by a barber, it might easily follow that whoever was bald should have a towering scratch set on him, and then it would surely be possible that men and women now living might see the night when every serving-man's brows would be arrayed like the head of Louis XIV., and every serving-woman's top-knot be as ceremonious as the periwig of my Lady Pompadour. Let the æsthetic children of light, inspired by the teachings of the gentle Oscar, invent their festal trappings appropriate to the class of domestic servants. Families and clans might run on different colors. Some would naturally be pleased to see their menials clad in a trifle of purple. Others, more modest, might select the drab. There are shades enough from scarlet to sky-blue and pea-green; there is a host of lovely neutral tints, sufficient to accommodate all lovers of the beautiful investments. Go slow at first! And by the time the new gospel of adornment shall be accepted in the circles of our best society, and by the time the independent voters of the nation shall have elected a President for life, it is not absolutely impossible that all good Americans will be prepared, throwing off the bad and uneasy disguise of black dress-coats, to put not only their underlings but themselves into livery.

M.

Great Barrington, Mass., January 28, 1882.

Notes.

The second volume of Mr. James Schouler's valuable 'History of the United States under the Constitution' is in press, and will probably be published in March by W. H. & O. H. Morrison, Washington.——R. Worthington announces for immediate publication 'Familiar Science Studies,' by Richard A. Proctor. Some of the topics are: Notes on Infinity, Science and Religion, The Origin of the Week, The Pyramids of Ghizeh, Sun Spots and Financial Panics, The Fifteen Puzzle, Etna, Our Astronomers Royal, etc., etc.——A. C. Armstrong & Son will shortly issue an American (from the third English) edition of Miss Gordon Cumming's 'At Home in Fiji'; and 'Apologetics,' by the late Dr. Henry B. Smith, being his last course of lectures.——Besides his selection of 'English Essays,' Mr. Austin Dobson is preparing Gay's 'Fables' for the "Parchment Series" of Kegan Paul, Trench & Co., most of the volumes of which, by arrangement, reappear in New York as the "English Classics" of D. Appleton & Co. For the same series, Mr. J. Brander Matthews has undertaken to edit the 'Dramatic Essays' of Charles Lamb, which have hitherto been scattered throughout Lamb's writings; he will prefix a brief essay on Lamb as a dramatist and as a critic of the drama.——We learn from the *Athenæum* that Mr. Justin McCarthy is writing for the Messrs. Longman's series of "Epochs of Modern History" a volume on the 'Epoch of Reform, 1830–1850,' which, if broad enough in its scope, ought to interest us as much as his own countrymen. Also, that Mr. Hall Caine has collected and will publish in the spring a number of the earliest criticisms on Wordsworth, Southey, Coleridge, Byron, Leigh Hunt, Shelley, and Keats, under the title of 'Critical Solecisms.'——Dodd, Mead & Co. have revived a work which, even if it were not minutely truthful, could always be profitably read for its examples of practical philanthropy; we refer to the late Mrs. Child's 'Isaac T. Hopper,' first published in 1852. As a portrait of Father Hopper, the man and the Quaker, and a picture of his times, its value is not likely to decrease with years. We have not been able to discover the added sketch by Mrs. Kirkland alluded to in the present preface; and we could wish something better had been substituted for the odd and antiquated "Particular Index."——Miss Alcott supplies a preface to the new edition of the 'Prayers of Theodore Parker,' just brought out by Roberts Bros. We cannot remember whether the portrait engraved by Schoff accompanied the earlier edition. ——Next to loyalty to the flag itself must be ranked Rear-Admiral Preble's devotion to the 'History of the Flag,' of which a third edition lies before us. The second was reviewed at length in the *Nation* of December 23, 1880 (No. 808), and it is only necessary to say of this revision that "several pages of notes have been added, bringing the matter up to date"; that some typographical and verbal errors have been corrected, and that the handsome and unavoidably costly work is now published by J. R. Osgood & Co.——The English translation of Ebers's 'Egypt' (Cassell & Co.) has now reached part 24, and the end is fairly in sight. In the last four numbers the theme is Upper Egypt—Siut, Abydos, Dendera, Karnak.——As numbers 1521 and 1522 of Philip Reclam's *Universalbibliothek* (Leipzig, 1882) has appeared Mr. H. H. Boyesen's commentary on 'Faust,' included in his 'Goethe and Schiller: Their Lives and Works.' The German translation, which is excellently done, is by Otfrid Mylius (Dr. Otto Müller of Stuttgart). ——The '*Era* Almanac,' the English theatrical year-book, has recently appeared for the fifteenth time, with the usual statistics, obituaries, anecdotes, and miscellaneous articles. The list of new plays produced in London during the past year, when compared with the list of several years ago, shows a great decrease in the number of adaptations from the French and of burlesques, and an increase in the number of comic operas and sensational melodramas.

—We classed, last week, the Apprentices' Library of this city among the ones designed for those who could not pay. We learn that this was not exact. Since 1879 it has been absolutely free to all who are entitled to its privileges. It is only the class that is abundantly able to pay that is excluded. It has never been a pay-library in the proper sense, although before 1879 a nominal fee of $2 was charged to those who, under the most liberal construction, could not come in as free readers. But evidently it was not intended to reach or did not reach the very poor, since the new Free Library has been able in its first year, with a stock of only 5,000 volumes, to reach a circulation of 60,000—a turnover (to use the English term) of twelve, which is greater than we have ever before noted, some of the mammoth libraries, indeed, being satisfied with a turnover of one-third. Truly the nimble penny is better than the slow shilling. Nevertheless, the New York Free Library would no doubt be glad to add some slow shillings to its store, which would not prevent its nimble penny from travelling from house to house as fast as it is doing now.

—One of the sights of the rural districts of Essex County, Mass., is Dummer Academy, in the parish of Byfield. Dummer is a name anciently associated with the adjoining town of Newbury, but the founder of the institution in question was that William Dummer who married in 1714 a daughter of Governor Joseph Dudley, and became himself Lieutenant-Governor, dying in 1761. By his will he devised his entire estate —a farm of 300 acres—for the endowment of a free grammar-school and the erection of a school-house thereon, and the opening of the Academy in 1763 placed it chronologically at the head of all similar foundations, in Massachusetts at least. The time was opportune, for the graduates were prepared for the impending struggle with the mother country, as well as for the conduct of the State and nation when once independence was achieved. Master Samuel Moody, a famous teacher, gave the Academy a great reputation at the start, and maintained it till 1790. Among his pupils were future cabinet officers, congressmen, governors, and judges—Nathaniel Gorham, president of the Continental Congress; Rufus King; Samuel Osgood, first Postmaster-General under Washington; Theophilus Parsons and Samuel Sewall, both Chief Justices of the Massachusetts Supreme Court; Samuel Webber, President of Harvard College; and Samuel Phillips, sometime one of the judges of the Court of Common Pleas, always prominent in State affairs, and ending Lieutenant-Governor of Massachusetts. Judge Phillips was instrumental in founding the two academies which bear the name of his illustrious family at Andover, Mass., and Exeter, N. H., and of which Dummer Academy might therefore justly regard itself as the parent—one act of public spirit begetting another. The late George B. Emerson, whose services to education were also conspicuous, was among the graduates, not a few, who did honor to their training under Master Moody's successors. In 1840 the list of alumni numbered more than 1,100, and in 1822 the "Sons of Dummer" associated themselves to accumulate a fund, among other objects, for establishing prize scholarships. In 1854 they still maintained their organization. Of recent years, however, the Academy has been overshadowed, while still retaining its fund and its large farm. Some of the alumni have undertaken to recover for it its pristine repute, and have been fortunate in engaging as head master Mr. John W. Perkins, for many years principal of the Salem High School. They have also sought to guarantee the running expenses, and it is greatly to be hoped that their efforts will be successful. Dummer Academy is beautifully situated, within easy reach of Salem and Newburyport, and there being nothing more venerable than an institution of learning reaching far into the past, it is a pious work to rehabilitate it for a second century of shining usefulness.

—More than a dozen years ago we called the attention of our readers to a very remarkable auctioneer's catalogue, in which we had found not merely many works of well-known authors with which they had never been credited by the most searching and comprehensive bibliographers, but a number of positively new authors previously unknown to Fame and, indeed, we ven-

ture to say, to Obscurity. Since that day we have been anxiously, but in vain, looking for another catalogue capable of throwing such a new light upon English, French, and German literary history. Occasionally our hopes have been raised for a moment by a strikingly novel title or name, but only to be disappointed. At last a worthy successor has appeared. At present we have but a specimen of his powers, some two dozen titles, but it is an exceedingly promising specimen, and we have the liveliest expectation of his future work. Of the new authors discovered (the word is more appropriate here than when Messrs. Lippincott say they "discovered Ouida") we may mention "M. De"; "L'Abbe Roche Tiltrue"; another Abbe, "M. L. Abbi de Balleegurall" (his ancestors must surely have come from Ireland with the foighting Onety-oneth); the Fathers of the Church, "Juton Martyn, Turtullum, and others"; "M. Thomasi" (who writes on 'Les Mœurs et les Esprit de Fanues'); De la Brugers, whose 'Maxims et Reflexion Mosules' treat of a subject not touched upon, so far as we know, by any other writer; an author whose name positively would make the hearer's mouth water, "San le Compte de Morangues," and another almost as appetizing, "Eugene Labunne"; and finally "Tiryante Tasso," who, the auctioneers obligingly remark, writes "in Italian" (one would not have thought it from the title, 'La Gerusalemine Liberatu,' though, to be sure, it may be in some dialect that has escaped the researches of philologists). In what language, by the way, can 'L'ami des Infants' be written, "par M. Berguin," who is also credited with 'L'ami de l'Adolenences'? Perhaps in the same as the 'Monusserit Venu de St. Helene,' or the 'Fragmenti San l'Inde,' or the 'Elat des Cours de l'Europe,' or the 'Manuscrit de mil Herit cent Tuntorze. Contenant l'Histoire des Six Demiers mois dn Regne de Napoleon pet le Brown Fain.' We shall look forward with great interest to the future issues of this firm, which are "calculated," as a prospectus might say, "to render a true service to the cause of literary science, and to push the knowledge of books far beyond the limits hitherto observed by the plodding cataloguer, into the realms of the Unexpected and the Inexplicable."

—The fourth of M. Renan's peculiarly interesting "Recollections of Childhood and Early Manhood" in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (Dec. 15) relates his experience at the Seminary of Saint-Sulpice, beginning with the two years' course in philosophy at the branch establishment at Issy. Here his sceptical disposition revealed itself to his instructors, one of whom, a M. Gottofrey, flatly accused him of being no Christian, and thus nearly diverted him from his purpose to make himself a theologian. Had he been turned aside, he would have passionately devoted himself to the pursuit of science. The following passage is worth quoting for the sake of those who have followed, on one side or the other, the discussion in our columns as to classical and non-classical education:

"It was, then, decided that after my two years in philosophy I should enter the Seminary of Saint-Sulpice for my theology. The transitory illumination of M. Gottofrey's mind produced no result, but, now that thirty-eight years have elapsed, I recognize the depth of his penetration. . . . Assuredly I regret now that I did not follow his direction. I should have quitted the Seminary innocent of Hebrew or of theology. Physiology and the natural sciences would have absorbed me; and I will add that the extreme ardor which they excited in me makes me confident that, if I had pursued them continuously, I should have arrived at several of Darwin's conclusions, of which I had a half-perception. I went to Saint-Sulpice, I learned German and Hebrew; the revolution was complete. I was drawn towards the historic sciences—petty conjectural sciences, incessantly unmade and remade, and which, a hundred years hence, will be neglected. We are witnessing, in fact, the dawn of an era in which man will no longer attach much interest to his past. . . . It is by chemistry on the one hand, by astronomy on the other, and above all, by general physiology, that we truly grasp the secret of existence, of the universe, of God however named. It is the regret of my life that I selected for my studies a line of researches which will never become authoritative (*qui ne s'imposera jamais*), but will always remain merely interesting reflections on a reality that has disappeared for ever. Still, for intellectual exercise and pleasure, I certainly chose the better part."

—The necessity for a new and satisfactory grouping of the States and Territories, for statistical and other purposes, has long been felt. The old classification into New England, Middle, Southern, and Western States—never a satisfactory or characteristic method of grouping—was outgrown several decades ago, and to-day it is manifestly absurd to speak of New York and New Jersey as "Middle States," or of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois as parts of the "West." Mr. Henry Gannett, the Geographer of the Tenth Census, has proposed a plan of grouping which is being adopted by the Census Bureau, and will probably come into general use, as it appears to be natural, characteristic, and well-balanced. The scheme divides the country, first, into its three great geographical divisions—the Atlantic, the Great Valley, and the Cordilleran regions. The first of these Mr. Gannett names the Atlantic section, the second the Central, and the third the Western section. The Atlantic and the Central sections are subdivided—the former on Mason and Dixon's line, the latter on the Ohio River and the southern boundary of Missouri and Kansas. The following, then, are the States making up the five divisions severally:

North Atlantic States: Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania—Total, 9.

South Atlantic States: Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia, Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida—Total, 9.

Northern Central States: Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas—Total, 11.

Southern Central States: Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Indian Territory, Arkansas, Tennessee, Kentucky—Total, 8.

Western States: Montana, Idaho, Washington, Oregon, Wyoming, Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona, Utah, Nevada, California—Total, 11.

The areas and populations of these groups, with the exception of the last, are not very dissimilar, one from another.

—The propriety of this grouping, from a purely geographical point of view, is too apparent to need argument. As was stated above, the three primary groups correspond with the three great topographical features of the country. In respect of temperature and rainfall, the North Atlantic and Northern Central States differ characteristically from the South Atlantic and the Southern Central States, while the West possesses an arid climate, a light rainfall, with the accompanying great extremes of temperature. These divisions have a meaning, too, from an historical point of view. The Atlantic States, with but one exception, that of Florida, consist of the original thirteen and those formed from them—viz., Maine, Vermont, and West Virginia. They may fairly be said to represent the first or colonial stage of our history. The central section, which has developed during our progress as an independent nation, may be said to represent the second stage, extending to the present time, while the great undeveloped territory of the West represents the development of the future. In the forms of local government, the first and third of the above divisions differ radically from the second and fourth—*i. e.*, the North from the South. In the former, with the exception of Nebraska, Dakota, and a few counties in southern Illinois, the township or town form of government is universal, while south of the line separating these divisions the county form of government prevails exclusively—the so-called "townships" of Arkansas and the Carolinas bearing no resemblance whatever to those of the North. There is also a vital point of difference between these sections in the elements of the population, the two northern sections containing not less than eighty-six per cent. of the foreign element of the country, while in respect to the colored element the reverse is the case, the two southern sections containing more than 90 per cent. of the total. In respect of industries, the North Atlantic section is the region of manufactures, containing not less than 63 4-10 per cent. of the total of the United States. The Northern Central is distinguished as the region of cereals, raising in 1879 71 per cent. of the whole cereal crop of the country. The two southern sections raise very nearly the whole cotton crop and all the sugar cane and rice. In the West the characteristic and leading industry is the mining of the precious metals. This discussion might be continued almost indefinitely and result in pointing out new features characteristic of the different sections, but enough has been suggested, it is hoped, to show the propriety and fitness of the scheme, of which, by the way, our school-atlas makers have particularly felt the need.

—"The Colonel," now running at the Park, is described in the bills, in somewhat questionable English, as being a "satirical comedy on the æsthetic craze." The play is merely a new adaptation of the "Serious Family," which was taken from Bayard and De Vailly's "Le Mari à la campagne, ou le Tartuffe moderne." This is a comedy which has great advantages for the purposes of the English adapter. It is perfectly moral, and, with very slight changes, can be altered so as to be a satire on any fashionable pretence. "The Colonel" so closely resembles the original French play that if the plot had not become common property, the performances at the Park would probably be brought to a speedy close by injunction. As a satire upon the æsthetes, it suffers from the fact that æstheticism is, in this country at least, hardly a serious enough matter to lend itself very effectively to such a use. There is a certain grotesque silliness, if not about the situation put before us in "The Colonel"—that of a family whose domestic happiness is undermined by the wiles of an æsthetic "impostor"—at any rate about the manner in which it is developed, that is rather palling. The *Punch* dialect, the stained-glass attitudes, the affectation of mediævalism which furnish "The Colonel" with its æsthetic basis, have taken so little real root on this side of the Atlantic that it is chiefly through literary channels and the lecture-tour of Mr. Wilde that we know what it all means; and it is hard to conceive the imposture ever taking rank with the religious humbug which the "Serious Family" and the "Mari à la campagne" ridiculed. "The Colonel," besides this, requires for success two things, neither of which it gets at the Park—first, thoroughly good and delicate acting; and second, an actor for the *Colonel's* part who is American *au bout des ongles*. Mr. Wallack has in his time played many parts, but his successes have all been scored in English characters. He has little variety, and it was hardly to be expected that his *Colonel Woodd* would have a marked flavor of the soil. There being nothing in the part itself essentially American, the actor who plays it must make it American by his acting; and this, we believe, Mr. Charles Coghlan succeeded

in doing in London. To most of the audience it is probably a surprise to learn that "Why, certainly" is a cis-Atlantic form of assent or affirmation; and it is a striking illustration at once of Mr. Burnand's poverty of invention, and of his reliance on purely verbal effects, that he should have resorted to such a trifle as this to mark the nationality of the latest representative of *César Poligny*. To tell the truth, *Colonel Woottweell W. Woodd*, as represented by Mr. Wallack, might almost as well be an Australian as an American. The parts of the mother-in-law and the impostor (taken respectively by Miss Maria Davis and Mr. C. P. Flockton) are badly exaggerated, and recall their farcical prototypes in the "Serious Family." The day of English farce is admitted to be over; but its traditions are still preserved for us, and afford interesting illustrations of the great law of survival, in the exaggerated acting of many a leading comedian. The performance of Miss Waldon, as *Nellie*, is the best thing in the play, and would be good anywhere.

—Mr. Gilbert's "Pygmalion and Galatea" is considered by some critics to be Miss Mary Anderson's best play. To our minds she plays all parts equally well; but the reason why she appears to better advantage in *Galatea* than in other rôles is, that during a considerable portion of her time on the stage she appears as a statue, and as a statue she is without a rival. Her great beauty of face and figure, which do not in themselves constitute theatrical talent, though they form such an important part of most successful actresses' theatrical capital, and her statuesque, dignified grace of attitude and movement, can be studied to the best advantage in *Galatea*. Her voice also is rich and, in its natural quality, expressive; but we prefer her, just where *Pygmalion* in the end prefers her, on the pedestal where she made her first appearance. As a statue she is charming; and as her new life comes to her, the change from marble to flesh and blood is something quite wonderful to behold. The illusion is in fact complete. You seem to see the metamorphosis going on under your very eyes. Color appears gradually to tinge the cheeks of the statue as it tinges the cold, gray sky at dawn; and blood to begin to flow in the numb veins, and the statue to wake to life under our very eyes. These effects are apparently produced by electric light. This first change is very much better managed than the change back to marble at the last. None but a great actress, however, could petrify herself for love thoroughly well. When the final moment comes, Miss Anderson mounts the pedestal with dignity and self-possession, much as she might if she were going to have a photograph taken, but without any expression of that warm yet unavailing regret over her ebbing vitality and vanishing love which the situation suggests.

—The part of *Galatea* on the English stage is so modern that it can hardly be said to have any traditions. Miss Katherine Rogers used to act it, and, if we remember right, there were certain differences between the statuesque part of the rôle as conceived by the two actresses which were rather in Miss Rogers's favor. We cannot recollect that the latter ever thought it necessary to powder her hair to make it resemble marble. Miss Anderson, at any rate, does this—and why? Evidently it is supposed to be one of those little tributes to realism which show the rapid advances continually made by our remarkable stage. But as a realistic effect, the difficulty is that *Galatea* is a statue for half an hour and a woman during all the rest of the play; and, while marble hair is for a statue a precious beauty, and a true delight to the earnest lover of the real in art, in a woman it simply looks like a mass of capillary matter covered with flour. As realism has got to be sacrificed at some point, would it not be better to have the statue a little less and the woman a little more real? This of course is a minor matter to any one who regards the acting as the main point in a play; but for a public which has made of Miss Anderson a leading actress, acting must count for comparatively little, and as much attention as possible should be devoted to the make-up and business. Miss Anderson has not yet given evidence of any dramatic talent properly so called. Acting consists mainly in the expression of thoughts and sentiments by means of the voice, in articulate words. Miss Anderson's articulation is good, but she seems devoid of all idea of expression. It is certain, at least, that she expresses totally different feelings in precisely the same tone, without variety of accent or inflection. It is a curious fact, too, that, possessing as she does a remarkably beautiful voice, she should, for the expression of certain emotions—it is impossible to say exactly what emotions they are—deem it advisable to adopt the familiar false and hollow method of vocalization employed by the *Ghost* in "Hamlet." She resorts to this in all the dramatic crises of the play, and the effect is more mysterious than pleasing. If this is done on a new theory of the relation between language and the voice, and the ideas and sentiments which they express, it should be explained by the management, and a key to the system given with the bills. This would prevent a great deal of uncertainty and confusion. It is hardly necessary to say that Miss Anderson draws good houses in *Galatea*. The play, to any audience which sees it for the first time—and the New York audience, since the identity of its membership changes from night to night, probably always remains substantially a first audience—is very amusing. The humor is perhaps a little simple, and the contrast between the classical tradition of the subject and the familiarity, not to say occasional vulgarity, of the treatment, a little painful. But the whole play is really little more than a humorist's practical joke. The idea of the comical effect produced by the introduction of a statue into real life seems to have been with Mr. Gilbert the chief motive for writing it. A large part of one entire act is taken up with an absurd scene based upon the difficulty of making *Galatea* understand the difference between shooting wild animals and murder in the first degree. Her difficulty in comprehending the nature of the marital relation and the obligations it imposes is more natural and better managed; but the spectator's intelligence resents the suggestion that even a new-born statue would regard with the same feeling the killing of a man in cold blood and the shooting of a doe.

—Mr. Theodore Thomas has never given a more striking proof of his extraordinary organizing and disciplinary powers than by the manner in which the New York Chorus Society, which is to be the "nucleus" of the May Festival chorus, sang at its first concert on Saturday night After a few months of practice this chorus has already developed a well-rounded body of sound, a precision of attack, and a regard for dynamic shading which come to most choruses only after years of study. It would be too much to say that the work done by the chorus was perfect in all respects. There was noticeable an occasional want of purity in tone and pitch and of rhythmic shading, especially at the public rehearsal on Friday afternoon, where even the Philharmonic orchestra was strangely erratic; but at the concert itself all minor deficiencies were lost sight of in the excellence of the general effect. The programme was remarkable for the variety, weight, and interest of the selections. First on the list came one of the best specimens of Handel's choral writing, the "Utrecht Jubilate." The solo parts of this work are decidedly stale and uninteresting, but the choruses are superb, the first in particular being characterized by that sustained surging movement of sound which makes Handel's best choral works so suggestive of the billows of a moderately excited ocean surface. The "Jubilate" will be sung again at the May Festival. A strong contrast to this composition was afforded by the clean-cut, plastic rhythms, the modern harmonies and instrumentation, and the overwhelming grandeur of the chorus "Wake, wake, the dawning day is near," from the third act of Wagner's "Meistersinger," which in the opera is sung by the assembled populace of Nürnberg in salutation of Hans Sachs. On the stage the chorus is usually of about the same size as the orchestra, whereas on this occasion it outnumbered the instrumentalists about six to one. But the total impression was not so much altered by this arrangement as one would suppose, chiefly on account of the acoustically more advantageous position of the orchestra on the concert stage. Beethoven's Choral Fantasia in C minor, opus 80, for piano, chorus, and orchestra, is not often heard in concert halls. It is curiously suggestive of the Ninth Symphony, not only in its general cast, but in the melodic structure and vocal treatment of the last part. In spite of the festive and joyous character of the words of the chorus, there is yet noticeable an undercurrent of sadness so peculiar to Beethoven, and so universally characteristic of the highest genius. The piano seems out of place in such a work, as Beethoven himself must have felt, since the part he assigned to it is quite trivial. Mr. Joseffy, who sat at the piano, also contributed an original composition, a Scherzo Fantastique for piano and orchestra, which is a curious embodiment of his style of playing—light, airy, and graceful, but lacking force and eloquence. The melodic and harmonic ideas of this scherzo are inferior in interest to the instrumentation, in which Mr. Joseffy has shown himself a clever disciple of Berlioz. After the scherzo Miss Schell and Miss Winant sang the duo from Berlioz's "Beatrice and Benedick," which has been repeatedly heard of late in this city and Brooklyn.

—The one remaining piece on the programme was that which had perhaps aroused the greatest curiosity on the part of the audience—the second and fifth of Professor Paine's "Œdipus" choruses. Professor Paine has written a considerable number of works for the concert stage, among them an oratorio, a mass, two symphonies, and a concert overture; but none of these, in our opinion, equals in originality of conception and scholarly treatment his music to Sophocles's tragedy, which to our taste is the most finished specimen of musical workmanship produced in this country. Professor Paine's devotion to Bach and Beethoven is well known, and the legitimate influence of these masters is revealed in most of his works, especially in its polyphonic structure and clearness of form. But in these choruses he also unconsciously reveals his admiration for a composer whose theories he condemns. The vigorous and melodious treatment of the bass in the "Œdipus" music, the chromatic progressions and modulations, the avoidance of stale cadences, the use of the brass in moments of passion, and the brilliant, full, and rich instrumentation in general, as well as the earnest endeavor to reproduce musically the emotional contents of the language, are all so many tributes to the genius of Wagner, from whose influence no modern composer has yet succeeded in emancipating

himself. By this we do not intend to imply any plagiarism, but merely to mark the author's place in the musical world. Professor Paine's music is his own. It has individuality of style, and his themes impress themselves on the memory at once, and gain in beauty by repeated hearing. The "Œdipus" music was given in its entirety at Booth's Theatre on Monday evening.

—In the *Nation*, Nos. 809 and 818, we published some then recent facts concerning the Brahmo Somaj, the theistic church of India, which placed Mr. Sen, for a long time a leader in that church, in an unfavorable light, and which seemed even to bring him under suspicion of favoring idolatrous rites. The *Contemporary* for October has an article by William Knighton on the same subject, in which some apology or explanation of those proceedings is attempted by some of Mr. Sen's friends. In the same article, and in the November number, which has another paper on the subject by Miss Sophia Dobson Collet, the reader will find the history of the Brahmo movement brought down to August of last year, with numerous highly instructive quotations from Mr. Sen's discourses. These show him to be, though a very able and eloquent man, yet too eccentric to continue to be the leader of the theistic movement in India; and it is understood that his authority as such, except with his own congregation, is very nearly gone. The Sadharan Somaj, or Universal Church, with 140 congregations all over India, is the true theistic church of India, from whose principles Mr. Sen has turned away, while he in turn has been forsaken by the great majority of its members.

—A year or two ago Fr. Winkel Horn published in Leipzig an exhaustive work, written by himself, in German, on the literature of Iceland, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Finland, from the most ancient to the present time. He has now laid students of literature under obligation to him for two large octavo volumes in which he sketches the literature of Denmark alone, from its beginning down to the year 1880 ('Den danske Literaturs Historie'; Copenhagen). The work is written in the spirit of Taine's 'English Literature,' but is much fuller in details. Indeed, Horn takes up in chronological order every author worthy of mention, and has, nevertheless, avoided the fault which we pointed out in his German work, and on account of which we complained that his book would be found "tedious reading" (*Nation*, Jan. 13, 1881), by introducing more biographical matter and by giving specimens from the authors whose works are discussed. Horn divides Danish literature into the following six epochs: 1. The Middle Ages; 2. The Epoch of the Reformation; 3. The Epoch of Learning; 4. Holberg and his contemporaries; 5. The Epoch of Enlightenment; 6. The Nineteenth Century. The book must be called a timely one, since N. M. Petersen's great pioneer work in this field, in six large volumes, is, on the one hand, too expensive for most students, and, on the other hand, closes with the beginning of the nineteenth century. Whatever may be said of the propriety of including the names of living authors and of passing judgment on that of which the future can alone be the competent judge, we are certain that a large number, particularly of Horn's readers in foreign countries, will be grateful to him for the *facts* given in the last one hundred pages of his work, and will not think it strange that he did not confine himself to these, but tried to present a general estimate of the literary value of the products even of the last ten years. In our opinion, he has succeeded in setting forth the merits and faults of his contemporaries in an unbiased and impartial manner. The reader gets a tolerably definite idea of the foreign streams of culture which from time to time have given direction and color to Danish literature, and learns that Denmark forms a part of the wide field of European thought, of which the whole expanse is benefited whenever a refreshing rain descends in any locality. The debt of Holberg and Danish literature to Molière may be referred to as a striking illustration of this.

JAMES'S PORTRAIT OF A LADY.

The Portrait of a Lady. By Henry James, jr. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1881.

Mr. James's novel, which caused each number of the *Atlantic Monthly* to be awaited with impatience last year, gains in its complete presentation, and, like most novels of any pretensions, is most readable when read consecutively. Unlike most novels, however, whose fate (and the fortune of whose authors) it is to appear serially, the reason for this does not consist in the condensation which the reader is thus enabled to make in spite of the author, but in the fact that it is a work of art of which the whole is equal to no fewer than all of its parts, and of which there is a certain "tendency," to lose which is to miss one of the main features of the book. In other words, 'The Portrait of a Lady' is an important work, the most important Mr. James has thus far written, and worthy of far more than mere perusal—worthy of study, one is inclined to say. It is in fact a little too important—to express by a paradox the chief criticism to be made upon it—or, at all events, the only impression left by it which is not altogether agreeable. For the first two or three hundred pages one is beguiled by a kind of entertainment always of a high order—the dissection of an interesting character by a clever and scrupulous demonstrator. After that, though it would be misleading to say that the interest flags—the interest being throughout the book remarkable for its evenness—the feeling supervenes that to be still entertained argues a happy aptitude for most serious and "intellectual" delectation. Most persons will recall some experience of the same sensation in first becoming acquainted with undisguisedly philosophical writings—such as the writings of Emerson or Burke. To others it may be indicated by saying that it is just the sensation Carlyle missed in finding the works of George Eliot "dool—just dool." In America, it is well known, we do not find George Eliot dull, and it is upon our appetite for this sort of provender that Mr. James doubtless relies, and undoubtedly does well to rely. Nevertheless, it is possible to feel what Carlyle meant without agreeing with it; and though maintaining firmly the absorbing interest of 'The Portrait of a Lady,' we are ready to admit that once or twice we have laid aside the book for a season, with the exhilaration which Mr. Howells has somewhere observed to be coincident with giving up a difficult task. One of the happiest of the many happy remarks made in 'The Portrait of a Lady' is in Miss Stackpole's characterization of her *fiancé*: "He's as clear as glass; there's no mystery about him. He is not intellectual, but he appreciates intellect. On the other hand, he doesn't exaggerate its claims. *I sometimes think we do in the United States.*" The person of whom this is said naturally cuts a smaller figure in the novel than the more complex organizations, in dealing with which Mr. James is most at home; and it is the inference from this circumstance that we have in mind. For not only are the simpler though perennial elements of human nature in general eschewed by Mr. James, but his true distinction—that is to say, his strength and weakness also—consists in his attempt to dispense with all the ordinary machinery of the novelist except the study of subtle shades of character. In other words, his masterpiece, as 'The Portrait of a Lady' must be called, is not only outside of the category of the old romance of which 'Tom Jones,' for example, may stand as the type, but also dispenses with the dramatic movement and passionate interest upon which the later novelists, from Thackeray to Thomas Hardy, have relied. In a sense, and to a certain extent, Turgeneff may be said to be Mr. James's master, but even a sketch or a study by Turgeneff is turbulence itself beside the elaborate placidity of these 519 pages. This involves the necessity of the utmost care in presenting the material, and accordingly we have that squaring of the elbows and minute painstaking which not only result inevitably in occasional lumbering movement, but which lend the work an air of seeming more important than any book whatever could possibly be; so that it is perhaps fortunate for its popularity (which, by the way, we believe is extraordinary) that we exaggerate the claims of intellect occasionally in the United States.

Even this measure of fault-finding, however, seems a little ungracious, not to say hypercritical, in view of the distinguished success of Mr. James's experiment in applying the development theory to novel-writing, so to speak. We have ourselves followed the succession of his stories since 'Roderick Hudson' appeared with mingled interest and regret, because he has seemed to be getting further and further away from very safe ground, where he was very strong, and into the uncertainties of an unfamiliar region of which it was impossible to tell whether its novelty or its real merit gave it its interest. The elemental characters and dramatic situations of the novel just mentioned were strongly handled, and the work being, comparatively speaking, a youthful one, its promise seemed even greater than its actual qualities. But, almost as if he had been an amateur dipping into another branch of effort after having demonstrated his ability in one, Mr. James immediately abandoned the field of imaginative romance as it is generally understood. He at once made clear his faculty for his new choice, and the field he entered on with 'The American,' and continued with the shorter stories illustrative of American types, became immediately popular. 'Daisy Miller' may almost be said to mark an era in the mental progress of many persons who exaggerate the claims of intellect occasionally; it is wearisome to recall the "discussions" it occasioned in drawing-rooms and in print. There was, to be sure, a Chauvinist view, so to speak, taken of this and its associated sketches, by persons who omitted to perceive that Mr. James had not only made the current mechanical speculations about "the coming American novel" an anachronism, but had also displayed his patriotism and the national genius by inventing a new variety of literature. But naturally Mr. James might be expected to heed rather those of his readers who appreciated and enjoyed his motives and rejoiced in his discovery of romantic sociology. And this seemed his real danger; for though to these readers this reading conveyed a peculiarly refined pleasure, on account both of its novelty and the cleverness of its execution, there was no certainty that this pleasure was not a rather temporary mood, and likely to pass away after the novelty had worn off. Instead, however, of avoiding this danger by a return to the perennially interesting material with which he first dealt, Mr. James has conquered it, *vi et armis*, by a persistence that at one time seemed a little wilful. No one can now pretend, whatever his own literary likes

and dislikes may be, that romantic sociology, exploited as Mr. James has shown it capable of being, is not a thoroughly serious field of literature, whose interest is permanent and dignified.

'The Portrait of a Lady' is a modest title, though an apt one. The portrait of the lady in question is indeed the theme of the book, and it is elaborated with a minuteness so great that when finally one begins to find it confusing it becomes evident that the ordinary point of view must be changed, and the last detail awaited—as in a professedly scientific work—before the whole can appear. Miss Isabel Archer is an orphan to whom her aunt gives an opportunity of seeing the world, and to whom her aunt's husband leaves a large fortune, at the instance of his son, who is unselfishly and romantically interested to see what his cousin will make of her life when nothing prevents her from doing as she wishes. The reader at once assumes the position of this young man, and with more or less (less in our own case, we confess) sympathy, watches the progress of the drama which he has set going. At the climax the heroine discovers that she has wrecked her life most miserably. The spiritual transition from the Isabel Archer of Albany to the Mrs. Osmond of Rome is of course accomplished in part by natural disposition and in part by the influence of the numerous characters which surround her. The way in which this influence is exhibited is a marked feature of the book. If George Eliot was the first to make of this important moral phenomenon a distinct study, Mr. James has here, in our opinion, quite surpassed her. Any one can judge by comparing the reciprocal effect upon the development of each other's characters of the Lydgates in 'Middlemarch' with that of the Osmonds here. The other characters are treated with a microscopy hardly inferior. Osmond himself is one of the most palpable of those figures in fiction which are to be called subtle. Madame Merle, his former mistress, mother of his child, who makes the marriage between him and his poverty and Isabel and her wealth, and who, up to the climax of the book, is Isabel's ideal, is, if anything, even better done. There is something almost uncanny in the perfection with which these secretive natures are turned inside out for the reader's inspection. As for the heroine, the American girl *par excellence*, it seems as if, scientifically speaking, Mr. James had said the last word on this subject; at any rate till the model herself is still further developed. For example (p. 344): "She never looked so charming as when, in the genial heat of discussion, she received a crushing blow full in the face and brushed it away as a feather." There are pages as good.

It has long been evident that Mr. James's powers of observation are not only remarkably keen, but sleepless as well. But 'The Portrait of a Lady' would not be what it is if it did not possess a *fonds* of moral seriousness, in addition to and underlying its extraordinary interest of purely intellectual curiosity. There is a specific lesson for the American girl in the first place; there are others, more general, which accompany every imaginative work of large importance. That these are nowhere distinctly stated is now nothing new in fiction even of a distinctly moral purpose. But Mr. James has carried suggestiveness in this regard further than any rival novelist, and though, unless one has ears to hear, it is entirely possible to miss the undertone of his book, to an appreciative sense there is something exquisite in the refinement with which it is conveyed. Refinement in this respect cannot be carried too far. In strictly literary matters Mr. James's fastidiousness may be objected to, perhaps, if one chooses; he has carried the method of the essayist into the domain of romance: its light touch, its reliance on suggestiveness, its weakness for indirect statement, its flattering presupposition of the reader's perceptiveness, its low tones, its polish. Upon occasion, where the circumstances really seem to warrant a little fervor, you only get from the author of 'The Portrait of a Lady' irreproachability. Objection to this may easily be carried too far, however; and those who do thus carry it too far, and argue that no people ever spoke and acted with the elegance and precision of the personages here portrayed, must of necessity pay the penalty of ultra-literalness and miss the secret of Mr. James's success. To characterize this secret with adequate fulness would require far more than the space at our disposal; but it may be sufficiently indicated by calling it the imaginative treatment of reality. In this unquestionably lies Mr. James's truly original excellence. 'The Portrait of a Lady' is the most eminent example we have thus far had of realistic art in fiction *à outrance*, because its substance is thoroughly, and at times profoundly, real, and at the same time its presentation is imaginative. On the one hand, wilfulness and fantasticality are avoided, and on the other, prose and flatness. One may even go further, and say that the book succeeds in the difficult problem of combining a scientific value with romantic interest and artistic merit.

COBDEN.—I.

The Life of Richard Cobden. By John Morley. London: Chapman & Hall; Boston: Roberts Bros.

COBDEN was the apostle of a social creed. His strength and his weakness, his success and his failure, are best understood if he be regarded as the preacher of principles which to him had the character of a religion. This was in substance his own view of his position. He explains, quite after the manner of a religious leader, how he and his friends had originally engaged in the work of free trade without at all fully entering into the vastness of the cause which they had in hand: "I am afraid that most of us entered upon this struggle with the belief that we had some distinct class interest in the question, and that we should carry it by a manifestation of our will in this district, against the will and consent of other portions of the community." It is, however, abundantly clear that with Cobden at least the "class interest," to use Mr. Morley's language, "widened into the consciousness of a commanding national interest. In raising the question of the bread-tax and its pestilent effects on their own trade and on the homes of their workmen, the Lancashire men were involuntarily opening the whole question of the condition of England." And whatever might be the case of Cobden's companions or followers, he came soon to perceive the wide bearings of the contest in which he was engaged. Hence his deepening tone of fervor or conviction; hence, too, that "call" of John Bright by his friend and teacher which has, as narrated by the great orator, something that irresistibly reminds the reader of the appeals by which reformers of all ages have summoned chosen disciples to their side:

"I was in the depths of grief, I might almost say of despair; for the light and sunshine of my house had been extinguished. All that was left on earth of my young wife . . . was lying still and cold in the chamber above us. Mr. Cobden called upon me as his friend, and addressed me . . . with words of condolence. After a time he looked up and said: 'There are thousands of houses in England at this moment where wives, mothers, and children are dying of hunger. Now,' he said, 'when the first paroxysm of your grief is past, I would advise you to come with me, and we will never rest till the corn-law is repealed.'"

To many readers Cobden's words will seem to end with a kind of bathos: the repeal of an objectionable tax is not, they think, a cause such as the abolition of slavery or the independence of Italy, for the sake of which a man might live and die. The point to note is, that to Cobden's mind and to the feelings of the sufferer who heard him it seemed far otherwise. "I knew that the description," says Bright, "he had given of the homes of thousands was not an exaggerated description; I felt in my conscience that there was a work which somebody must do, and therefore I accepted his invitation; and from that time forth we never ceased to labor hard on behalf of the resolution which we had made." At least as early, therefore, as 1841 the contest for free trade, and for all that free trade to his mind meant, had become to Cobden a sacred duty. He was already the preacher of a faith. Hence arose his fervid denunciation of those who did not take part in the conflict of right against wrong.

"It is in vain," he writes to a clergyman, "to try and elevate the religious character of a people whose physical condition is degraded by the privation of the first necessaries of life; and hence we are taught to pray for our daily bread before spiritual graces. There is a legislative enactment which prevents the poor of this town from obtaining a sufficiency of wholesome food, and I am sure the law only requires to be understood by our clergy to receive their whole unanimous condemnation. Surely a law of this kind, opposed alike to the laws of nature, the obvious dispensations of Divine Providence, and the revealed Word of God, must be denounced by the ministers of the Gospel."

It is easy for opponents to imagine that language of this kind is mere rhetorical exaggeration, meant to excite or stimulate supporters. It is far wiser and fairer to assume that such words express the simple, unaffected convictions of the speaker, and show that his cause is in his eyes invested with the sacredness of religion. Nor does Cobden ever deviate for long from this point of view. Like other leaders of men, he may have deceived himself in supposing that he had little pleasure in public life, but he assuredly looked upon himself (and no doubt with substantial truth) as one called upon and compelled by Providence to perform a particular work. "It has always," he writes to a friend, "been to me a spectacle worthy of reproach to see a man sacrificing the welfare of his own domestic circle to the cravings of a morbid desire for public notoriety; and God, who knows our hearts, will free me from any such unworthy motives. I was driven along a groove by accident too fast and too far to retreat with honor, or without some risk of loss to the country; but the happiest day of my life will be that which releases me from the conflicting sense of rival duties by restoring me again to private life." Grant, however, that Cobden was the apostle of a social and political creed, and two questions at once present themselves for candid consideration: What were the essential features of Cobden's creed? What were his own characteristics as the exponent of it?

Cobden's fundamental dogma, the real basis of all his political actions, was the principle that the whole policy of modern states, and notably of England, ought to conform to and be ruled by the laws of political economy. Any arrangement which hampered the trade, or was not conducive to the material prosperity, of the nation was, to his mind, an arrangement at variance with the nature of things, and doomed, like every other scheme conflicting with the laws of the universe, to failure and ruin. This dogma, which, looked at from one side, appears to be merely the doctrine that the great end of social life is the promotion of material prosperity, acquired under his treatment grandeur and im-

pressiveness from the force of two considerations which he seized with prophetic insight, and pressed upon his age with prophetic fervor. Material prosperity, in the first place, is the essential condition for the physical, the moral, the religious development of that vast majority of every civilized community who, under the name of the poor, the laboring classes, or the artisans, have, both from their numbers and their wretchedness, a just claim that the promotion of their true interests should be the main aim of social organization. The economic interests, in the second place, of one country are, when rightly understood, the true interest of the whole world. Hence to the freetrader of 1841 the contest for free trade was a struggle on behalf of the welfare of the masses, and also a struggle against that national blindness and selfishness which has prevented all mankind from sharing with equal freedom in the natural blessings which the Creator has distributed throughout all the world for the benefit of all his children. Whoever considers that the close connection in Cobden's mind between free trade, popular progress, and general philanthropy was simply the result of a merchant's passion for commerce, would do well to reflect that the most melancholy and the least worldly of religious poets had before Cobden's birth anticipated that view of the moral significance of trade which lent to economic theories a moral and religious sanction:

> "Again—the band of commerce was design'd
> To associate all the branches of mankind;
> And if a boundless plenty be the robe,
> Trade is the golden girdle of the globe.
> Wise to promote whatever end he means,
> God opens fruitful Nature's various scenes.
> Each climate needs what other climes produce,
> And offers something to the general use;
> No land but listens to the common call,
> And in return receives supply from all.
> This genial intercourse and mutual aid
> Cheers what were else an universal shade,
> Calls Nature from her ivy-mantled den,
> And softens human rock-work into men."

What Mr. Morley terms the "high economic doctrine"—or, in other words, the principle that all national policy ought to be tested by its bearing on trade—destroyed the corn-laws, but it was a dogma which, when once received as an article of faith, was fatal to many other things besides the vicious legislation which raised the price of bread. Long before the Anti-Corn-Law League was organized, Cobden had perceived that if statesmanship was to be looked upon as a branch of economics, the whole foreign policy of England, not to say of the civilized world, must be remodelled. The "balance of power," the "independence of the Turkish Empire," the "necessity of checking the growth of Russia," the "extension or maintenance of the Indian or Colonial Empire of England," seemed, when tested by their reference to trade, little better than empty phrases. The one essential condition for commerce is freedom of exchange and the existence of peace. Hence the practical outcome of Cobden's economic doctrine was the absolute necessity of freeing commerce from all unnecessary burdens; of keeping down standing armies; and of maintaining peace at any price short of concessions fatal to the material prosperity—or, in other words, the trade—of the nation. That the views of Cobden and his associates are open to very considerable criticism we have no doubt whatever; but it is of great importance, even for the sake of fair criticism, to realize what these views were, and how great was the element of truth which they contained. It is the more essential to examine the matter with some care, because the true character of Cobden's economical doctrines has been a good deal masked by their accidental connection with revolutionary or republican opinions. The plain truth is, that though Cobden was throughout life engaged in a conflict with the English aristocracy, his fundamental convictions consisted of economic beliefs which had no necessary connection with democratic, or even with political, principles. A benevolent and enlightened despotism, or even a very enlightened aristocratic government, might have pursued a policy of free trade and peace which would have commended itself to Mr. Cobden. There is, indeed, little doubt that, had he lived in the eighteenth century, he would have looked, as did Turgot, and for that matter as did Voltaire, on an enlightened despotism as the form of government most likely to promote the progress of the world. From accident of position, and from the force of circumstances, Cobden was a democratic leader; but his doctrines are, when dispassionately examined, the doctrines of an economist, not of a democrat.

If Cobden's creed be looked at in its true light, as that of an economist penetrated by the conviction that the government of the state exists for the benefit of the mass of the people, and that states and nations themselves are bodies which exist, or ought to exist, for the benefit of mankind, it will be seen that his teaching contained truths of great value which, in Cobden's time, required to be forced on the attention of the world. It was, for example, undoubtedly true between 1830 and 1848 that the pressing problem of the day was how to ameliorate the condition of the people. Reform bills, splendid foreign policy, the maintenance of national prestige, the dignity of the empire, were all good things in their way, but the one immediate, pressing question was the "condition of England." It was also true, as Cobden constantly insisted, that neglect and contempt of economic laws were bringing the country to ruin, and that nothing but strict public economy and complete freedom of trade could restore the nation to prosperity. It was further true that low taxation was inconsistent with the keeping up of large armaments, and that free trade itself made any system of active intervention in the affairs of foreign countries difficult and impolitic. In England the doctrines of free trade have been justified by their fruits. The country has enjoyed for more than a generation a period of unexampled prosperity, and freedom from physical suffering has reconciled the working-classes of England to the constitution under which they live. The present period of depression has proved to demonstration that in Great Britain (we say nothing of Ireland) there is no large discontented class. If any one will read any description of England between 1830 and 1845 and compare it with her present state, he will realize how great have been the political benefits conferred on Englishmen by free trade. Nor ought the course of events abroad during the last twenty-five years to conceal from candid observers the fact that nations or statesmen who, rightly or not, have rejected the free-trade creed, have done so at an immense cost. Great things have been accomplished in Italy, in Germany, and, in a different way, in France. Meanwhile, Continental Europe has been turned into a vast camp. This is a terrible set-off against the benefits conferred on the world by the ideas and the statesmanship which, often in neglect of economic considerations, have created Italy and have reunited Germany.

"You must live before you can live well." This homely adage contains and, if properly understood, defines the essential and important truth contained in the "high economic doctrine." Freedom of exchange and all that it implies enable the mass of the world "to live"; but no merely economic doctrine, however wide the extension given to it, ensures that men shall "live well." That men "do not live by bread alone" is as true in the sphere of politics as in the sphere of religion; and the defect of the free-trade creed is, not that it is false, but that, looked upon as containing the principles of statesmanship, it is inadequate or incomplete. The teaching of the Manchester school did not in any way meet two ideas which have influenced more strongly than any other conceptions the whole course of modern European history. Freedom of exchange, closely connected as it was with the wider dogma of which it is merely a part—summed up in the phrase *laissez-faire*—in no way met those notions which, summed up under the vague term of Socialism, fascinated men as different as Maurice and Louis Blanc, and which, whether sound or not, have, as Mr. Morley points out, in fact exercised an immense, though unrecognized, influence over the whole current of English legislation, as well as over the arrangements of English trade. The creed, again, preached at the Free-Trade Hall was utterly foreign to the enthusiasm for the rights of nationalities which, within the last thirty years, has remoulded the map of Europe. Cobden's faith was, oddly enough, a little out of date. A curious combination of circumstances made it possible for him and his associates to give practical effect to their speculative views, but the doctrine which he taught was not in reality in accordance with the prevailing sentiment of his time. He pressed the truths discovered by Adam Smith and by Bentham upon a generation who half believed in Fourier or in Louis Blanc, and whose imaginations were captivated by the teaching of Mazzini and by the achievements of Garibaldi. To say that the free-trade doctrine of 1840 was not in harmony with the ideals of the men who witnessed and shared the revolutionary movements of 1848, is assuredly not the same thing as asserting either that the policy of the economists is mistaken or that the ideas of Socialists or Nationalists are sound. What is certain is that no mere economic reform will of itself remove all the evils of society. If the United States should now, as every rational man must hope that they will at some future day, adopt the policy of unrestricted free trade, the Union would form a state governed by all the principles contained in Cobden's creed. Does any one suppose that the Union would then constitute an earthly paradise? Assuredly, a man of Cobden's genius would soon find that even in a society unburdened by feudal ideas and freed from the curse of protection there was still room for the labors of a reformer.

JOHNSTON'S CECIL COUNTY.

History of Cecil County, Maryland. By George Johnston. Elkton. 1881.

In a country like ours, whose oldest history is but of yesterday, and where local ties are comparatively weak, there is a special reason why everything that can give that history fulness and color, and link the present more firmly to the past, should be carefully preserved. From this point of view, we are pleased to notice the growing tendency to produce local histories like this before us; and we should be glad if, in the older States at least, each city, each county, each village and township had its local historian or annalist. While, of course, the petty provincialism

> "That thinks the rustic cackle of its bourg
> The murmur of the world,"

is not to be approved, we must remember that the patriotism that owns no narrower sphere than "the boundless continent" is apt to be attenuated in proportion to its expansion; and, after all, the local affections are the rootlets which nourish the love of country and fasten it in the heart. To our mind, no movement has

arisen in France for nearly a century so promising as the late Provençal revival, which, though assuming a somewhat fantastic form, is yet full of fresh and vigorous life. But it is a far cry from the Garonne to the Elk, and we must come back to Mr. Johnston's book.

After the inevitable first chapter on Captain Smith and his voyage up the Chesapeake, we are at once brought face to face with the equally inevitable Clayborne, who was "dispossessed," Mr. Johnston thinks, of Kent Island. Now, of all the colonial history of Maryland, this business of Clayborne's seems to be the solitary incident that possesses at the present day a living interest other than historical and antiquarian. And the reason of this is an odd one. While the people of all the other older States take pride in their founders, and that man would be anathema who in Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, or Massachusetts, should be so hardy as to blaspheme Penn, Roger Williams, or the Pilgrims, in Maryland, on the contrary, we find a number of worthy and intelligent persons who seem to have a personal grudge against Cæcilius Calvert, and listen with pleasure to anything that tends to place him in an unfavorable light. As this case of Clayborne's is the only one that will serve the purpose, they are never weary of citing it as an act of high-handed oppression on the part of the Proprietary; and yet the real grievance of Clayborne, when examined, turns out to be one of the smallest. Here are the facts: Clayborne, Secretary of State for Virginia, had been granted a license to trade with the Dutch and others, and under this license had established a trading-post on Kent Island, and another near the mouth of the Susquehanna. When the province of Maryland was granted to Calvert, the latter notified Clayborne that these posts were within his dominion, and that the dwellers therein must consider themselves under his government. Clayborne resisted and defied him, and appealed to Virginia for help. Baltimore, who was most desirous of enlisting able and energetic men among his colonists, would gladly have had his support; and, we cannot doubt, would not merely have granted Clayborne all the land he wanted, but would have advanced him to as high a position under the Maryland government as he enjoyed in Virginia, had he been willing; but he refused, and even armed a vessel and made war on the government at St. Mary's. We may imagine an analogous case if, at the cession of the District of Columbia to the United States, an enthusiastic Marylander had refused to acknowledge the new jurisdiction, and, fortifying his house, had bid defiance to the Federal authority. Of course the Proprietary had but the one alternative: to enforce his authority or to throw up his charter. He enforced his authority, and Clayborne fled. We can sympathize with Clayborne's natural attachment to Virginia; but it is plain that his grievance was purely sentimental, and if he was dispossessed of his trading-posts, he had only himself to blame.

There is fine material for the novelist or dramatist in the romantic story of George Talbot, the eponymous hero of Talbot County—satrap, homicide, outlaw, and hermit. It is an interesting proof of the fact that the early portion of any people's history tends to take a legendary form, no matter in what epoch of the *Weltgeschichte* it may fall, to find that legend has crystallized about this redoubtable Talbot as about any Dorus or Ion. He was a kinsman of the Proprietary, who established him in the northeastern parts of his dominion, with the titles of "deputy-governor and surveyor-general," with territories not very exactly limited, and with powers not very clearly defined. These vaguenesses Talbot interpreted in his own manner; defining the former as "all you can get," and the latter as "whatever you please." Far away from the authorities at St. Mary's, in the primeval wilderness, he proceeded to constitute himself monarch of very much more than all he surveyed, in either the technical or the poetic sense of the word. Like some Warden of the Marches in feudal times, he built himself a fortress, garrisoned it with a band of daring and devoted retainers, and harried the country round at his will and pleasure, but without bloodshed for a time, so far as we can learn.

It is, however, a fact well known to students of human nature that in the power of arousing the old Adam in the unregenerate soul nothing has ever existed or been discovered comparable to a collector of customs or excise; and one Rousby, a customs officer of the King, in a luckless hour for him, came into contact with Talbot, who incontinently abolished him. It was at one of the times when Virginia, being in favor at court, was bullying Maryland; and, against all law and justice, Talbot was carried off to Virginia for trial, which meant death. The courage and address, however, of his devoted wife and two faithful followers delivered him from prison; but the pursuit was so energetic that he had to take refuge in a cave near where Port Deposit now stands, where he long remained in hiding, fed, the legend says, by hawks which he trained to fish for him in the river. Again he fell into the hands of the Virginians, but the prompt action of his friends in England procured his pardon before the close of the trial. He returned to the mother country, fought on the Jacobite side, then entered the French King's Irish Brigade, and ended his adventurous career in battle.

An example of the tendency of myth and legend to form around any unusual natural phenomenon is the following: Near Elk Neck Ferry there grows an ancient holly-bush, whose leaves, for some unexplained botanical reason, are flecked with spots and splashes of crimson. The story goes that one Hans Rudolph, who in early times was the owner of the ferry, set out one morning in pursuit of a runaway slave. The negro, who had armed himself with a gun, was crouching in ambush behind a log at the roadside, and when his master drew near fired, his victim's blood bespattering the leaves of the bush, which have ever since retained the crimson stains.

It was long the custom for persons who wished to emigrate to America, and had not the means of paying their passage, to enter into indentures to serve for a given time—usually three years—after their arrival. The services of these "redemptioners," as they were called, were sold to the highest bidder on the arrival of the ship. Speculators sometimes bought up a whole gang, and marched them through the country, selling here one and there another, as they could find purchasers; from which practice they were nicknamed "soul-drivers." It happened one day that a "soul-driver" who had sold off all his gang but a single Irishman, stopped very late at a country tavern. Early in the morning the Irishman got up, put on his master's clothes, found the host, and actually sold the "soul-driver" to him for a good price, representing him as an exceedingly good servant, whose only fault was that of being a most outrageous and impudent liar, who might even go to the extent of representing himself as the master, if he thought the landlord gullible enough to believe him. Having given this caution, he pocketed his own price and went on his way rejoicing, leaving the "soul-driver" and landlord to settle the matter between them. One cannot help trusting that they were a long time settling it, and that before it was settled the adroit Paddy was far beyond pursuit.

Readers on both sides of the Atlantic will learn with interest that descendants of the family of Daniel Defoe are still living near Nottingham, Md. Elizabeth, Daniel's niece, having quarrelled with her family for interfering with her marriage, left her home and embarked for America. She had no means to pay her passage, and came as a "redemptioner." On her arrival at Philadelphia, she was offered for sale, and bought by Andrew Job, a resident of Nottingham, who took her to his home. Thomas, the son of Andrew, looked with an eye of favor on the forlorn girl of nineteen, and proffered honorable matrimony. His suit prospered, and in 1725 they were married. Elizabeth now wrote home for the first time since her flight, and in the course of time received a letter from her uncle Daniel saying that her mother was dead, and had left her considerable property. He sent over her mother's furniture, of which an inventory is given in his letter, recommending to her particular care various articles which he had used in his private study, "as they have descended," he wrote, "to the family from our Flemish ancestors, who sought refuge under the banner of Queen Elizabeth from the tyranny of Philippe," and apologizing for the condition of two chairs, the wicker seats of which he had worn out and replaced by wooden ones. We are glad to learn that these chairs are still preserved, one in the possession of her descendant James Trimble, and the other in that of the Delaware Historical Society. From this time Elizabeth corresponded with her uncle, whose letters she carefully preserved, and they are now probably in the keeping of some of her descendants.

This history is not only agreeably written, full of interesting particulars of early Maryland history, and illustrated by a good map, but in typography and general finish is a creditable specimen of Elkton workmanship. We are not disposed to carp at little blemishes here and there; though it certainly has an odd effect to find the third Lord Baltimore, "Absolute Lord and Proprietary," as his style ran, persistently alluded to as "Charles Absolute," as if he were a progenitor of Sir Anthony.

ROSCHER'S NATIONAL ECONOMY.

Nationalökonomik des Handels- und Gewerbfleisses. Ein Hand- und Lesebuch für Geschäftsmänner und Studierende. Von Wilhelm Roscher. Stuttgart. 1881.

It is with no ordinary interest that the student of political economy cuts the leaves of this book. Not only is its author more widely known than any other writer upon kindred subjects now living, but he is known to be a man of high scholarly attainments, whose accuracy in the statement of facts pertaining to industrial subjects is unequalled. This book, moreover, is the third volume in a systematic treatise, the first edition of the first volume of which appeared in 1854. The labor of its author, during the twenty-seven years which have intervened, has been almost entirely in the field of political economy, and one is thus assured that what he now writes will not prove to be undigested matter, or to be based upon hastily gathered data. The expectation thus excited is heightened by learning of the success of all of Professor Roscher's previous works, especially the first and second volumes of the system of which this book forms a part. The first volume, 'Grundlagen der Nationalökonomie,' had, in 1877, passed through twelve German editions. The second volume, 'Nationalökonomik des Ackerbaues und der verwandten Urproductionen,' which appeared first in 1859, had, in

1875, reached the eighth edition. It is this book which Professor Adolf Wagner, of the University of Berlin, pronounces the most important single contribution which has for many years been made to the study of which it forms a part. It was the original design of the author to complete his system in four volumes, and, what is especially worthy of mention, since the author is a German, the subsequent study of many years has not induced him to extend the first plan. He promises that the fourth and last volume, which will be entitled 'Lehre vom Staats- und Gemeindehaushalt,' shall be put in press without delay, "wenn Gott Leben und Kraft erhält."

To one who is acquainted with the growth of economic literature since the middle of the last century, this purpose on the part of Professor Roscher to complete a system begun while yet he was a young man, suggests the query as to the permanent place in the structure of economic thought which will be eventually assigned to the historical method of study in industrial subjects. This method was originally regarded as a radically new departure, as beginning a new era in the development of political economy. It is evident that our author considers it to be the correct method, and trusts that it will prove to be the permanent one; otherwise he would not have devoted the closing years of a life of hard work to such a laborious arrangement of citations and references as the present volume indicates—a labor in which but little enthusiasm can be aroused, and which must repress every play of the imagination by which many are led to undertake severe toil.

It is not, however, so evident that the younger economists are equally deferential to this method of study; for, if we look closely into the literature of the last ten years, we shall be forced to recognize the mistake of regarding the historical school as representing the latest phase of development in German economic thought. No one will for a moment deny that a strong presentation of the claims of this school, by men who believed it to be the final word upon method, was necessary to correct the errors of English forms of study, but, that correction having been effected, this school is amply rewarded for the service rendered by the assignment to it of a chapter in the history of the growth of political economy, while the younger men turn their attention to other and more important questions. Were it not for the wealth of material which is peculiar to all that Professor Roscher writes, one could not regard with entire satisfaction the devotion of his splendid abilities for wielding facts to what may perhaps be termed an anachronism. The continued advocacy of this method of study as though it were aggressive is considered an anachronism in Germany, and universities and colleges in this country which devote a large share of the time allotted to economic subjects to a presentation of this method, are but wearing the old clothes that the younger German professors have cast aside.

The honor which historical economists have earned for themselves is of being the recognized organizers of the successful revolt against the extreme "scientific method" of English writers. Ricardo, Senior, and Mill had tempered the maxims of Adam Smith into unyielding propositions of scientific pretensions. This precluded all discussion except in a single direction, and led to some conclusions out of harmony with observed facts. Knies, Roscher and others, very properly pointed out that the better way would be to inquire first after realities, rather than to proceed from assumed and unproved premises, and that this could be most satisfactorily accomplished by observing the development of industrial life in its history. Their only error was in overestimating the significance of their claim, and in exalting it to the importance of a separate and exclusive method. The true purpose of a study of political economy is to procure a rational and scientific basis for the formation and government of an industrial society. A prerequisite to the performance of this task is to understand all the forces and factors to be controlled. The service of the historical school consists in having furnished an additional method of becoming master of these facts, but beyond this it does not extend. Of itself it is totally inadequate to the solution of a single economic problem. The employment of good logic and *à priori* reasoning is as necessary now as it has ever been. The true method of economic investigation is that which combines the habits of the English economists with those of German historical writers. That this combination has been effected as a result of the efforts of Professor Roscher and his friends, all are happy to admit; and this, it is believed, is the position which the future historian of economic literature will award their work.

When we turn from a consideration of this question to the contents of the book which forms the subject of this review, too high praise can hardly be awarded its author. It is devoted to a study of two subjects: commerce and manufactures. It is encyclopædic in its character, and would serve as a guide to extended study upon even minor questions properly included in its purpose. The book embraces 823 pages, consisting of text and notes, in coarse and fine print respectively. The proportion of the former to the latter is about one to three and one-half. These notes are made up, for the most part, of references to works ranging over the entire field of literature, and contain terse suggestions as to what may be expected under them. As an illustration, which is by no means exceptional, attention may be drawn to the support given the simple statement, that by no other means can the superiority of modern culture be brought out in such bold relief as by a consideration of modern methods of transportation. This is substantiated by twenty-one specific references, embracing works of history, travel, romance, poetry, periodical literature, and scientific treatises. Not only is the reader introduced by such references as these to an extended bibliography, but he feels their moral effect in the study of the text. In them he has a guarantee against partially considered data or hastily drawn conclusions. In what bold contrast with this, both as regards form and effect, stands such a book, for example, as 'Progress and Poverty,' by Mr. Henry George; a book that indulges in the widest generalizations, but at the same time displays provincialism as regards its premises, and narrowness of research.

But it is not alone because of its encyclopædic character that this book by Professor Roscher will find a place in the library of all students of industrial subjects. It contains many important generalizations which cast much light upon vexed questions, and is not wanting in those concise statements of facts or tendencies so universally selected for purposes of quotation. For example, speaking of the influence of commerce upon the life and character of peoples, he says: "Commerce everywhere tends as strongly to cosmopolitanism as agriculture and the handicrafts do to communalism and provincialism, or manufactures to nationalism." Again, the sentence which characterizes the mercantile system cannot easily be surpassed for accuracy and comprehensiveness: "The chief peculiarities of the so-called mercantile system rest upon an overestimation of five specific points: density of population, amount of money, foreign commerce, factory industries, and the guardianship of the state over private enterprises." By far the most important problem touched upon in this book is that of the new elements introduced into nineteenth-century life by the changed modes of applying labor to material. The transformation of hand labor into machine labor, the disappearance of small independent concerns and the establishment of large manufactories, the concentration of power and of wealth which the introduction of machinery has rendered possible—these and kindred questions connected with the development of industries are here treated as constituting a problem in history. From the standpoint of the production of wealth, modern methods are worthy only of praise. "The significant difference between hand-work industries and factory industries lies in the division of products considered from the social standpoint." This modern method of industry is observed to render workmen careless, and, in consequence, introduces the "danger of a proletarian increase of population"; it increases the dependence of the laborer upon the master, and thus tends to repress his individuality, a tendency that strikes at the successful continuance of democracy itself. Speaking of the introduction of machinery and the consequent employment of women and children, the author remarks: "The most mischievous side of all this may be discerned in the destruction of family life. When the man ceases to be the provider for his family, the most natural and unquestionable ground of his paternal and matrimonial authority is assailed. Here are those sickly dreams of the emancipation of woman already in a measure fulfilled; the woman is admitted to the same occupation as the man, independent as he; but what a fearful number of marriages ensue worthy only of savages."

It was Burke who pointed out the difficulty of understanding the forces of one's own times. The past is given to us by historians, but the present is beyond the comprehension of the great majority of those who form a part of it. It is studies such as these of Professor Roscher that assist one to read his own times as though he had but an objective interest in them, and to be as sure of his judgment, and perhaps equally severe, as the historians of the next century will be. In this lies his great service. The first volume of his system, the one translated into English, does not add a great deal to economic literature; nor can one hope much from the fourth, so perfectly has that field of study already been presented; but the second, upon agriculture, and especially this third volume, devoted to commerce and manufactures, will long remain among the most fruitful books which economists can study. Upon these two books must Professor Roscher rest his hopes of enduring reputation as an economist.

President Garfield and Education. Hiram College Memorial. By B. A. Hinsdale, A.M., President of Hiram College. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1882. 8vo, pp. 433.

We feel safe in assuming that but for our late President's death few of our readers would ever have heard of Hiram College, or of the intelligent little settlement which gathered round that school and church in the Western Reserve of northern Ohio. But it is easy to see that Garfield's character was a good deal shaped by his life there. It was not an idle one. Teaching school, and studying law, and busying himself with politics were not enough, without preaching on Sunday, to satisfy the demands of his vigorous physique and active brain. The habit of public speaking and of preparing himself carefully for it seems to have been in great part acquired there. Before that, however, he had had some experience in Solon, Zanesville, and Warrensville. His own account of his first experi-

ment in Solon we may quote. He had been looking about for a school to teach without at all satisfying himself, when, he says,

"a man from an adjoining neighborhood called at my mother's house, and said he 'was huntin' widow Gaffield's Jimmie.' He wanted a teacher for his district, and he ''lowed that Jimmie would do.' I was called in, and a bargain was soon concluded. The coming of this man confirmed me in the opinion that place-seeking was not in my line; and I have never asked anybody for a place from that day to this."

The time has not come for a dispassionate review of the life of our murdered President. The sadness and suffering of his painful death have drawn a veil of tender sympathy over the weaker parts of his career. We may well notice, however, this kindly picture of his Hiram life; and the extracts from his addresses on educational topics which are appended to the volume seem to deserve comment, from the light that they throw on his character and way of looking at things. He showed in them all his shrewd, clear common-sense. His sentences are short and direct. He used few figures, and those of a homely, familiar kind. He was intensely practical. He pointed out the folly of spending large sums on the brick and mortar outside of schools while the brains were poorly furnished within. He dwelt on the wrongfulness of multiplying early studies at the expense of a thorough knowledge of the essential elements. He wanted the United States to spur on the backward part of the community for its own protection, through the influence of the Bureau of Education; and he urged the importance of universal education. But the kind of education that he always had in view was the preparation for practical life. Study purely for the sake of culture he scarcely comprehended. He thought a college course very deficient which should leave a student ignorant how to harness a horse or draw a bill of sale. The kinds of knowledge to be sought in a liberal curriculum he specifies clearly as—

"(1) That knowledge which is necessary for the full development of our bodies and the preservation of our health; (2) the knowledge of those principles by which the useful arts and industries are carried on and improved; (3) that knowledge which is necessary to a full comprehension of our rights and duties as citizens; (4) a knowledge of the intellectual, moral, religious, and æsthetic nature of man, and his relations to nature and civilization; (5) that special and thorough knowledge which is requisite for the particular profession or pursuit which a man may choose as his life-work after he has completed his college studies. In brief, the student should study himself, his relations to society, to nature, and to art; and above all, in all, and through all these, he should study the relations of himself, society, nature, and art to God, the author of them all."

In short, the things that a college student should study are those which will teach him to take care of his health, to succeed in business, and perform his political duties; keeping religion especially in view. It is unnecessary to point out how far this is from the purpose of a liberal education as understood by more cultured communities. The two schemes are quite irreconcilable. The one aims at general culture and mental development, and arranges the course of study to reach that end. The other seeks to teach the facts which will be required for use in after life, and makes its prime object those things which the great universities relegate to the professional schools. The difference is not accidental, it goes to the root of the matter. The two views belong to different phases of culture. Mr. Garfield held to his belief consistently. It ran through his character, and throws much light upon his other views. He applied the same process of reasoning, for example, to the Government survey of the Western territory, which he was inclined to confine to practical preparation for the sale of the lands. He was, in short, thoroughly practical in everything. His chosen examples of success were the Maydole hammer, the Spencerian penmanship, and the Ryder photography, and it is not difficult to trace the influence of his ideals upon his public career.

On the Indian Hills; or, Coffee-Planting in Southern India. By Edwin Lester Arnold. In two volumes. London: Sampson Low & Co. 1881. 8vo.

Mr. Arnold went to India, in the fall of 1877, to take a position as assistant superintendent of a coffee-estate in the little native dependency of Cochin. It is only in the second volume, however, that we actually arrive at the scene of his labors on the hills just west of Madusa. The first is occupied with a very readable description of the voyage out, in which the little incidents which vary the monotony of life on ship-board are narrated in such a sprightly manner that one forgets how old the story is. He landed at Colombo, the first inhabitants to greet him being innumerable crows, of whose familiarity he gives many amusing particulars. After a short run to Kandy, he proceeded by steamer up the coast to Calicut, and thence by rail, bandy, and munchiel, or swing-cot, into the interior. The estate to which he was sent was a new one, so that we have a very clear account of the various processes by which the well-nigh impenetrable jungle is converted into a coffee-plantation. The reclaiming the jungle is of course done in much the same manner in which our forests are cleared, but the labor is tenfold as great, since the Indian planter must depend upon coolie labor, which at the best is poor, but in famine times is sadly inefficient. Mr. Arnold came when the distress was at its height, and the two or three hundred laborers on his estate were mostly "famine" coolies—that is, men, women, and children who had been driven from their homes on the plains to escape starvation, in many cases only to meet a quicker death in the cold and fever-laden mists of the hills. Mr. Arnold has much of the literary ability of his father, the author of the 'Light of Asia,' and his account of these poor creatures and their sufferings is painfully graphic. We do not remember anything which brings up so vividly the horrors of those days as some of the incidents which he gives. Here is one of the least distressing: "After lunch I was strolling about the platform, when a poor old decrepit coolie woman appeared on the line, and came timidly forward with her eyes bent on the ground, every now and then stooping to pick up something, which she greedily ate. Wondering what this could be, I waited until she was close by, and then again saw her bend down, rub her fingers along the rails, and suck them. She was positively eating the train-oil which had fallen from the axles of the carriages!" One of the hardest of his every-day tasks was to doctor his people, who died, sometimes at the rate of fourteen a week, from famine, diarrhœa, cholera, and smallpox.

The life of the planter on a new estate is a very hard one. His home is a flimsy hut, with a roof of grass and walls of a single thickness of matting, through which both wind and rain have free access. He must toil from early morning till night in the broiling sun, the terrible rain, and the yet more frightful mist which lurks in the valleys. "Once, while crossing the jungle, I came to the steep banks of a reedy nullah, and descended to wade across; but no sooner was I down into the fog than my head swam, my breathing grew painful, and my throat rough and dry, so that I was glad to scramble back before my senses left me, as they were rapidly doing." Add to all this his solitude, the wretched food which he is often compelled to cook for himself, and the inevitable fever, and it will be seen that the planter's lot is exceptionally trying. His amusements are few, consisting mainly of occasional Sunday visits to a neighboring planter, and a holiday excursion now and then to the plains. Hunting is almost out of the question from want of time, though elephants, tigers, and bisons, to say nothing of smaller game, abound in the forests about him. After a year principally spent in cutting roads, felling and burning trees, and making holes for the coffee-bushes, Mr. Arnold was utterly vanquished by the fever, and compelled to return to England to recruit. His short experience, therefore, prevents us from learning from him, as we would gladly have done, more about the cultivation of coffee than the mere preparation of the soil—for it takes at least three years to bring an estate into a bearing condition.

Notwithstanding the wretched surroundings of Mr. Arnold's life in the jungle, the worst of which we have only hinted at, there is a cheeriness about him when writing of them which extorts our admiration, and is another proof of the indomitableness of Anglo-Saxon pluck. It should be said, however, that he is evidently sustained, even under the most adverse circumstances, by a little of the enthusiasm of the naturalist. For instance, we find him solacing himself for a miserable night in which he was drowned out of his bed, by the fact that he was able on this account to add to his collection "all sorts of strange creatures in the insect way, besides bats, snakes, rats, lizards, and so on," which shared the meagre shelter of his roof with him. He is a keen and interested observer of all animal and vegetable life, and with one more quotation we will close our notice of his entertaining work:

"On one occasion, in the hot weather, when the streams were at their smallest and everything lay dry and hot under the fierce sun, while all the trees and plants sagged down their leaves for want of moisture, I came upon a quiet nullah meandering through the jungle. The bed, by chance, just there was broad and sandy, and the stream a single thread that seemed every moment in danger of vanishing. But to my astonished eyes the whole place appeared a garden of flowers of a thousand colors, and crowded so close by the water that the sand could scarcely be seen. I looked and looked again, and then stepped down to observe the parterre closer; but as I did so these animated blossoms sprang into the air in a huge cloud, and the truth was plain that they were a countless host of thirsty butterflies, collected from the forest all round to drink at this thread of liquid. The sight was wonderful as they wheeled round and round amongst the hanging creepers, and enough, in itself, to delight any naturalist—hundreds of varieties and tens of thousands of specimens, all intertwining in mazy gambols. Every size and shape and color was there, and as they flew backwards and forwards in the sunlight, with their wings shining and flashing, it was like a shower of jewels."

Analytical and Topical Index to the Reports of the Chief of Engineers and the Officers of the Corps of Engineers, United States Army, upon Works and Surveys for River and Harbor Improvement, 1866–1879. Compiled under the direction of Major Henry M. Robert, Corps of Engineers, by L. Y. Schermerhorn, C.E., Samuel O. L. Potter, A.M., and others. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1881. 8vo, pp. vii.–624. (Stereotyped.)

This work, of which 1,000 copies were printed by the War Department, is one which ought to have been done years ago, and which should be gratefully welcomed when it does come, in spite of some imperfections. Any one who has had

to consult Government reports of any kind knows in what an inextricable confusion they are left. Take the Reports of the Secretary of War, for example: there is his personal report and the special reports of all his heads of departments—as, the Chief of Engineers, of Ordnance, etc., etc. Each chief of department has scores of valuable reports on special subjects, by persons specially qualified, which are tacked on as Appendix A, Appendix MM, or Appendix ZZZ, to the report of the immediate chief. Add to this that the average specialist in engineering or ordnance is as innocent as a babe of what ought to be done to make his work available to a busy man in another department, and you have the data of the problem. The solution of it usually comes in the shape of an index (Heaven save the mark!), which is hastily compiled by a subordinate in the central Washington office.

This work of Major Robert is an attempt at a more rational solution, and it is a praiseworthy and very valuable attempt. It has undoubted defects, most of which could have been avoided by a reference to Publications, No. 1, of the Index Society of London, or to any of the best catalogues of public libraries in the United States, or to 'Poole's Index,' or, indeed, to any one of a hundred standard publications. For example, under *Cross-Section*, *Discharge*, and *Velocity*, we find the references to cross-section of *rivers*, discharge of *rivers*, velocity of *rivers;* when the references should of course be to Rivers: their cross-sections, their velocities, etc. And so in other cases, which are violations of rules that have been proved by many trials to have been founded in sound reason.

These criticisms refer chiefly to a very small part of the work; the main portion is contained between pages 43 and 603, and is an Index to Works and Surveys for Improvement of Rivers and Harbors. The entries are alphabetical by the names of special "improvements"; as, "Accotink Creek, Virginia" (why not in order of States, and alphabetically by improvements under each State?). Under each "improvement" the references are given to the reports of the Chief of Engineers, under the following headings: *Appropriations*—including all made by Congress from 1790 to 1879, which thus shows the total sums appropriated; *Commerce*—giving commercial statistics; *Contracts*—naming the various contractors, and the prices paid in some cases; *Documents; Engineers*—references to reports of the Engineer Department, to the action of engineer boards, and to engineers in charge; *Estimates; Expenditures; Financial Statements; Legislation*—by States or towns; *Operations*—brief history of the work, with references; *Physical Characteristics*—giving a reference to information on this question; *Plans*—proposed for the improvement, and not adopted; *Private and Corporate Work*—done by individuals, towns, and States; *Projects*—adopted plans; *Secretary of War*—with reference to his action, if any; *Surveys*—including references to maps published or mentioned in the reports.

Thus the whole history of a work is exhibited to the eye at a glance, and all published details concerning it can be had by referring to the original reports. This is, professionally, of the highest importance, as it at once makes available a great amount of information concerning the enormous quantity of useful work done by engineer officers on public improvements. It will have a political value also, for the "claims" of any river or harbor can be at once investigated. The great question, "How much has Ohio got?" can be answered from the condensed table of appropriations for rivers and harbors arranged by States, on pages 30-37. Pages 603-624 contain the personal index to the names of all civil employees, contractors, and failing bidders, with references to the main index for details.

As is evident, the work will be of great value not only to officers of the Engineer Corps, but to civil engineers engaged in similar work. The arrangement is probably as good as any that could be adopted (if we except, perhaps, what seems to be the error of indexing alphabetically by improvements and not by States and improvements under the States), and, at any rate, the compilers have made their system homogeneous, and therefore intelligible and eminently practical. It is greatly to be regretted that Major Robert did not extend his original plan so as to include a *complete* index to all the work done under the Engineer Department during the years 1866-1879. He has gone over the necessary ground in preparing the partial Index, and a very little extra labor would have made the Index exhaustive. For example, a large number of geographical positions have been determined by officers of engineers during this period. These should all be made available. As it is, although the Topical Index of Engineering and Physical Data (pages 1-30) professes to give the work of the Lake Survey, we find only general references, and no results quoted.

These are undoubtedly gaps which must be filled at some future time. They do not affect the usefulness of the Index as it stands, nor diminish the credit for the conception and execution of it. Finally, we may note it as a little remarkable that the value of special bibliographies should have manifested itself just where it has, and congratulate the engineers, civil and military, who can use this work and who do not have to make it for themselves.

C F Bickford 2nd 27 82

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alcott, Louisa M. Moods: a Novel. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 50.
Analytical Index to the Works of Nathaniel Hawthorne. With a Sketch of his Life. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.
Bingham, D. A. The Marriages of the Bonapartes. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Bishop, J. P. Commentaries on the Criminal Law. Seventh edition, revised and enlarged. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Brown, F. F. Golden Poems by British and American Authors. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $2 50.
Faber, E. The Mind of Mencius; or, Political Economy Founded upon Moral Philosophy. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3 50.
Fairbairn, A. M. Studies in the Life of Christ. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $1 75.
Freeman, A. C. Decisions in Courts of the Several States of the Union. Vol. xxxi. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.
Havard, H. Histoire de la Peinture Hollandaise. New York: J. W. Bouton. $1 25.
Hubner, C. W. Poems and Essays. New York: Brown & Derby. $1.
Irving's Life of Washington. Vol. iii. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Johnston, T. P. Patrick Hamilton: a Tragedy of the Reformation in Scotland, 1528. Edinburgh: William Blackwood & Sons.
Kane, H. H. Opium-Smoking in America and China. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Lavater, J. C. Words of the Heart. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co.
Lear, H. L. S. Here and There: Quaint Quotations. London: Rivingtons. 5s.
Macleod, H. D. Elements of Economics. In two vols. Macaulay, T. B. Life of Frederick the Great. New York: Useful Knowledge Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Macquoid, Katherine S. Esau Runswick. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 60 cents.
Vol. i. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $1 75.
Madame Lucas. Round-Robin Series. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Martin, Ellen. The Feet of Clay: a Novel. New York: Brown & Derby. $1 25.
May, J. W. The Law of Insurance, as Applied to Fire, Accident, Guarantee, etc. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Merriam, G. S. The Way of Life. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. $1.
Metternich, Prince R. Memoirs of Prince Metternich. Vol. v. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2 50.
Moore, T. W. Orange Culture in Florida. New York: E. R. Pelton & Co. $1.
Morley, H. English History in the Reign of Victoria. Tauchnitz Edition. New York: F. W. Christern.
Morley, H. Of English Literature in the Reign of Victoria. Tauchnitz Edition, volume 2000. With a frontispiece. Leipzig: Bernhard Tauchnitz.
Morton, J. The System of Calculating Diameter, Circumference, Area, and Squaring the Circle. Philadelphia: The Author.
Nash, W. Two Years in Oregon. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $1 50.
Neil, J. Palestine Explored. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1 50.
Noble, Annette Lucille. Eunice Lathrop, Spinster. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Palfrey, F. W. The Antietam and Fredericksburg Campaign. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.
Prayers by Theodore Parker. With Preface by Miss L. M. Alcott, and a Memoir by F. B. Sanborn. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Proceedings of the Mississippi River Improvement Convention, St. Louis, October, 1881.
Rannie, D. W. Historical Outline of the English Constitution. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.
Roscoe and Schorlemmer. Treatise on Chemistry. Vol. iii. Organic Chemistry. Part 1. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $5.
Scudder, H. E. Noah Webster. [American Men of Letters.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.
Seventh Congress of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States. Authorized Report.
Sharp, J. C. Aspects of Poetry. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 50.
Shelton, F. W. The Rector of St. Bardolph's. New York: Thomas Whittaker. $1 25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 9, 1882.

The Week.

THE financial situation was one of anxiety and apprehension until Saturday, which was the critical day for the settlements at the Paris Bourse. Up to that time gold continued to flow from London to Paris and from New York to London, although the total specie shipments from here amounted to only $3,750,840. It is true that the Bank of England made no further advance in its discount rate, but the actual discount rate was before Saturday above 6 per cent., and as high as 7 per cent. was then paid for money on the best securities which could be offered in London as collateral for call loans On Saturday, as soon as it was known that the Paris settlement had been made satisfactory, the agony ended. Hopefulness took the place of fear; exchange on London at Paris began to advance, the prices of securities in London began to rise, and the tendency in all directions has since been toward improvement. This was shown here by a decline in the rates for bills on London and Paris to figures which do not warrant gold exports; and the week under review closes with the prospect that no more gold will be exported at present. The speculation at the Stock Exchange here varied in tone with the changes in the foreign-exchange markets, which in turn were influenced by the foreign advices. The New York banks last week lost heavily in reserve, but, after the losses were made good, their condition was somewhat stronger than a year ago. The legitimate business of the country shows every sign of soundness and prosperity. The surplus revenues of the Government continue to accumulate so that the Secretary of the Treasury has been forced to call in for redemption another $20,000,000 of 3½ per cent. bonds. The public debt was reduced during January $12,978,836, making the total reduction for the first seven months of the fiscal year $88,085,931.

Tuesday's *Tribune* brought us another explanation from Mr. Blaine of the manner in which he acquainted the President with the instructions to Mr. Trescott. According to this statement the mission of Mr. Trescott to South America was resolved upon between the President and Mr. Blaine; the President then had a long conversation with Mr. Trescott in Mr. Blaine's absence; Mr. Blaine then made a rough draft of instructions for Mr. Trescott, which he "handed to Mr. Trescott for such suggestions and additions as he might deem desirable for authority in the mission upon which he was to enter"; Mr. Trescott returned the paper with his suggestions and additions, and Mr. Blaine then completed the draft, which he submitted to the President, "reading it carefully to him for correction." The President "listened with close attention," and "suggested four corrections, which were accordingly made." Mr. Blaine then "stated to the President that it might be well to add a paragraph to exclude the idea of any special desire on the part of the United States Government to consider itself an umpire in the Chili-Peru controversy." This paragraph being added to the instructions, Mr. Blaine "again read it carefully to the President," and "the copy for Mr. Trescott was then made." It is further given out that the paragraph concerning the breaking off of diplomatic relations with Chili, which was subsequently taken special exception to and countermanded by Mr. Frelinghuysen, was in fact first written out by Mr. Trescott. This is the latest statement of Mr. Blaine, and we have seen nothing specifically impugning its correctness as far as it goes. It is a usual thing for a minister of foreign affairs to permit an envoy sent out on an important mission, to write out his own instructions after the objects of the mission have been explained to him, so that it may appear whether those objects have been clearly understood and appreciated by him, and also to give him an opportunity to formulate such suggestions as he may wish to make to his chief, who after all has to bear the responsibility for the instructions. This was done in Mr. Trescott's case. Judging from the context of the *Tribune* despatch, Mr. Blaine does not mean to shift any part of his responsibility upon Mr. Trescott, but rather to defend the instructions as they stand. Statements apparently "inspired" by the White House have not denied that President Arthur saw the instructions and authorized them to be issued. But they create a doubt as to whether Mr. Blaine gave the President sufficiently explicit and clear information on the general condition of South American affairs to enable him to decide intelligently. This doubt is not removed by Mr. Blaine's latest explanation, and it is difficult to see how it could be.

The arrest of the manager of the Union Générale for fraud is probably a very unexpected termination to a religious bank, or at least a bank supported mainly by persons acting under a religious impulse. It was essentially a Catholic and Legitimist bank, and was intended to give conservative religious people a fair share in the fruits of the prevailing material prosperity. The Pope is said to have put money into it. The Count de Chambord put money into it, and the Catholic nobility of France and Belgium put money into it. Under this stimulation the shares rose rapidly and greatly, and it went into all sorts of enterprises with its spare cash. It built railroads, and started gas works, even undertook to float a "Compagnie des Forces Électriques," which was to have a capital of $15,000,000. The manager reported great profits, and the stockholders believed him and so did the outside public, until the inevitable hour came when the insiders wished to "unload." This hour comes in all speculative enterprises sooner or later, and if it happens to be the same hour at which insiders in other speculative enterprises wish to unload also, there is a panic such as Paris is now passing through. It was at first supposed that the Union Générale must be proof even against a panic, and that, the first flurry over, it would go on again. But investigation revealed the fact that its management had been fraudulent all along, and its managers are now in jail, and the scandal is great, and the best circles of Continental society are sadly out of pocket.

The moral of the affair is a very old one, and yet every time it is reproduced it has the charm of novelty. It is that business cannot be successfully conducted under any guarantees of soundness and safety except business ones. Innumerable attempts have been made to put commercial enterprises of various sorts —newspapers among the number—on a religious or quasi-religious basis, and always with the same result. If the scheme does not fail outright, it does not succeed. The reason is that people never rely equally on two guarantees of a wholly different order. If a president or cashier is mainly trusted because he is a religious man, the ordinary business precautions against his malfeasance are sure to be neglected, and thus new temptations to fraud actually created. Besides which, nobody knows how religious a man is except himself, and if his word is taken as sufficient on this point, it is sure to be taken in other matters where it ought not to be taken at all. The probabilities are that M. Bontoux and his fellow-managers of the Union Générale were largely trusted because they were so good Catholics, and so right-thinking in the eyes of the depositors on a variety of subjects, social, political, and religious. The probabilities are, too, that M. Bontoux himself at last got to believe that a man who was sound on all these subjects might fairly treat himself to a larger liberty in the use of the bank capital than a man less orthodox; and then, when things began to go wrong, he probably worked himself into the belief, also, that it was better to cook the accounts than permit the enormous scandal which would be caused by the failure of an institution blessed with such support. The fact is, however, that "business is business," and nothing else. The time for religious and philanthropic and political considerations to begin to operate in financial undertakings is after the accounts have been examined and honest dividends have been declared, and not sooner.

Mr. John Roach has made a very singular confession to a reporter of the *Tribune*. He declares he is going over to France to establish a ship-building yard and build ships, in order to take advantage of the French bounty, which would amount to $34,215 on the building of a 3,000-ton ship, and $54,000 the first year and $52,000 the second year for running her. The law providing this bounty was passed two years ago, and seems, Mr. Roach says, "an expensive one, yet it furnishes France with a cheap navy, and the best she has ever had"—alluding, we suppose, to the provision which compels the owners to sell

to the Government on demand in time of war. We need hardly say that, according to Mr. Roach, "England has tried in every way to have the law annulled, but finding herself defeated, her capitalists are going over to France to build ships there." Of course they are. It is just like them to do so. English capitalists go wherever they can make money, and especially to places where they get bonuses for carrying on their own business. They are a cold, heartless, greedy class, who, when you talk to them of carrying on business from patriotic motives, laugh in a peculiarly provoking British way. But we had little idea that a really patriotic American shipbuilder like Mr. Roach would follow their very repulsive example. He is now going to devote himself to the task of increasing that disparity between the number of steamships afloat under foreign flags and that of steamships afloat under the American flag which already constitutes such a scandal and disgrace. Nor is this all. He is going to help to increase the competition in the foreign carrying trade, and thus lower freights and diminish the price at which foreign goods can be sold at a profit in our market. What do they say to this in Philadelphia? One thing, however, Mr. Roach seems to have forgotten, and that is, that the British are not at all likely to be content with trying to "annul the French law," or with starting shipyards on French soil. They will circumvent him in some other way.

The Rev. Dr. John Hall, who has personally investigated the condition of the Mormons, has given an opinion on the polygamy problem to a reporter of the *Herald*, and we are glad to see, considering the kind of talk the question has called forth, that he proposes to deal with it rationally and humanely. He points out that if we interfere violently with marriages already contracted, we must make some provision for the cast-out wives and their children, a consideration which those who have hitherto declaimed on this subject seem to have overlooked. In fact, he is opposed to all restrospective legislation of a punitive character. He calls attention, too, to the fact that the polygamic women—a few thousands all told—"are of the lowest—the dregs of certain sections of European society, mean, ignorant, wretched-looking creatures." This fact alone gives a very ludicrous air to the boastings we have lately heard of the power of 50,000,000 of people to put these creatures down, and to the plan of despatching armies against them led by great captains. It would be about as sensible to despatch an army against the sinners of Greene Street and Water Street. What is needed is well-considered legislation capable of execution and firmly executed, backed up by missionaries and philanthropists. Sexual morality cannot be, and never has been, enforced or maintained by artillery and cavalry, and the ministers who discourse on this subject know it well. They know that it was not by hanging and hunting down that Christianity purified the relations of the sexes in the ancient world.

The Canadian publishers are raising a loud complaint with regard to the operation of the present Anglo-Canadian copyright system in their case. They say that when worked as it now is, in combination with our own cheap-reprint system, it puts the trade in Canada at a great disadvantage. A book copyrighted in England can be first reprinted (pirated) in the United States, where it is sold for twenty or thirty cents, and then imported into Canada, and, after paying a royalty of twelve and one-half per cent., and a duty of fifteen per cent., can still be sold there at a price that "defies competition" so far as legitimate trade is concerned. But then who was it that insisted on the right to import American reprints? Why, the Canadians themselves, because of their longing for "cheap books," that same ardent thirst for knowledge which used always to be advanced by the supporters of international piracy here as the true ground on which to rest the system. The fact is that the laws on the subject of copyright, framed at various times for different and often conflicting purposes, by England, Canada, and the United States, have together produced a practical working system which, if applied to any but literary property, would cause widespread distress and even ruin. A recent writer of authority on the subject has described the system as being a mixture of "meaningless, inconsistent, and inadequate statutory provisions," with "ambiguous, erroneous, and conflicting decisions" of the courts. Canada will evidently have to be taken into the account in the pending negotiations for a treaty.

The annual attempt of the Columbia College Law School graduating class to get its members admitted to the bar, without going through the period of apprenticeship prescribed by the Court rules, has attracted a good deal of notice. It was in great measure to abolish the right to admission through the mere possession of a law-school diploma that the new rules were passed. This right gave the law schools which possessed it a direct pecuniary interest in making as large a number of lawyers every year as possible, so that these institutions had a constant temptation to lower instead of elevating the professional standard. When the new rules, requiring a three years' period of preparation for attorneys and five years for counsellors, were adopted, Professor Dwight took the ground that as to students who had entered his school under the old system, the rule would have a retroactive effect and that such students ought still to be admitted on diploma. There are no longer any such students, the graduating class of this year having entered since the rules were adopted. This class recently appointed a committee to consider the question, and the committee has divided, some of the members strongly insisting that to apply to the Legislature for a special act to get themselves admitted would be an unwarrantable step, while others are in favor of keeping up the old system notwithstanding that the reason for it is gone. The judges and the bar will, we presume, look after these young men, and let the Legislature know what they think of the matter.

The appearance of sixty Harvard students at Mr. Oscar Wilde's lecture in Boston, in the peculiar costume in which he has exhibited himself on various occasions, helped to turn the lecture into something very like a farce, and cause it to be received with more laughter than applause. The performance of the students has been criticised on the score of good manners, but we suspect Mr. Wilde was prepared for it, and did not object to it. It is, indeed, hard to see why he should. He has himself given an air of the ridiculous to everything he says and does, by putting himself for commercial purposes into the hands of the same manager who "runs" the plays in which Mr. Wilde and his teachings are ridiculed for purposes of amusement. After this almost anything which draws becomes legitimate. Since Mr. Wilde accepted *Bunthorne* as an ally in procuring himself an audience, anything which brings people to his lectures must be welcome. Neither he nor any other man can go about the country as a prophet in the hands of a showman. The essential condition of successful prophecy is that the prophet should take himself seriously. If he is once detected laughing over his own gospel, or allows it to be supposed that he thinks his robes funny, it is all over with him

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The *Tribune* makes the very pertinent suggestion that the names which were left in blank in the Peruvian correspondence, particularly the Shipherd part of it, should be supplied. The public ought to know who they are who have been mixed up in this business, whether innocently or discreditably, and we do not see that the Administration is under any obligation to conceal them. If the transaction was harmless, no injury can be done by telling who the actors in it were. If it was mischievous, justice requires that they should be produced. At the same time there ought to come from some quarter an answer to the question whether anything was done in consequence of the following curious piece of information contained in a letter from M. Suarez, the agent of the Crédit Industriel in Washington, to the president of the company in Paris:

> "I must apprise you that in order to render the grounds for American intervention more evident, and fully to justify the dominant attitude of the United States in the Pacific question, I have thought it right and proper verbally to promise Mr. Evarts that the agency for guano and nitrate in the United States should be placed under the patronage of a first-class American house."

The letter is dated February 18, 1881. M. Suarez had been long but vainly teasing the Government to interfere between Chili and Peru so as to prevent Chili from taking the nitrate and guano deposits, which the French company proposed to work itself. It would be interesting now to know whether this "promise" to give the agency of the concern to a "first-class American house" was ever carried out. Of course Mr. Evarts had nothing to do with it.

It is questionable whether a bill which a committee of the House of Representatives is said to favor ought to be called a measure to settle disputes concerning the election of President, or one to promote litigation in rela-

tion thereto. It provides for the reference of controversies about the choice of electors in any State to a tribunal in that State—a proceeding which has been generally approved on the ground that it leaves the appointment of electors where the Constitution puts it, in the hands of the several States. The bill goes on to provide that if, within ten days after the declaration of the result of the election by the President of the Senate, under the direction of the two Houses of Congress, either House shall express dissatisfaction therewith, the question of title to the office of President shall be tried by proceedings in the nature of *quo warranto*, to be begun in a Circuit Court from which an appeal may be taken to the Supreme Court of the United States. The suit may be brought by "any claimant" against the person officially declared to be elected. The objections which will be made to the bill are obvious. One is the same which was urged at the time of the passage of the Electoral Commission law—that it is inexpedient to involve the Supreme Court in political disputes. Another is that the bill takes the final decision out of the hands of Congress, where it is agreed that the Constitution seems to leave it, whatever difference there may be as to methods. A third objection is that, as the title to the office may turn on the vote of a single State, the Supreme Court may overrule the decision of the State tribunal on the question, and so the State may be in effect deprived of its right to choose electors. The bill reported to the Senate from the Committee on Privileges and Elections avoids these objections by limiting litigation to getting the judgment of the State Court on a question arising in the State.

The Senate Judiciary Committee has made a report upon the questions relating to extradition procedure raised by the Esposito case. It finds that complaints exist that the Commissioners in extradition cases receive payment from agents of foreign Governments. This, we presume, refers to fees; but, as we pointed out at the time, it gives the Commissioner a direct interest against the prisoner in the decision of every case. As a consequence of this it is said that Commissioners are usually disposed to expedite extradition proceedings, and for this purpose to hold court on board ship—the ship afterward being used to transport the fugitive from justice to the country which "wants" him. The Committee think that this practice is bad, and that United States Commissioners ought always to sit and hold court on land: they have really no maritime or admiralty jurisdiction. The Committee report a bill to prevent abuses, which is good as far as it goes, but they wind up with a handsome eulogy of the extradition practice as it now is, which recalls a little Blackstone's praise of the common law as it existed in his time. In this city, where most extradition cases arise, improvements are still believed to be possible.

Senator Bayard having come to the rescue of sound principles of finance, as he usually does, in opposition to the majority of his own party, the Plumb amendment to the Funding Bill was finally rejected by the narrow vote of twenty-seven to twenty-five. Senator Sherman thereupon announced that the Finance Committee would shortly report a bill to establish by law a greenback-redemption fund. Senator Allison has already introduced such a bill, which fixes the amount at $120,000,000, and provides that three-fourths shall be gold coin and one-fourth standard silver dollars. This bill is objectionable only in the proviso regarding silver. One hundred and twenty millions of coin is sufficient, according to all experience, to protect three hundred and fifty millions of paper, enjoying the confidence of the public in a high degree. If the greenbacks are to remain as a constituent part of the circulation, some definite provision of means for their redemption should be made which no Secretary of the Treasury can depart from. Perhaps Mr. Allison's bill is the best that the politicians in Congress will give us. But the votes taken on the Plumb amendment show that it is not altogether certain that so large a sum as $120,000,000 will be set apart for this purpose. Differences of opinion will arise also as to the kind of coin, gold or silver, which the redemption fund shall be composed of. The silver advocates believe, or affect to believe, that the adjourned international monetary conference which is to assemble in Paris in April next will really do something to "rehabilitate" silver. It is certain that foreign governments will do the very least which their own necessities will permit. Prudence would dictate our doing nothing in the interval which would indicate a purpose on our part to sustain silver single-handed and alone. Therefore it would seem to be unwise, from the standpoint of a silver advocate at this time, to make one-fourth of the greenback-redemption fund silver, unless in the permissive way in which the Bank of England is authorized, but not required, to keep one-fourth of its resources in silver.

A change has occurred in the ownership of the Washington *Republican*, and it is said that the paper under the new management is to become the organ of the Administration. Such a relation between a journal and a Government will, in a country like this, inevitably be embarrassing and hurtful to both sides unless the journal confines itself strictly to the publication of official matter, and thus ceases to be a newspaper in the ordinary sense. It is the business of a journal to speak out on everything that is of prominent public interest. It is the business of those in power to keep silence on a great many things about which a journal ought to speak. If a journal does its duty in discussing public interests and men, it will embarrass those in power who are held responsible for its utterances. If the restraints which the members of an administration have to impose upon themselves are also imposed upon a journal representing them, the latter will become dull and uninteresting. A recognized organ in the press will always be rather a trouble than an aid to an administration. Moreover, the latter does not need any organ. Whenever the President or the Secretaries have anything to say to the public they will find plenty of newspapers willing and even eager to print it.

The complete and now officially announced failure of the Rugby Colony in Tennessee adds one more to the list of miscarriages of co-operative schemes intended to make money and create "good society" by the same machinery. The result is not unattainable, but it requires more sagacity and forethought than such enterprises usually have at command. In the present case everything, or nearly everything, seems to have been wrongly done. The land was badly chosen, and the colony badly managed and composed of unsuitable materials. It has ruined the projector, Mr. Thomas Hughes, who is likely to be compelled to take refuge in his declining years in a London police magistrateship. The Will Wimbles, whom he expected to turn into industrious and useful cultivators of the soil, apparently do not do well when there are too many of them together. They need to be diffused thinly among people who have been brought up with different standards and ideals. There was, in fact, at the founding of the colony too much talk, and apparently too much thought about lawn-tennis and five o'clock tea.

The doings of the Egyptian Chamber of Notables confirm the general anticipation as to the result of its deliberations. It was bullied by Arabi Bey into the formation of a new Ministry for the Khedive's acceptance under Mahmoudi Bey. The Chamber is composed of the leading men of the various districts from which they come, elected by a sort of rough-and-ready process somewhat like that of the English election in the olden time, by a show of hands in front of the hustings. But there is no real popular participation in it. The Notables themselves decide who of their number shall go to the Chamber, and everybody else declares that it is good and God is great. But the Chamber is probably as nearly an expression of popular opinion as could be, considering how little popular opinion there is in Egypt to express. The Fellaheen's politics thus far have a very restricted range. They desire to be taxed as little as possible and bastinadoed but rarely. The Notables, or great landowners, high army officers, learned Mussulman doctors of divinity, and leading Government officials, are the only persons who have "views" on the condition of the country. The notion that a change in the Government can make any difference to themselves has not yet reached the masses. The Notables are hostile to the European—*i. e.*, Anglo-French—Control, and to the Khedive as the instrument of that Control, and are said to exhibit some signs of genuine national feeling. They talk of Egypt for the Egyptians, while yielding to no one in their desire for reform. But, then, their aspirations and deliberations are of very little practical importance, because there is no likelihood that France and England will be influenced by them. In fact, it is all but certain that if the Notables should seek to embody their conclusions in any sort of action, or if there were any signs of their affecting the people or the army, joint intervention would promptly follow. This has been already announced, indeed, by the two powers, as a certain consequence of any serious attempt to disturb the existing régime, or interfere with the European Control.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

On Thursday Mr. Blaine published, through the Associated Press, a copy of his despatch inviting a conference of North and South American republics to meet in Washington. In a statement accompanying the despatch Mr. Blaine said that he wished to correct the misrepresentations which had been made in regard to his invitation to a "peace congress" at Washington. The despatch as published contains nothing that necessitates any material change in the statements which have been published in regard to it. On Friday Mr. Blaine sent a letter to President Arthur in which he impliedly accuses him of having pursued a vacillating course in regard to the peace congress. He says the President gave the "most appreciative consideration" to the draft of the invitation to the congress, and directed that it should be sent, and that he, Mr. Blaine, was greatly surprised at finding in the communication afterward addressed by Mr. Frelinghuysen to Mr. Trescott "a proposition looking to the annulment of these invitations" to the peace congress. Mr. Blaine goes on to say that he "cannot conceive how the United States could be placed in a less enviable position than would be secured by sending in November a cordial invitation to all the American governments to meet in Washington for the sole purpose of concerting measures of peace, and in January recalling the invitation for fear that it might create 'jealousy and ill-will' on the part of monarchical governments in Europe." This matter has excited much interest in Washington, and it is understood that a resolution will shortly be introduced in Congress calling for an explanation from the President.

Mr. Sherman's Refunding Bill passed the Senate on Friday by a vote of 38 to 18. Mr. Sherman is said to have expressed satisfaction with the shape in which the bill was finally passed, and to have said that the amendments which it bears do not materially harm it. It has been referred to the Ways and Means Committee in the House, where it is expected that it will meet with much opposition and many amendments. As sent down by the Senate, it retains the provisions of the Davis amendment making the bonds redeemable at any time, at the option of the Government, after all bonds bearing a higher rate of interest have been called in. It provides for the issue of three per cent. bonds to the amount of $200,000,000, the proceeds of the sale of which are to be devoted to paying off the fives and sixes now bearing three and a half per cent. interest.

Beyond the passage of the Refunding Bill, little business of importance has been transacted by the Senate during the week.

A bill was reported from the Senate Committee on Pensions on Friday granting to Mrs. Garfield, Mrs. Polk, and Mrs. Tyler, widows of ex Presidents, life pensions of $5,000 per year from September 19, 1881, that of Mrs. Tyler to be in lieu of the pension heretofore granted her.

The joint resolution granting the franking privilege to Senators and Representatives has been reported adversely by the Senate Committee on Post-offices, and indefinitely postponed.

The Senate Committee on Civil Service and Retrenchment heard testimony and arguments on Saturday from Mr. Dorman B. Eaton and Postmaster Pearson of New York. The hearings of the committee are secret.

On Wednesday the House took up the Post-office Appropriations Bill, but no action was taken on any of the amendments offered. The amount appropriated by the bill is $43,529,300, or $132,500 less than the estimates made by the Department.

On Monday a bill introduced by Mr. Burrows, of Michigan, providing that no person guilty of bigamy or polygamy shall be eligible to the office of Delegate in the House of Representatives from a Territory, was passed under a suspension of the rules.

On Tuesday the House began the consideration of the bill for a reapportionment of representation under the Tenth Census. The bill as reported by the Census Committee met with much opposition, mainly on the ground that it "robs the weak States for the benefit of the strong." One of the grounds on which the increased number of Representatives which it proposes was defended, was that unless private legislation in the House should be forbidden by a Constitutional amendment the only safety of the Treasury would be in a larger House.

The House has passed a bill for the payment of $7,500 to the Society of the Army of the Cumberland, for the erection of a statue of President Garfield in Washington. The money is to be appropriated from the proceeds of the sale of condemned ordnance.

On Monday a resolution was adopted by the House calling upon the President to furnish a transcript of the letters of Jacob R. Shipherd, of New York, and the replies thereto, now on the files of the State Department, and also copies of any other letters already communicated, from which the names of persons and firms have been omitted. It is expected that this resolution will bring out more interesting facts in connection with the Peruvian claims and Mr. Blaine's diplomacy.

The sub-committee of the House Committee on Territories has decided to report to the full committee in favor of admitting Washington Territory into the Union as a State.

The charters of nearly 400 national banks will expire within a year, and the Committee on Banking and Currency has reported a bill to provide for their extension.

Both houses of Congress have agreed to set apart Monday, February 27, for the ceremonies in memory of the late President Garfield.

The President has approved the bill granting an additional pension to Mrs. Lincoln.

It is reported that the Washington *Republican* newspaper, of which Mr. Gorham is editor-in-chief, has been sold to friends of President Arthur, and that it will hereafter be the "organ" of the Administration.

The Secretary of the Navy has issued a general order to the effect that the frequency with which punishment by solitary confinement on bread and water, or diminished rations, is imposed by the sentences of summary court-martials, meets with the disapprobation of the Department.

The Secretary of the Treasury has issued the one hundred and eighth call for the redemption of continued five per cent. bonds to an amount not to exceed $20,000,000, the principal and accrued interest on which will be made payable about the 1st of April.

It is reported that as a result of the secret investigation concerning the expenditures of the Treasury Department Contingent Fund, four Treasury employees have been dismissed.

Mr. Spofford, Librarian of Congress, has submitted his annual report on the progress of the Congressional Library. The entire library now numbers 420,092 volumes, as against 396,788 volumes one year ago. The books acquired by purchase numbered 7,429, and by copyright deposits, 11,372.

On Saturday Judge Cox rendered his decision on the motion for a new trial in the Guiteau case. He overruled all the points made by the defence and denied the motion. After certain formal motions had been made Judge Cox sentenced the prisoner to be hanged on the 30th of June. When asked if he had anything to say why sentence should not be passed on him, Guiteau made a short speech, in which he said he was not guilty, and denounced every one, from the President down, who had anything to do with his death. In conclusion he said he would have a "flight to glory," and that the "American nation will roll in blood if my body goes into the ground, and I am hanged." He abused Mr. Scoville, whose "jackass theories and consummate nonsense" had convicted him. Mr. Scoville now has till the 1st of March to file his bill of exceptions, after which the case will be reviewed by the court sitting in banc, before which, among other points, the question of jurisdiction will be argued.

On Monday the Grand Jury at Washington began instituting inquiries into the straw-bond cases in the Post-office Department, which have been occupying the attention of the Police Court for the past three weeks. A number of witnesses were examined.

The State Department has received a despatch from Mr. James Gordon Bennett advising that Lieutenant Danenhower be not allowed to go back and continue his search for the missing members of the *Jeannette's* crew, for the reason that if he returned to the north there would be a strong probability of his losing his eyesight entirely, partial blindness having befallen him already. Mr. Bennett also says that he considers it unnecessary to send line officers from America to assist in the search, as it would only put the Government to unnecessary expense, and he has himself taken all the necessary steps to ensure a thorough and efficient search for the lost members of the crew. The Secretary of the Navy has complied with the humane suggestion in regard to Lieutenant Danenhower, but has cabled Mr. Bennett that he considers it his duty to send officers to Europe to take part in the search. Nearly 100 navy officers have applied to be permitted to go.

Justice Hunt has sent his resignation to the President.

The deadlock in the New York Legislature was ended on Thursday by the election of Mr. Charles E. Patterson, the Democratic caucus nominee, as Speaker of the Assembly. This result was brought about by the Tammany members finally consenting to vote for Mr. Patterson, on condition that another caucus should be held to make nominations for Clerk and other officers of the Assembly.

The Grand Jury on the recent disaster on the New York Central Railroad has indicted the conductor and brakeman of the wrecked train as the persons most to blame, and has censured the management of the road for not sufficiently guarding the cut in which the accident occurred.

Mayor Grace, of New York, has received a letter from Colonel von Steuben thanking the city of New York for the "kind and hospitable reception tendered to the members of the Von Steuben family during their stay in America."

Sir Henry Parker, Premier and Colonial Secretary of New South Wales, has come to this country to endeavor to induce the United States to contribute a subsidy to the Sydney and San Francisco Company, to reduce the duty on wool, and to admit Australian products free of duty.

On Monday the Catholic Bishop of the Diocese of Cleveland delivered a public lecture on the Irish Land League doctrines, which was called forth by a controversy with the local Land League as to how far the League doctrines should be taught within his jurisdiction. The lecture was an able denunciation of the "no-rent" doctrine, which the lecturer declared was "clear, unqualified theft." The lecture was very unpalatable to a large portion of the audience, and it is stated that had the speaker been a layman he would have been "vehemently hissed and rebuked" by the audience.

The Vincennes University of Indiana has started a lottery, of the profits of which the University is to receive $20,000. The scheme is said to be in the hands of "old lottery men from Louisville," and is a disgrace to the State and to the University. The charter permitting the University to establish a lottery was granted before the adoption of the present State

Constitution, and the Supreme Court has decided that the right could not be taken away by subsequent legislation.

There was a disgraceful scene in the South Carolina Legislature on Friday. Lieutenant-Governor Kennedy and State Senator Fisher engaged in a hand-to-hand fight in the Senate Chamber, which was continued in the street. Both parties, of course, belong to the "oldest and most respected families in the State."

A prize fight, which has excited considerable interest, took place at Mississippi City, near New Orleans, on Tuesday, notwithstanding the fact that the Governor had issued a proclamation forbidding the fight. The contest was between John L. Sullivan, of Boston, and Patrick Ryan, of Troy. Sullivan won in nine rounds.

The recent floods on the Cumberland and Tennessee Rivers, attended as they were with great loss of property, are reported to have seriously affected certain branches of business in Cincinnati and the Southwest.

FOREIGN.

Parliament assembled on Tuesday. The opening of the House of Commons was well attended, but there was a sparse attendance in the House of Lords. The Queen's speech reviewed Great Britain's foreign relations very briefly and declared them satisfactory. The programme of legislation outlined in the speech is elaborate. A Country Government Bill and the extension of municipal government to the metropolitan parishes of London are proposed; measures for the repression of corrupt practices at elections and the subject of a bankruptcy bill are revived; educational reforms in Scotland and Wales are also mentioned. The subject of the proposed change in Parliamentary procedure in the House of Commons is not mentioned. In the debate on the address in reply to the Queen's speech in the House of Lords, the Marquis of Salisbury made a violent attack on the Government. He said that the conduct of the Government in regard to Turkish affairs tended to separate England from Germany. In regard to Ireland, he declared that the state of affairs there would not have been allowed to exist six months in France or America. He looked upon the Government's course on the Irish question as "offering a sop to those we hope to conciliate because we are unable to conquer them." In conclusion he said that the country expected the Government to meet the calamity of which the doctrines they have preached have been the cause. Earl Granville replied to the Marquis, and in the course of his reply said that the present condition of Ireland compared favorably with that of last year. After Lord Granville's speech the address was agreed to.

When the House of Commons met, Mr. Bradlaugh attempted to take the oath. Sir Stafford Northcote moved that he be not allowed to swear. Sir William Harcourt moved that he be permitted to affirm, and after some debate, in the course of which Mr. Gladstone maintained that the House could only see that the formalities of administering the oath were observed, and could not inquire into Mr. Bradlaugh's opinions, Sir Stafford Northcote's motion was adopted by a vote of 286 to 227, the majority including the Home Rulers.

At a meeting of the Irish Parliamentary party on Monday, Mr. Parnell was reëlected chairman, and a resolution was adopted that the entire question of administration in Ireland, particularly the suppression of tenants' organizations, should be raised in the debate on the address in reply to the speech from the throne.

Great uneasiness is felt in Limerick, Ireland, owing to the ill-feeling which exists between certain classes of citizens and the military. The officer in command of the troops has addressed a communication to the magistrates, pointing out that the soldiers are unable to walk on the streets at night without being stoned, and giving warning that the military will be compelled to fire on the people in self-defence if this condition of things continues. The magistrates have resolved to take extraordinary precautions to preserve the peace.

The Right Hon. Henry Brand, Speaker of the House of Commons, addressing his constituents near Cambridge, recently, distinctly expressed himself in favor of the *clôture*.

A despatch from London on Tuesday announced the death of Major Sir William Palliser, C.B. He is well known as the inventor of the projectiles and guns which bear his name.

An influential meeting was held in London on Thursday to consider the feasibility of establishing a general hospital ambulance service in London similar to that existing in New York. The Duke of Cambridge presided, and resolutions in favor of the New York system were passed.

The meeting called by the Lord Mayor of London, at the instance of distinguished citizens, to protest against the outrages committed on the Jews in Russia, was held on Wednesday, the 1st, at the Mansion House. Speeches were made by a number of very eminent persons, and resolutions were adopted declaring that "the laws of Russia concerning the Jews tend to degrade her in the eyes of Christians." A relief fund was opened, and subscriptions received from many of those present. The Rothschilds, of London and Paris, contributed £5,000 each, Samuel Montagu, Louis Cohen, and the Seligmans, £1,000 each, and the Corporation of London, £300.

The Russian Government is about to publish a statement in regard to foreign agitation regarding the Jews, in which it says that it has not heretofore deemed it worth while to take any notice of the rumor that England was about to take a course so much at variance with existing good relations as to intercede on an internal question, which every government regulates in accordance with its own views. The Government goes on to show that hundreds of persons implicated in the Jewish riots have been tried and otherwise dealt with by the authorities of the various towns. In Warsaw alone 2,302 persons have been committed for trial.

General Ignatieff, Russian Minister of the Interior, in receiving a Jewish delegate recently, said he hoped that, before many months were over, the western frontier would be open to the Jews.

A despatch from Warsaw says that the authorities are apprehensive of a renewal of the outrages against the Jews. A thorough patrol of Cossacks has been ordered.

The Russian Minister of Finance has been authorized to issue Treasury bonds whenever necessary, without obtaining special sanction on each occasion, but the total amount in circulation must never exceed 50,000,000 roubles.

The defalcation recently discovered in the Taganrog Custom-house in Russia amounts to 70,000,000 roubles.

The nomination of M. Katkoff, editor of the Moscow *Gazette*, as Privy Councillor, is gazetted in St. Petersburg. M. Katkoff is reported to be an "Anglophobist, a strong protectionist, and an advocate of inflation of the currency."

There has been a Cabinet crisis in Egypt. On Thursday a deputation of Notables waited upon Sherif Pasha, President of the Council, and requested him to sign their draft of an organic law. Sherif Pasha referred them to the Khedive, who summoned the English and French Consuls to a consultation, in the course of which Sherif Pasha arrived and tendered his resignation. The military party then demanded the appointment of Mahmoud Baroudi as Prime Minister, and finally forced the Chamber of Notables by threats of violence to agree. Mahmoud Baroudi was accepted by the Khedive, and proceeded to form his Ministry. The new Premier has informed Mr. Malet, the British Consul-General, that the new Government will respect all international obligations. The programme of the Government has been published. It declares that an organic law scrupulously respecting rights of a private or international character, and engagements of the public debt, will be the first act of the new Ministry, and that the law will also determine the limits of Ministerial responsibility to the Chamber. The Khedive has accepted the programme. The military party are greatly elated at their success.

The Khedive approved the organic law proposed by the new Ministry, and the long-mooted question of the right of the Notables to vote on the budget has been settled by a declaration drawn up by the Ministry, affirming that this right had been delegated by the Khedive to the Notables by virtue of the power conferred on the Khedive by the Sultan, and that the granting of such right is not contrary to international obligation.

In the French Chamber of Deputies on Monday a Republican member interpellated the Government in regard to the revision of the Constitution, and urged the Ministry to undertake the matter. M. de Freycinet replied that the revision bill was the work of the House, and therefore it was not for the Government to present it. He said insuperable obstacles stood in the way of immediate revision, but the Government would act when the proper time arrived. A resolution confiding in the declaration of the Cabinet, and in their firm resolve to realize the reform demanded, was adopted by a vote of 287 to 66.

A declaration prolonging the existing Anglo-French commercial treaty has been signed by Lord Lyons and M. de Freycinet.

The French Senate has elected M. Royer, formerly Minister of Justice, President of the Senate, to succeed M. Léon Say, the actual Minister of Finance.

M. Bontoux and M. Feder, President and Manager respectively of the Union Générale, were arrested on Wednesday evening, at a meeting of the Board of Directors, and it is stated that legal proceedings are to be instituted against several of the directors. The Tribunal of Commerce has formally declared the failure of the Union Générale. The warrant for the arrest of MM. Bontoux and Feder charges them with abuse of trust by speculating with customers' funds.

Slosson, the American player, won the international billiard match in Paris on Friday night, defeating Vignaux by a score of 3,000 to 2,553.

The Italian Chamber of Deputies has adopted the measure for the introduction of the system of *scrutin de liste* in the Italian elections. Premier Depretis made the adoption of the bill a Cabinet question, and obtained it by a vote of 285 to 125.

A despatch from Madrid states that an interview recently took place between the Minister of Foreign Affairs and the Papal Nuncio. The former expressed the great dissatisfaction of the Government at the behavior of several archbishops and bishops, who, he said, openly encouraged a Carlist pilgrimage to Rome. The Government has received a despatch from the Spanish Ambassador at the Vatican, reiterating the statement that the Pope disapproves of a political character being given to the proposed pilgrimage to Rome, and insists that it be carried out under the direction of the clergy.

Both the Austrian and the Hungarian delegations have approved the grant for the suppression of the Herzegovinian insurrection. The insurgents have burned Konyitza, an important strategic point between Serayevo and Mostar. There are said to be many desertions from the Austrian ranks.

In the Prussian Landtag recently one of the new Schleswig members refused to take the oath, and accordingly forfeited his seat—proof of the unpopularity of the Prussian régime in Schleswig and the tenacity with which the inhabitants defend their Danish nationality.

TUESDAY, February 7, 1882.

MR. BLAINE'S MANIFESTO.

THE first question suggested by the letter on the American Peace Congress, addressed by Mr. Blaine to President Arthur, is what Mr. Blaine's object may have been in writing and publishing it. If he merely wanted to induce the Administration to take a more favorable view of the matter than it had the appearance of doing, then a private communication, conveying strong arguments and friendly advice, would obviously have been the way to attain the end. If, on the other hand, he wanted to make a political point against the Administration, at the risk of rendering it difficult if not impossible for the latter to accept his advice, then the publication of a letter couched in rather caustic terms was the thing. He has, evidently with deliberation, chosen the latter course, and we may therefore look upon his published letter not as an effort to bring about the American Peace Congress, but as a political manifesto, if not a declaration of war against the Administration. It is not improbable that Mr. Blaine wants to have it so understood.

He makes two points which at first sight seem to be somewhat effective. He charges that his invitation to the Peace Congress addressed to the different American governments was President Arthur's own act, resolved upon after mature consideration of the subject. According to the theory of the Constitution, this is unquestionably true. Every diplomatic document goes out in the name of the President, and, of course, with his implied approval. Mr. Blaine says that President Arthur in this case "received the suggestion with the most appreciative consideration, and, after carefully examining the form of the invitation, directed that it be sent." To this, it would seem, the President might have one of two answers: either that when he directed the invitations to be sent he was misinformed upon the subject and therefore did not understand it, or that he subsequently changed his mind. There is a despatch in Saturday's *Herald*, which has the appearance of being "inspired," and which intimates that Mr. Blaine did not inform the President about the condition of American international politics as he ought to have done, and that the President gave his assent to this and that without a full understanding of existing circumstances. President Arthur is not supposed to have devoted much attention to foreign affairs during his political career, a point in which he does not differ from a majority of our public men. He is therefore likely to depend in a great measure upon the advice of the Secretary of State, who must be assumed to be conversant with the details of affairs, and who under such circumstances should feel a peculiar responsibility in giving the President a clear, true, and comprehensive view of the facts and circumstances to be dealt with. We do not mean to impute to Mr. Blaine any wilful neglect in this regard, but the singular fact that the invitation to the American Peace Congress was not mentioned at all in the President's message, which was otherwise so elaborate, seems to indicate that President Arthur did not then consider it one of the subjects entitled to special consideration. There will perhaps be further light on this phase of the controversy.

The other point urged by Mr. Blaine is, that the reason avowed by Mr. Frelinghuysen for doubting the expediency of the Peace Congress—namely, that if we "entered into negotiations and consultation for the promotion of peace with selected friendly nationalities without extending a like confidence to other peoples with whom the United States are on equally friendly terms," it might create "jealousy and ill-will" among the latter—is "a voluntary humiliation of this Government" before European powers. While we do not think the apprehension of jealousy and ill-will on the part of nations with whom we are now on friendly terms is the strongest objection to the holding of the American Peace Congress, we do think that Mr. Blaine's flourish about the "voluntary and complete humiliation of the American Government" is far-fetched, and rather a scream of the eagle than a serious argument. One of those powers has very extensive possessions on this continent, with a population larger than any American state excepting the United States, Mexico, and Brazil, that population being in point of intelligence, civilization, thrift, and general character superior to any of them, except the United States. To consider that power in calling a general American Peace Congress would, we think, not be a voluntary humiliation of our Government. It would rather be an evidence of that courtesy and wisdom which are far more effective in carrying important points in international transactions than sensational brilliancy.

It is scarcely possible to treat seriously that portion of Mr. Blaine's letter which relates to our commercial relations with the South American states. He says that the "balance" against us in South American trade last year was $120,000,000; that this was paid in "foreign exchange, made by shipments of cotton, breadstuffs, etc., to Europe, and chiefly to England, and that if anything should happen to check our exports to Europe, our commercial exchanges with Spanish America would drain us of our reserve of gold coin at a rate of $100,000,000 per annum, and would probably precipitate a suspension of specie payment in this country." Mr. Blaine notices the fact that we make large purchases from foreign countries at a time when we are making large sales. But if for any reason our sales should fall off, he thinks that our purchases would go on as before, and that we should send all our gold away to pay for them. Political economy tells a different story. It says that buying and selling go *pari passu* and on the same scale, and that when the one falls off the other falls off, and usually in the same ratio. Mr. Blaine seems to think that we are so much fonder of South American products than of our own gold that we are in danger of squandering our whole stock of the latter commodity in one year unless we have a Peace Conference. Only the profoundest ignorance of economic principles or the most daring assurance would talk of regulating commercial affairs by a congress of South American patriots.

It is very much to be regretted that the questions of foreign policy recently brought to the foreground by Mr. Blaine's diplomatic ventures should at once have become subjects of personal controversy, connected with the "opening of the next Presidential campaign," instead of being considered upon their merits. They must be discussed with impartiality as to persons, if that discussion is to be useful in the way of forming correct opinions. Mr. Blaine has, during his brief administration of the State Department, advanced two ideas touching our relations with the other American republics: one, that the United States, being by far the strongest and also the most just and disinterested member of the sisterhood, should interfere in the difficulty between Chili and Peru, with urgent advice or threats, and the execution of those threats in case of non-compliance, to save Peru from dismemberment and to weaken and gradually exclude European influence in politics and commerce from those republics; and the other, that a congress of special commissioners from all the American republics should be held, in which the United States are to appear, not as the great arbiter or protector, but as an humble unit, on an equal footing as to representation with the rest, for the purpose of agreeing upon some method of settling disputes among them without resort to war. It will be seen at once that these two ideas stand in somewhat glaring contrast to one another, the first representing practice and the second theory; and this contrast is characteristic of the whole scheme.

A great confederation of all the American republics, a grand Amphictyonic council, may at first sight captivate the imagination, but the question is whether, if attempted, its usefulness—in fact, its whole existence—would not be merely imaginary too. Confederations of this kind, if they are to last, must be held together, not by fine theoretical conceptions, but by a distinctly felt and well understood community of interests. Such a common interest would be the necessity of combined efforts in defence against foreign aggression. It was this necessity which at times held the republics of Greece together when the Persian empire threatened their independence. But whatever danger of this kind may have hung over the American republics in times gone by, that danger is long past, and not in the least likely to return. There is no European power now that is in the least tempted to take any risk in an effort to establish anything like foreign dominion, where it does not already exist, in this hemisphere. The latest experiences of Spain in San Domingo, and of France in Mexico, have been so disastrous that no European government will again undertake so hopeless a venture. The European press may now and then speak slightingly of the Monroe Doctrine, but every sensible statesman in Europe has long accepted it at heart, for he knows that there are forces on the American continent which on that ground no foreign power is able to cope with. All that foreign governments now want is to have their sensibilities spared while yielding old pretensions to a force of circumstances which they know cannot be resisted. We have, for instance, no doubt that, keeping this in view, American diplomacy can by considerate and clever management easily overcome the difficulties which now

seem to surround the control of the inter-oceanic canal. There is, therefore, absolutely no necessity of providing, by a confederation, for the common defence of American republics against foreign aggression, and thus disappears the strongest element of cohesion.

Next, as to the prevention of wars between these republics, the question is whether, such as they are, any international arrangement would be effective. We should, in this case, not have to do with governments ruled by the same principles of conduct upon which, with other civilized nations, we count as a matter of course. Mr. Christiancy, in the confidential letter addressed to Mr. Blaine which we summarized last week, gave a graphic picture of the condition of things in Peru, which applies to nearly all of those republics. Their population consists in great part of a debased and ignorant mongrel race, easily led by political chieftains, a great many of whom are mere adventurers trying to exercise power for their own advantage. If such states and governments are to be kept in order, it must be done by something stronger than the mere moral force of agreements, and in order that the Amphictyonic council should be in any way effective, the United States would soon have to take a position very different from that of a mere "co-equal member," having no more voice and influence than any other. This republic would have to become practically the arbiter and protector of the whole sisterhood, enforcing its decisions with a strong hand. And then we would see a fine selection of adventurers from the little republics hanging around our State Department and the lobbies of Congress, trying to involve our Government in their intrigues and our public men in their schemes. There would be a fine crop of jobs and plundering contrivances, and our attempt to keep peace among our interesting sister republics would soon result in powerfully stimulating the elements of demoralization in our own.

Finally, it is intimated that by the influence which such relations would give us, we could extend our commerce and regain fields of enterprise which we have lost. It is a remarkable circumstance that a certain class of politicians want to extend our commerce by all sorts of antiquated contrivances, such as bounties, or diplomatic tricks, or even war—by all means, in fact, except those which are natural and rational—namely, the removal of those economic restrictions which now prevent us from entering into commercial competition with other nations. On the whole, therefore, the great American confederation appears to us to be a chimerical conception, and the President has done well in declaring, through Mr. Frelinghuysen, that, as to this project, he "prefers time for deliberation." Deliberation will probably be the end of it

THE OBJECT OF BANKRUPTCY LAWS.

Mr. Robbins's report to the Chamber of Commerce on the Bankruptcy Bill now before Congress brings out some facts with regard to the proposed legislation not hitherto generally recognized. A remonstrance against the passage of any law has, it seems, been extensively signed in this and other large cities, and this brings into view a radical difference of opinion as to the proper object of bankruptcy legislation, which seriously threatens any measures that may be introduced. The "main question," says Mr. Robbins, is whether the administration of the law is to be "official" or non-official—that is to say, whether the liquidation of the bankrupt's estate, and the granting of his discharge, are to be left to the courts or the creditors. The two methods represent really exactly opposite theories of the whole subject of insolvency. Bankrupt laws were, as Mr. Robbins says, originally passed, not for the collection of debts, but "to try the insolvent merchant upon his career as a trader, and to relieve the deserving from imprisonment." The main object of insolvent laws, such as we have in all our States, is to provide means by which the trader may compromise with his creditors, get rid of his obligations, and start afresh. In other words, the old idea of bankruptcy was that it resulted from wrong-doing, from something very like fraud; while the general modern commercial notion of insolvency is that of mere bad luck. In England and the United States the prevailing feeling about failures in business is that they do not carry with them the idea of moral obliquity, and this must inevitably be so in countries where every one is trading more or less on borrowed capital and taking large speculative risks, and that are exposed periodically to commercial crises and panics, involving individuals in disaster which can neither be foreseen nor guarded against. In France the old feeling about insolvency has hitherto survived, and the disgrace attaching to it is still great; but in this respect, as in so many others, French ideas are not altogether modern.

Mr. Robbins and his committee, however, declare substantially that the value of the pending bankrupt law will depend altogether upon its disciplinary character. "Any law," he says, "will prove a disappointment" that does not recognize the fact that the original object of bankrupt laws was the trial of the merchant, "because the discouragement of insolvency is much more important than any economical or speedy settlement of insolvent obligations." All experience shows that creditors as a body care little or nothing about the causes which have led to the insolvent's failure, but are satisfied if they can only have the debtor's estate wound up and distributed as quickly and economically as possible. Creditors, therefore, cannot be entrusted with the discipline of the bankrupt nor with the protection of their own interests. Courts of justice are the only tribunals fit to be clothed with such powers, and the committee "regard any law that will allow composition settlements without court supervision unjust, and that such a law, if enacted, will prove to be as unwise in practice as a permission to compound felony in the interest of owners of stolen property."

The history of bankruptcy legislation in this country makes it more than doubtful whether an act which has for its main purpose the discipline of the debtor will ever get through Congress. Three bankrupt laws have been passed by Congress—one at the beginning of the century, one after the panic of 1837, and the third at the close of the war. Each one of these was passed after the trade of the country had gone through a period of serious depression, which had produced widespread disaster. Each one was passed at the instance of debtors who wished to clear off their debts and start anew. The reason why Congressional legislation was asked was in order to get the benefit of a uniform law, so that the discharge should be applicable to the whole country. As soon as these laws had answered their purpose they were in each case repealed, and the country fell back upon the local insolvency statutes. The present movement for a bankruptcy law has the great advantage of coming up at a time of general prosperity, when there is no weight of debt in any quarter, and no necessity for a class pressure from either debtors or creditors. It is an excellent opportunity for considering all the general questions involved upon their merits; and Mr. Robbins's committee seems to be inclined to go as much too far in one way as Congress has on previous occasions been ready to go in another. There is not any likelihood that public opinion will ever be more strongly in favor of disciplining debtors through Congressional than through State legislation. Why should it be? The States have, locally, in the absence of Congressional legislation, all the power possessed by Congress, but the insolvent laws throughout the country show no trace of any public opinion in favor of a trial of the trader's business career. What they do show is that public opinion is in favor of treating a failure in business as an accident, which entitles the debtor to sympathy and assistance rather than to punishment. Calling him a bankrupt and legislating with regard to him at Washington instead of at the various State capitals will make no difference in this feeling.

The value of a national bankruptcy act lies in its uniformity—in its covering the whole country; and the aim of Congress should be to pass a law securing as far as possible justice between debtor and creditor—that is to say, the surrender of all the assets, and their equitable distribution in as speedy and economical a manner as possible. In other words, equitable distribution of the assets, and the discharge of the debtor honestly surrendering these, and not the punishment of the bankrupt, should be steadily held in view as the object of the law, for we may rely upon it that there is no public opinion in the country to maintain disciplinary bankruptcy legislation long on the statute book, if it can be placed there at all.

ENGLISH POLITICS.

The meeting of the English Parliament this week opens what promises to be an even more exciting session than the last. When the last opened, Mr. Gladstone was fresh from one of the greatest victories ever won at the polls, and his antagonists were cowed and even dazed by his success. They have now somewhat recovered their senses, and even flatter themselves that a Conservative reaction has set in which would make it safe for them, if the chance offered itself, to appeal to the country once more. On the various questions of foreign policy which the Beaconsfield Cabinet left unsettled when they went out of

office, the Tories almost acknowledge themselves irretrievably beaten. They will not appeal to the constituencies about Afghanistan, or Russia, or even the Boers. They occasionally still affect to suffer from burning shame over Sir George Colley's unrevenged defeat at Majuba Hill. Their anti-Russian craze has almost subsided, and, curiously enough, they show little disposition to take part in the protests now made in philanthropic circles in England against the connivance of the Russian Government at the maltreatment of the Jews. The Jews are not favorites in Conservative circles, and good Tories are not easily moved by "outrages" even when chargeable to Russians.

In fact, most of their weapons of war against Mr. Gladstone are now drawn from the Irish land question, which has entered on a new stage since the Sub-Commissioners began to render their decisions. The reductions they have made in rents have been very serious, inasmuch as most estates are mortgaged on the old rental, and on the new basis are worth very little over the encumbrances. Some of the decisions, too, cut deep into the very vitals of landed property—particularly the recent one on the "Healy Clause" of the Act, which lays it down that no length of occupation under a lease exhausts a tenant's interest in improvements made by him and makes them a proper ground for increase of rent, unless he has received formal compensation for them from the landlord. This has been confirmed on appeal by the Commission itself, and will probably be also confirmed in the Law Court, to which another appeal still lies.

In consequence of all this, the Irish landlords have raised the cry both of confiscation and of breach of faith, and it has been eagerly taken up in England. They say that the understanding in Parliament when the Land Act was passed was, that it was intended mainly to give security of tenure, and would not diminish the value of property, whereas it has really diminished it from one-quarter to one-third, and they therefore demand compensation out of the Treasury. Of their getting compensation there is no chance whatever. In fact, the claim was demolished almost as soon as it was made, by Lord Derby, in one of his neatest and most remorseless bits of dialectics. The Conservatives have probably just as little intention as the Liberals to favor any such compensation, but they are none the less ready to treat the decisions of the Commission as acts of spoliation, and the Irish landlords as the victims of Gladstone's demagogy. They say very little for the Irish landlords as objects of compassion, because they well know that they are a class for whom it is difficult to excite sympathy in England. But any stick is good enough to beat a dog with, and the "plundered" Irish proprietor, if he is good for nothing else, is an excellent illustration of the working of Gladstone's wickedness and perfidy. In fact, the depravity of Gladstone's nature may be said, without exaggeration, to furnish at present the leading topic of Tory speeches; and the attacks on him, savage as they used to be when Beaconsfield was in power, were never as savage as they are now. In those days Tory criticism of him was softened by contempt for him as a hair-brained rhetorician, who would never again fill any place of responsibility. These criticisms are now, however, sharpened by the consciousness that he is the most powerful man in England, the man hardest to shake in his seat since the younger Pitt. He is denounced by some as the enemy of property; by others as the enemy of religion, his own piety being a mere cloak for inbred sympathy with all assaults both on the throne and the altar. His Irish legislation shows that he is really a Communist; his willingness to let Bradlaugh into the House shows that he is really an atheist, with a sneaking partiality for indecency.

These ravings, which for the last two or three months have been reported nearly every week from the Conservative stump, would have little importance except as illustrations of the fanatical violence of the upper classes when threatened in their pockets or their privileges, if it were not for the indications they give of the position the Tories are likely to take on the question of parliamentary procedure. This question is undoubtedly the most important of all those which are to arise in the coming session, and it will be the first to arise. It must, as Mr. Gladstone and Lord Hartington have both repeatedly said, precede all others. The omission of all mention of it in the Queen's speech has no significance, because no suggestion is ever made from the throne on a matter of this sort, and if made would be considered a breach of privilege. The Conservative temper is now so exacerbated that there is little doubt that any weapons against Gladstone will be considered lawful. It is very much like the temper of the "chevau-légers" of the French Chamber, in the days before "the 16th of May," when the Opposition were treated in debate as malefactors, whose proper place was the jail. The Ministry will be opposed and impeded by every means which the rules of the House permit. The policy of obstruction will be taken up where the Irish left it, and tried unflinchingly to make legislation difficult or impossible. In fact, the Ministry must meet it at once, before attempting anything else, unless they are prepared to pass the present session, as they passed the last, in the discussion of a single bill. They must get for the majority the right of cutting off debate. This would, no doubt, be a serious step. It would be a complete departure from one of the dearest traditions of the House of Commons—namely, that it is a club of gentlemen, who do not need many rules, who are governed in the main by good feeling and mutual consideration, and who recognize easily, by common consent, when a measure has been sufficiently debated and a division should be taken. It would, in short, to use Mr. Bagehot's phrase, be the substitution in England of "government by public meeting" for "government by club," and would involve the introduction of those summary rules and processes for the preservation of order which public meetings find necessary. It will therefore be fiercely resisted, and the resistance will probably not be confined to the more rancorous Tories.

It is still uncertain to what extent Mr. Gladstone's following will stand by him in subjecting the House of Commons to the "clôture." There are many good Liberals who shrink from robbing it of the distinction which it has so long held of being the only legislative assembly in the world which was managed mainly by comity. It will, moreover, be difficult to satisfy even those who favor the clôture about the guarantees against its abuse. So that the strength of the Ministry on this crucial question is still not easy to ascertain, and, before a combination of the Conservatives, the Irish, and Whig deserters, may prove unequal to the task. In that case, it is difficult to see how Mr. Gladstone could, after the declarations which both he and his lieutenants have made as to the absolute necessity of the change, avoid appealing to the country by a dissolution. The Tories have begun to say lately that they would like nothing better, and the Liberals would not be so sure of the result as they were a year ago. But that the Ministry would come back with sufficient, even if diminished, strength, there is little doubt, though it would be greatly to be regretted if Mr. Gladstone's stock of vitality had to be again drawn on by the heat and fury of a general election.

LIBRARIES IN BALTIMORE.

THE gift of over a million dollars to the city of Baltimore for the establishment of a free circulating library upon municipal foundations suggests a review of Baltimore libraries in general. Before the announcement of Mr. Pratt's gift, free lending libraries on a small scale and of a secular character were already in existence. Three years ago, in a night-school for boys which was started at a mission-station of Grace Church, a circulating library began to develop, as it were, by spontaneous generation. In the first place, a lad asked the Superintendent if he might take a certain book home. This was irregular, but a patron of the school ventured to assume the responsibility. The demand for books naturally increased, and at first the gentleman endeavored to meet it by allowing boys to take books from his private library. These naturally went the rounds, and fresh contributions were obtained from friends of the school. A library was organized with a nucleus of fifteen books. The first year it increased to 250 volumes, the second year to 1,000, when the collection was legally incorporated as "The Baltimore Free Circulating Library." During the year it grew to 1,400 volumes, which are now distributed at library stations in four quarters of the city.

Books are sent out from the original centre in small lots of 200 or more, and when they have been read at one place they are removed to another and a fresh supply is substituted. Thus the whole library circulates. During the past year this collection of 1,400 books, administered at the incredibly small expense of $135, has been drawn upon 4,506 times. Considering that the station-libraries are open only once or twice a week, and in no case for more than seven months in the year (in one case for only two), this is very remarkable. But more extraordinary is the fact that the loss of books has been less than one per cent. At the station in East Baltimore not a book has been lost. In this quarter boys have clubbed together under the authority of a librarian, one of their number, who rules his tribe with almost absolute power. The boys pay taxes of two or three cents a week for the purchase of fuel, so as to keep open their reading-room every

evening from seven until ten o'clock. This room was rented on the ground floor of a private house, and is a cheery place, with its good fire and tables spread with illustrated newspapers, magazines, and checker-boards. Anybody can have free access to the conveniences of this "Club," provided his moral character is endorsed by a member, or a policeman, or any person of established reputation. Another interesting branch of the Baltimore Free Circulating Library has been instituted in the new mission-house of the Society of Friends, in the vicinity of Federal Hill, which was the site of Butler's battery commanding Baltimore in war-time, but which is now in process of transformation from an unsightly clay-bank into a sightly terrace, affording a fine view of the city and harbor.

Still another free library, although quite independent of the above group, has been in successful operation for the past two or three years at Canton, among the rolling-mills and oil works. This library is open not only week days but also on Sundays, and that, too, by the special request of the clergymen of the neighborhood. The reading-room is well supplied with magazines and newspapers. The whole enterprise is in connection with the Workingmen's Institute of Canton, which comprises lectures by instructors from the Johns Hopkins University, public readings, concerts, and the like. The employees of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad have also their free lending library and a course of free lectures by teachers of biology from the University. At the first lecture, which was upon the suggestive topic "How Skulls and Backbones are Made," President Garrett reminded the audience that Johns Hopkins left all that portion of his estate which was invested in the stock of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad to the University that bears his name, and that the earnings from that stock were, therefore, its chief support. He said it had occurred to the president of the road that its employees and their families might secure some of the benefits to be derived from that University, and he had accordingly spoken to some of the professors, who had consented to give a few instructive lectures. Thus the workingmen of the laboratory and machine-shop are brought together. It is wonderful to observe the interest of manufacturing districts in libraries and reading-rooms. Woodbury has just organized such an associate institution, in which all classes and sects, Protestants and Catholics, are happily united. Catonsville, a place of less than 2,000 inhabitants, has maintained for several years a similar association, encouraging not only reading, but also music, the drama, and the playing of billiards in a reputable place. It is noteworthy that the establishment of the Catonsville Library as "a general meeting-place for citizens" has lately resulted in a memorial to the Legislature for the incorporation of this village into a town by itself. The importance of schools and library associations as germs of corporate life, and as points of cohesion for church sects, is gradually becoming apparent.

On the first of January, 1882, the Mercantile Library Association, which was first started in 1839 by a few clerks and business men, opened its doors to the public in a new building, erected as headquarters for the trustees of the Wilson Sanitarium (another monument of Baltimore private philanthropy—for securing, in summer, country and sea air for sick people too poor to leave the city). The Wilson building, the upper part of which is devoted to offices, is situated upon a convenient corner, and fronts fashionable Charles Street. Baltimoreans passing this fine new building on New Year's Day could look in from the sidewalk upon a most inviting scene. Naturally everybody entered to attend the reception given by the president and librarian of an old Baltimore association, now rescued from its basement quarters and side-hill tendencies, and firmly established in a convenient, well-lighted, highly attractive place. The spacious rooms, their comfortable and even elegant appearance, the evidently increased supply of new books, papers, and magazines, the perfect ease and freedom of access to the shelves —these things, combined with the well-known fact that the president of the Association had made the transfer at his own expense, and had guaranteed the rental of the building for five years, revolutionized the Mercantile Library in a day. The membership began to increase, old members returned, everybody determined to pay his subscription, and it is now confidently believed that the Mercantile will once more become self-supporting, notwithstanding the immediate prospect of a Free Circulating Library for all Baltimore. A certain class of people will prefer, on some accounts, a library which is not so free and not so public; and the Charles Street corner has many attractions.

Three weeks after the New Year's opening of the Mercantile came the letter of Enoch Pratt to the Mayor and City Council of Baltimore announcing his proposition to erect upon his Mulberry Street lot (valued at $30,000) a fire-proof library building, capable of holding 200,000 volumes, and costing, "when ready for occupancy," in the summer of 1883, about $225,000. This entire property, embracing grounds and building, Mr. Pratt proposed to deed to the city, and then to pay over the sum of $833,333 33, making a total gift equivalent to $1,088,333 33. The only condition which Mr. Pratt attached to this magnificent donation was that the city should make the Library a municipal institution, by creating an annuity of $50,000 forever, payable quarterly to a close corporation of trustees, for the future maintenance of the Library in its various branches. The point of the whole matter is not generally understood. The Library, according to Mr. Pratt's idea, is to be, not privately endowed, but a public institution, supported by public moneys. He gives outright to the city of Baltimore the sum of $833,333 33, and suggests that it be added to the sinking fund for the gradual payment of the city debt. Of course, if applied to library purposes, the income of the money donation, at the rate of six per cent., would yield the precise amount of the required annuity, although at present rates there would probably be a deficiency which the city would have to make up by self-taxation. But that is not the point. The city of Baltimore can apply the interest or principal of this donation to any public purpose whatever, and it may even lose the whole amount by bad investments, but will remain bound forever to pay an annuity of $50,000 to support its Free Public Library, for, by an act of the City Council, on the 31st of January, signed by the Mayor February 3, the terms of Mr. Pratt's generous and far-sighted offer were formally accepted. In token of public appreciation of private munificence, the municipal government recommends that the trustees, whom Mr. Pratt is to appoint, organize under the name of "The Enoch Pratt Free Library of Baltimore City."

Workmen are now preparing the ground for the new building, the details of which were planned by an architect under the personal direction of the Provost of the Peabody Institute, who has been Mr. Pratt's chief adviser in this regard. The Provost, in an article explaining to the Baltimore public the plans of the new library—an article published at the same time as Mr. Pratt's letter—says:

"Baltimore has long needed a popular library to supplement her noble scholars' library in the Peabody Institute. That collection of books will supply students with all they require in their difficult and recondite pursuits, but in no sense can it supply the want of the great mass of the people. The great want of books at home, which the Peabody Library, as a reference library, cannot possibly meet, will now be supplied by the munificent endowment of Mr. Pratt. These two libraries will form a complete library system, each supplementing the other; each supplying a want that the other does not reach. And there will be no rivalry between them, unless it be a generous rivalry for excellence, each in its own sphere of usefulness. One is intended for scholars, the other for the people. One is designed to promote the highest culture of the learned few, the other to increase the knowledge and intelligence of the busy many."

No individual benefaction is altogether independent of public or private influences and of historical environment. Broad schemes of philanthropy like that of John McDonogh, who left $1,400,000 to the cities of Baltimore and New Orleans for the education of poor boys; that of George Peabody, who left $1,250,000 for the founding of the Peabody Institute in Baltimore; that of Johns Hopkins, who left $7,000,000, one half for a hospital, the other half for a university —such philanthropy is the product not alone of broad minds, but of broad experience in the world and of wise association with suggestive men; of a careful study of existing institutions, and of a keen discernment of the spirit of the times. It would be interesting if Mr. Pratt should ever describe the formative process of his own great plan, which originated ten years ago, but which has grown by conference with friends and by observation of existing libraries, even of the Mercantile Association, and of those small branches of the first "Baltimore Free Circulating Library." Mr. Pratt has been one of the trustees of the Peabody Institute from its very foundation. His legal adviser, who drew the will in which Mr. Pratt's idea was first outlined, was a member of the same board. No one realized more fully than did these men that the Peabody plan did not embrace the idea of a popular lending library. In a letter to the original board of Peabody trustees, the founder of the Institute provided for "an extensive library, to be well furnished in every department of knowledge—to be maintained for the free use of all persons who may desire to consult it—to satisfy the researches of students who may be engaged in the pursuit of knowledge not ordinarily attainable in the private libraries of the country." He distinctly recommended "that it shall not be constructed upon the plan of a circulating library; and that the books shall not be allowed to be taken out of the building, except in very special cases, and in accordance with rules adapted to them as exceptional privileges." Evidently Mr. Peabody's idea was to establish a library for scholarly research, something like the British Museum. Other provisions for his Institute show that he was aiming to engraft upon Baltimore the offshoots of the highest culture attainable in the great capitals of Europe. He instituted "lectures by the most capable and accomplished scholars and men of science." He planned for a Conservatory of Music, a Gallery of Art, and an annual exhibition of paintings. He established a system of prizes, not for common schools, but for high schools. He aimed at the higher education, and meant to elevate the masses, not by descending to their standards, but by raising theirs to his. And the far-sighted wisdom of the Peabody foundation is now evident in many ways, in a growing interest in libraries and good books, in the development of the "high school" idea into a university, in a wonderful popular interest in scientific lectures, in classical music, and art in general. Nothing proves so well the power of high ideas as their influence in creating a demand for higher

things. The Peabody Institute and the Johns Hopkins University make their influence felt in the mechanic's workshop as well as in schools and libraries.

It is impossible in a few words to give any adequate conception of the present resources and growing wealth of the Peabody Library. That collection for scholarly research was begun in 1861, and now embraces 73,000 volumes of a strictly scientific character. Popular works, ephemeral literature, and "the latest novel" have been rigorously excluded. The trustees of the Peabody Institute, who are among the most respected, influential, and cultivated men in Baltimore, have held firmly to the Peabody idea of securing the highest and the best. "Quietly, without pause, without parade, amid much ignorant cavilling and vituperation, they have pursued their work of collecting a library which should furnish to the student the best books in all languages, and in all departments of human knowledge." The collection was begun through the aid of specialists in various parts of the country, who recommended books, many of which were purchased by European agents. Professors at Harvard, Yale, Brown, Virginia, and Michigan Universities, lecturers at the Peabody Institute, scientific men in Washington, specialists and gentlemen of culture in Baltimore, have all coöperated with the Provost of the Peabody Institute in his laborious and responsible work of choosing a library for scholars. At first there was naturally little demand for the original sources of knowledge, works of science in foreign languages, the collections of learned societies, and the proceedings of the great academies of Europe. "We cannot create scholars or readers to use our library," said the Provost in an address to the public in 1871, "but we can make a collection of books which all scholars will appreciate, when they shall appear among us, as they surely will some day." That day has come. Already in 1871, the idea of founding a great university was in the mind of Johns Hopkins, and already he had chosen upon his board of trustees several of the managers of the Peabody trust. The two institutions now supplement one another. A learned foundation is slowly building, with a library of research for its corner-stone.

The Johns Hopkins University does not attempt to duplicate collections already existing in Baltimore unless there is some special demand. The institution enjoys the incalculable advantage of free access to the Peabody Library. One or two University classes meet in a small lecture-room of the Institute for the sake of using its valuable resources. The same privileges are accorded by the Maryland Historical Society, where also University classes have met, and where there is an excellent collection of Americana—manuscripts, pamphlets, and files of old newspapers, some of which latter have been utilized by Von Holst in his studies for the 'Constitutional History of the United States.' By the courtesy of members of the Baltimore bar, the Law Library is also made easy of access to advanced students of history and political science. The Maryland Episcopal Library, the legacy of the late Right Rev. W. R. Whittingham to his diocese—a unique collection of ecclesiastical literature (Catholic and Protestant), comprising ancient folios and rare editions of the classics, church fathers, and schoolmen—this modern cloister is open to advanced students of church history and institutions. The library of the Johns Hopkins has a character quite its own. In point of size this collection, now numbering about 11,700 bound volumes, is inferior to five other libraries in Baltimore, that of the Peabody Institute (73,000), Mercantile (37,000), Maryland Institute (19,000), Odd Fellows' (20,500), Maryland Historical Society (17,000). But it would be unjust to measure the efficiency of the University library by any material scale. At the outset, the trustees of the Johns Hopkins seem to have conceived the idea that a library should form an organic part of University work. The newly-appointed professors, associates, and fellows were consulted as to what books they needed for the immediate prosecution of their researches, and those books were first ordered. From the very foundation, the library has grown in the direction of special working-collections, rather than of a library-museum. Small department-libraries have been formed in separate rooms, with facilities for quiet research. The systematic policy of the University has been toward colonizing special libraries in the very class-rooms and work-shops. The chemists have long had their own reference-library in the laboratory-building, so that students, without personal inconvenience or neglect of work in hand, can look up special points in any of the complete sets of mechanical journals, Liebig's *Annalen*, and the like. The Professor of Greek has his seminary-library, and other departments are working in the same direction.

In addition to these special libraries, there is a University reading-room, which is the favorite resort of students and instructors, and is, on the whole, a unique place. Large, comfortable, attractively furnished, well-lighted and cheery, it may be termed a University parlor, or the Johns Hopkins family library, where all departments are entirely at home, and where every member of the University household can help himself to books or periodicals. There is no obstructive policy on the part of librarians. The books are upon open shelves, and within easy reach from the floor. The collection contains chiefly works for general reference, not merely encyclopædias, dictionaries of various languages, maps, hand-books of biography, art, and science, but also works of classic, Germanic, French, and English literature, history, philosophy, and science—standard books which not merely persons of liberal culture, but even so-called "narrow specialists" have frequent occasion to consult. Men take the volumes they want, sit down at one of the long tables, and work quietly, without asking questions, for everybody seems to know where everything is to be found. When they have finished, they return the books to their places, as though they belonged to a private library. If a book is to be taken away, of course it must be charged by the library attendant, who employs a card-system of receipts and keeps an alphabetical account of all absent volumes, which may be recalled if demand arises, but which otherwise may be renewed from time to time. In the reading-room may also be found, arranged by departments upon long tables, a remarkable collection of periodicals, published in various countries—England, Scotland, France, Germany, Austria, Holland, Belgium, Italy, Greece, India, and the United States. Some of these foreign periodicals are the proceedings of royal academies and learned societies, notably of London, Edinburgh, Dublin, Paris, Berlin, Vienna, St. Petersburg, Copenhagen, Rome, Venice, and Calcutta; and some of them are received in exchange for the mathematical, philological, and other scientific publications of the University.

One of the most interesting features, perhaps, of the library management is the so-called "new-book department," for the exhibition, in a special case, or occasionally upon long tables in the reading-room, of new French, German, and English books which may be of special value to University men. Copies of these books may be recommended for the library by instructors, and permanently retained, or may be disposed of to individuals. Nothing is ordered for the mere sake of possession. Value in use and the law of demand and supply control the choice of books. The main idea is to keep pace with the progress of science and with the advancing needs of specialists. Instead, therefore, of becoming simply an interesting cabinet of literary curiosities, the University library has always been a busy laboratory of science, where new truth is discovered by a study of its living forms.

CHARLESTON REVISITED.—II.

JANUARY 23, 1882.

IT is gratifying to see that the effect of the new prosperity begins to show itself in the schools. There are, again, private schools of high character for girls. If there is not very much talk of "higher education," etc., there is the serious steadiness, the appreciation of the value of genuine study, which comes from the long want of opportunities for it. The public schools, having to carry the dead weight of the negro population, cannot do all they once did; but it is only justice to say that, in proportion to means, more is done than in very many Northern cities. There is a charge of $40 per year at the High School for Boys, which is really a high school. The girls' school, formerly of the same grade, is now a grammar school, teaching only English, with a class for normal training. It is in spacious quarters, and the pupils are from all classes in society, as in any Northern city not overwhelmed by a foreign population. The condition of the boys and girls in the country, which is so sparsely settled that no possible effort can maintain common schools within their reach, is a matter of painful interest. Nothing can make up what has been lost to this generation in that regard during the last twenty years. In the darkest times in Charleston two schools were started which have done untold good. In the "Church of the Holy Communion Institute," which now occupies the old United States Arsenal, 2,100 boys have been pupils since 1867—a large proportion staying until fitted for college or business. Not half of them have paid full tuition—a great many nothing at all. Walking through the grounds with the devoted head of the school, the Rev. Mr. Porter, and listening to his earnest gratitude for the help received from the North, it was incredible that in the mid-winter of '61 I had myself seen the Stars and Stripes drawn down from that staff, and the blue palmetto flag run up in their place. Not less important is the school for girls connected with the Home for Widows. It was started by a few ladies of the old Huguenot Church, but it has the support of all denominations, and receives girls without any distinction as to religious faith. They come mainly from the country, and are well-born, but too poor to pay for the education they ought to have. The course of study includes (beyond thorough English) Latin, French, and music, thus fitting them to be school teachers or governesses, or, better still, to return home, as they often do, to teach younger brothers and sisters. The self-denial which the beginning of this work must have cost in such a time of extreme poverty would shrink from public praise, but it has its place of honor in the unwritten annals of South Carolina.

A torn and battered straw hat is a curious travesty of the cap of liberty, was the repeated reflection of the first half-hour on the morning drive from the railway-station, watching the black women and girls on their way home from market. In the old time they had the broad-brimmed hat in the fields, but in the cities, while the old "Maumers" were gay in the turbans of Madras handkerchiefs, the younger women and girls walked bare-headed on working-days.

Now there is none so poor as not to wear a hat. Shape, material, or age seems of no consequence, so it be a hat. At church, a woman of fifty, comfortably dressed, wore over a dull gray headkerchief a man's coarse straw hat. In the street, a tall girl, unable to lift her feet lest her slatternly boots should fall off, had both ribbon and feather on her hat. Of minor judgments about the negro none used to be more frequent than that upon the fondness for bright colors. More than one gallery in church was like nothing so much as a parterre of tulips; but, left to themselves, the scarlet and orange have disappeared. The women at the African Methodist Church were neatly dressed, but in sombre or dingy color; and the market, even on Christmas Eve, had not one bright bit in it except the fruit and the red bows fastened on the stiff white sunbonnets of two tiny negro babies. Generally in dress the women look much like white people, so that dress is more varied, but it does not seem so substantial and hardly so comfortable as formerly.

There is less outward manifestation of gayety, less singing and laughter. The mirth of Christmas week had a subdued tone, but the faces are contented—too contented, it is often said, for they do not care about making for themselves tidy and thrifty homes. In this respect a marked distinction is asserted between the country and the city negro. The former "have comfortable little farms, cows, and a horse and buggy to drive to church." Upon the emancipation, the negroes of the Sea Islands near Charleston, except the few faithful household servants, flocked *en masse* to the city. They have only the wants of a simple people, and these are so easily supplied in a mild climate that they have as yet learned almost nothing of economy—that is, the best use of the means they have. Some are extremely poor. One scarcely knows how they live; yet there is absolutely no begging in the streets, and a negro beggar at the door is a thing as unheard of as it was in the old time. All testimony agrees upon two points: "They are improvident. The man who earns three dollars a week will spend three; he who earns five will spend five; but they are *learning* to save." "They are thriftless in their daily living, but they are eager to get hold of the land."

This winter, wages for men are so high that there are complaints about house-servants. Many women who are glad to work in hard times will do nothing now. Outside the families who have retained their old servants or their children, the question of domestic service is to the full as difficult as it ever was at the North. Even the quite young women insist upon going home at night, often very long distances. "We do not sleep upon the premises," said the very deliberate housemaid. They spend the night harmlessly enough, but their late hours keep them tired and dull. A servant of the old type will work double tides rather than put up with one "who has growed up since de war." "Uncle Remus's" disdain of young Africa is repeated every day all over the South. The women are worse off than the men. It is one of the most serious evils of this transition-time that there is no upper rank of trained servants of their own class for the girls to look up to. They used to be sent to dressmakers, hair-dressers, pastry-cooks, etc., to be taught; now a few do exceedingly good work of their own free will, but there is no sort of industrial training. The public schools are so crowded, so heavily burdened, that to teach sewing even is impossible.

The distrust excited by the failure of the Freedmen's Bank is not yet allayed, so that only a small part of the negro's savings is invested in that way; but sums (really large in the aggregate) are contributed to the various friendly societies—the burial clubs, and the like. A grand funeral is a negro's pride, and the more intelligent who manage these societies have very wisely availed themselves of this feeling, and have united the provision for the funeral with that for the care of the sick. There is actually a carriage society, which sends so many carriages (pro rata) to a funeral, and the members attend in white jackets and black bands. A woman who died this autumn had received through a long illness seven dollars a week as the return from her contributions to one of these societies.

On a lonely road, a dozen miles from the city, we met a rude cart and a mule driven by a negro man. Two young boys were with him, and in the cart was a coffin. They were on their way to one of the old plantations to bury their dead in the place of their fathers. It has been a touching proof of the fidelity of old attachments, and of the still surviving power of the old personal ties, that this privilege of burial at their former home has become a much-coveted and often-sought boon. It is the more remarkable inasmuch as the country within reach of the city has been so completely deserted. In that great Saint Andrew's parish only two houses were left standing, and scarcely a family has returned to its former home. Yet the black people have constantly found out their former masters, and asked leave to carry home the dead. It has been a melancholy mode of measuring the swift disappearance of the former slaves. "Scarcely one is left now." "Not the old only are gone, but the middle-aged and the strong young women." Every one who lived on the Sea Islands says the same thing. In the city old people are rarely seen. The solemn white-headed men that looked so dignified at church are all gone, but the streets swarming with young men and boys and little children leave no doubt of the actual increase in numbers. In the city the black people are but very little less than one-half the population, while on the Islands in some parishes they are even six and eight to one white man. In a single school in Charleston there are 1,400 negro children.

The teachers are all white—the principal is a man; all the other teachers are women, many of them ladies of great refinement, themselves once mistresses of slaves, whom necessity has compelled to seek employment. They are working in good faith, and with an infinite patience, and they undoubtedly make the best teachers for the blacks. From their intimate knowledge of them, they know when it is wise to insist and when to yield. Numbers vary. One primary teacher has had one hundred and eighty pupils under her charge at once. The first class in the intermediate grade averages fifty. In this class they are of every size and age, from boys of eleven to women of twenty-two and twenty-three. In this class they learn long division. Arithmetic is the thing they care most for. The boys are brighter and quicker than the girls, but the girls are more docile and more attentive, which makes good the difference. The girls can be managed without corporal punishment; the boys not, for a rattaning is a small matter to them, since many of their fathers are likely to use either a rope or a club upon them. So few have books that the classes must be taught as if they had none. Of school-work as such you hear only praise. It is frequently said by white parents of even such studies as algebra: "It would be a good thing if our children of the same age could do as well as those darkies do." The doubt, either logically or practically, comes in the step beyond. It cannot be denied that so far, for almost all, even those who go through the whole school course, progress ceases at fourteen and fifteen. More than half who can write and spell creditably on leaving school cannot do it in two years' time. The reasons are obvious. Although it is universal that the parents care to have the children go to school, and make willing sacrifices to keep them decently clothed, almost all must go to work, and that mainly in employments which offer very little stimulus to the brain. There are no home associations whatever to keep up the school influence. Not only are there no books, but very, very few have good lights in their houses at night. There are evening schools, but that at best means only a small fraction.

Nevertheless, there is no word of discouragement. "They do more than I ever would have believed possible when I knew them as slaves." "They will surely make an intelligent laboring class." The tone of speech about them is more than kindly; it is respectful. And here might be noted a change that has its significance. In the old time the word "slave" was never heard; now it simply has its own meaning, as stating a fact of the past, and is used as needs be, with not the slightest special thought or emphasis. Remarks like these are made every day: "We ourselves have beheld with astonishment the good behavior of our own people—those who were slaves before the war. We have been ourselves amazed at their good conduct under the influences to which they were subjected directly after the war." To an inquiry about the character of a colored man, the reply was: "R——? Oh! everybody trusts him. He had a hard time of it from the negroes in the dark days, because he stood by the white people; but now they see he was right." "H—— has always voted with the Republicans, but he is held in much esteem here, because more than once in times of excitement and danger in the country he stood between the blacks and the whites." For him, upon his own single bond, $2,500 had just been secured from strangers to him (distinctly not Republicans), to save his farm. If it is said, "There are still negroes who think that everything a Southerner tells them is a lie," on the other hand you will hear words like these, spoken from the experience of a long and honored lifetime: "No one has thought more highly of those who have really succeeded than their own old masters. They have come back to us. Those who have done best were the first to do so. In five years' time now, they will all have come back to us."

It was to be expected the negroes would prefer to have their own churches separate, but it cannot on the whole have been other than a loss. There are but few men yet, of their own color, who are fitted by education, or the traditions of education, to be the teachers they need. Nor in saying this do I forget the admirable preacher to whom we listened in the African Methodist Church—a man of bearing in every way so suitable and becoming that comment on it seems almost impertinent. This, however, was a city church, poor enough, but still the best able to keep the better men. The one service showed what occasion the minister may have for the simplest elementary instruction to his people. Five babies were presented for christening. Two of the mothers were accompanied by their husbands; the other three were alone. "Where is the father?" asked the minister of one of them. She nodded, and he said, "Let all the fathers come forward." Three men at once came from the rear. All the parents were very young. The minister prompted them for all the answers to his questions. The church was new and fresh. To the question how old it was, a woman replied: "It was made up since the Union." Opposite it stands a vast old church, once famous throughout the South as almost the

only church composed wholly of negroes. Its great congregation, often fully three thousand, was gathered by the care and zeal of the late Dr. Girardeau. So long as he lived the church maintained itself, spite of the changes around it; but after his death the preference for colored preachers led to a break-up, though some two or three hundred remained faithful to his successor. Though the old place of worship is deserted, these have kept together under his charge, and form a strong working church.

It is an inference in which one would be glad to be mistaken, but the blacks seem to care less for churchgoing than formerly, and the difference is greater than the general change in feeling on the subject will account for. It is, alas! one instrumentality the less for their education and elevation. No thoughtful man can study the present situation without perceiving at once its hopefulness and its hopelessness—hopeful because of so much of beginning; hopeless, because the end is so far off. Never had people a heavier burden, never a harder duty, than the white people of the South to-day. Not to have abandoned it in despair is the surest proof that they will at last succeed. No one who realizes what the work is can withhold his admiration at the patience, the faith, the devotion with which, in the midst of their own poverty, they have set themselves to do it.

THE DECLINE OF GAMBETTA'S ADMINISTRATION.

PARIS, January 19, 1882.

THE honeymoon of Gambetta's Ministry has been of the shortest. He was lifted to power by an almost irresistible force. After the general elections everybody felt that he must become the Premier, just as Mr. Gladstone became the Premier in England after the defeat of the Conservatives. Would he keep M. Ferry, who almost asked for the honor of serving under him? Would he admit M. de Freycinet and M. Léon Say? These were subordinate questions. He could do as he liked; bring fresh men—*his* men—with him, or take a few old stagers. The fact remained clear, he was to be the leader; he was to be the Cabinet; there was no dissentient voice—whoever his colleagues might be, his *ministère* was named beforehand the *grand ministère*.

How rapidly these first impressions vanished! How fickle is public opinion! First, there was a little disappointment caused by the choice of some of the Ministers. The Conservatives, who secretly are ready to consider Gambetta as their last protector, were much annoyed at the nomination of M. Paul Bert, who represents irreligious intolerance. They could not regret M. Ferry and M. Constans, who broke the doors of the convents, but what could they expect from M. Bert, who cannot speak patiently, not only of the Jesuits, but of any priest?

The second blow came with the Roustan trial. Though Gambetta was not the author of the Tunisian expedition, he was known not to have disapproved of it; he was known also as having chosen for Minister of War General Farre, who has become the most unpopular man in France. He had to accept the legacy of the last Administration, and in this legacy he found the Roustan trial. Rochefort, who is now the arch-enemy of Gambetta, had not much difficulty in discovering all the impurities of the Tunisian affair, and he threw them in the face of the Government. Public opinion in such matters is always sensational; it likes to feed on scandals. There are scandals enough in every Eastern court, and I may say in many European courts. If we saw behind the scenes at Constantinople, at Cairo, at many other places, what should we not see? The English generally wash this dirty consular and diplomatic linen *en famille*—to use Napoleon's expression; the Tunisian linen was washed publicly, before a jury, under the eyes of an excitable population. The acquittal of M. Rochefort was considered a condemnation of the Tunisian expedition. This Tunisian business has been on the minds of all the Governors of Algeria for thirty years. It has always seemed to them that it was easier to defend Algeria with than without Tunis, which afforded a good frontier on the east, while the actual frontier was a long line which nothing could defend. Tunis has a good port, Biserta, and Algeria is lacking in good ports. All this was forgotten; everybody came to the conclusion that the expedition had been undertaken merely to satisfy the greed and the caprice of a few adventurers and their mistresses.

Gambetta's strong card, in arriving at power, was an active understanding with England, or at least the possibility of such an understanding; but if France pronounced herself against distant expeditions, what could he offer England? If France showed so much ill-will simply toward a short, bloodless expedition in Tunis, how could he hope to drag her, with England, further East, perhaps to the Valley of the Nile? England knew that she had a sympathetic friend in Gambetta, but began to doubt whether this sympathy would ever or could ever take a practical shape. The decision of the jury in the Roustan trial seemed to be an intimation in favor of non-intervention, of peace at any price. England had disapproved the Tunisian expedition—the letters of the *Times* correspondent in Tunis are full of spite against the French. Here was the result. The Tunis affair gave a cry to the enemies of the Government, at home as well as abroad. The active policy which was attributed to Gambetta became, almost at once, impaired. Still, he was in the *engrenage*—the Egyptian question had to be settled, and settled with England.

It has recently taken an acute form, since the military *pronunciamiento* of Arabi Bey. France and England have established in Egypt a sort of *condominium*, which has been successful in a financial way, but which seems to become politically a source of embarrassment. The former Khedive, who was hostile to all financial reform, was dismissed, but unfortunately the present Khedive has no prestige, no energy, and is looked upon as a mere tool of the Anglo-French Control. A brother of the late Khedive lives in Constantinople, and is perpetually intriguing against his nephew. He has found an ally in the Sultan, who has become the most active sovereign in Europe, and who puts his finger everywhere. The "National party" of Egypt is in reality the instrument of the combined passions of the Sultan and of Hamid Pasha; it has found a devoted instrument in Arabi Bey, a clever, pious, brave officer. The National party wishes to place the liberties of Egypt under the protection of the army, first, and of a Chamber of Notables, which is composed of the most incongruous elements. The increase of the army indicates in what direction things are going in Egypt: a movement against the Europeans, and especially against the English and French functionaries, may be expected at any moment; and the two Governments have come to a sort of agreement about a common action in Egypt in case a state of anarchy should arise there. The difficulties of this common action would be, however, manifest; it may be said, in one word, that France does not completely trust England, and that England does not completely trust France. The English feel, that with the actual form of government in France, and in the present temper of the French people, it would be exceedingly difficult for Gambetta to enter into a systematic intervention in Egypt, to make long plans, and to guarantee their execution. The Tunisian affair is like a dead weight which embarrasses his movements. Even the creditors of Egypt are afraid; for Tunis, which had paid its debt in full for the past few years, has only paid it partly since France has taken it under her protection.

On the other hand, the French see very well that if we embark with the English for Egypt, we run the chance of being left there alone, as we once were in Mexico. If public opinion changes in England, a single vote can upset the administration, and there is an end to all active undertakings in the East. It would certainly be advantageous to France and to the French republic to have the alliance for any number of years of a power which has as much moral prestige as England; but since the war of 1871 the French nation has become very suspicious, and there is a general notion abroad that England always wishes to use the French, and will never do anything for them in the end. Without going so far as repeating the old phrases about "perfide Albion," people cannot help seeing that England has many difficulties; that she may find it necessary to withdraw for a while from active politics; that she can always retire into her unassailable island. France, once engaged in the confusion of European affairs, has no retreat; she has neighbors, and powerful neighbors. She must be more guarded than ever.

Gambetta is too shrewd to lead his country with a "light heart" into inextricable difficulties; at the same time, he has given not only to France, but to the whole world, the impression that he will not be a passive politician; and this sentiment, which first contributed to his success, is beginning to turn a little against him. If you had heard the conversations which took place a few days ago, when he presented to the Chambers his plan of constitutional revision, you would have thought he was lost. This plan was looked upon as a means of escaping from office; it was a sort of provocation to the new Chamber, or, at any rate, was regarded as such. It seemed as if Gambetta, feeling the approach of some great danger, were trying to get out of office, and, as one paper said, to return to Saint Sebastian (where he remained during the Commune). This feeling, which is probably founded on an error, helped nevertheless to agitate the public mind; and finally, to the vague sentiment of insecurity which it created, were added the sensations caused by a financial crisis.

The financial world has for years been optimistic, and the possible excesses of speculation seemed to have no end. Stocks rose to unknown heights without any reference to dividends; a bank sprang up in every street, and these banks did nothing but sell new stocks. Now the end has come: the tide, after having reached its maximum, is turning back. The fever of speculation had seized all society, and all society will have its victims. The higher classes of France, turned out of active politics, consoled themselves with gambling; and many will remain on the battle-field, having lost more than their hazardous gains, their paternal fields and their ancestral manors. It is a sad experience, but it was not difficult for the wise and the prudent to see whither we were drifting. Such accidents are hardly worth mentioning, they are so common in all countries. I merely allude to the financial crisis as one of the elements of the present state of opinion. The horizon is dark on all sides; still, I hope that we shall weather the storm.

THE ROYAL RESCRIPT.

BERLIN, January 14.

"YOU will and you shall have a conflict with the Government." Such, during the last few

months, has been the standing menace of our officious and official papers, addressed to the Reichstag and every independent voter in the country; and now, as a New Year's gift, the old King surprises Germany and the world at large with a step toward naked absolutism. By this time the telegraph will have acquainted you with the contents of King William's decree of January 4, so that I need not dwell on the particulars. I will therefore confine myself to a few general remarks, instead of discussing each single controvertible sentence.

"The right of the King," says the decree, "to conduct the government and policy of Prussia according to his own discretion is limited by the Constitution, but not abolished. It is therefore inadmissible, and leads to the obscuration of the constitutional rights of the King, when their exercise is referred to as if they emanated from the Ministry, for the time being responsible for them, and not from the King himself. The Constitution of Prussia is the expression of the monarchical tradition of this country, whose development is based on the living and actual relations of its King to the people. It is the duty of the Ministry of the King to support his constitutional rights by protecting them against obscurity and doubts. These royal prerogatives must be considered as an essential part of the Constitution, and not only be conceded to the present King, but also to his successors. All civil officers (*Beamte*), whatever their private convictions may be, are bound to support, or at least refrain from actively opposing, the Government at election times."

The decree has, of course, created universal sensation, the more so as it was published at the head of the official paper, the *Reichs- und Staats-Anzeiger*—in other words, in a place which is usually reserved for personal manifestations of the royal pleasure. Such acts as a rule are not subject to public criticism, but the document alluded to bears the countersign of Bismarck, and has, therefore, the character of a constitutional act, which allows it to be criticised like any other official paper. It is addressed to the Prussian Cabinet, and owes its origin to the Chancellor, on whom a double responsibility thus falls. The first half of the ideas expressed in the decree have lately been developed by him, while the second half repeat the theories of Herr von Puttkamer, the Minister of the Interior, who on December 15th last tried to defend them in the Reichstag, and who, of course, merely expressed the views of his chief, without whose condescending permission none of his subordinates, including the Ministers of State, dare to utter a word.

In the opinion of the most impartial observers, there was no need to throw this bombshell into the midst of the general tranquillity and peace. Everybody, of whatever party, respects old William, and nobody would ever think of attacking any of his prerogatives. On the whole, there is no more loyal and monarchical people than the Prussians, and it is but a frivolous act to poison the King's mind by inventing dangers which do not exist. It served Bismarck's ends, however, to identify his policy and that of his satellites with the interests of the crown; to represent all his opponents as enemies of the royal government, and, for the future better control of the elections, to make all royal civil officers obedient tools of the ruling Minister, who devolves the responsibility of his acts on the crown, while on the contrary he alone should be responsible for them and shield the authority of the King. From the newspapers you cannot realize the sad and exasperated impression which this new manifestation of Bismarck's passionate resentment has produced on the overwhelming majority of the people. The editors publish very calm but at the same time resolute articles, public opinion everywhere condemns the wanton measure, and the several Liberal parties of the Reichstag are still considering the best means to defeat the Chancellor's plans. An answer he will get very soon, and that a very plain and determined one. It would therefore be preposterous to judge from these scanty public manifestations that the Prussian people will quietly submit to this new outrage. They will take up the gauntlet and fight out the conflict. However cloudy and stormy our political horizon may become, I am sure it will not be Bismarck who will triumph in the end.

While last fall he and his supporters went into the election, pleading for the insurance of workingmen against accidents and old age by the state alone, now he has suddenly changed his views on that subject. The other day, in answering a Clerical interpellation about social reform, he freely confessed that such insurance, in order to be safe and salutary, must be effected by private corporations, and that a state monopoly in this respect would do more harm than good. His speech on that occasion might just as well have been made by a Manchester man. In his own interest, as well as in that of the country at large, it is to be hoped that the Chancellor will gradually return to his old economical creed. It almost seems as if his firm belief in the expediency and efficiency of his pet measures had been shaken. At all events, he cannot conceal from himself the fact that the blessings of the new protective tariff are far from being realized. He has implicated himself too far to be able graciously to withdraw from the whole line, but so much is certain, that none of his so-called grand measures will be submitted to the Reichstag at its present session.

A benevolent German organization, the Society for the Rescue of Shipwrecked Persons, has lately, for the purpose of raising some extraordinary means, published an album of autographs and drawings, called 'Aus Sturm und Noth,' to which some of our most prominent characters—poets, artists, scholars, and actors—have contributed a sentence, a sketch, or a poem. Almost all Germany is represented there, beginning with the old Emperor, a host of princes, Moltke, and other distinguished men, down to singers and actors. Bismarck at first refused to give his autograph, but toward the end of last year he quite unexpectedly sent a short Latin sentence, "Patriæ inserviendo consumor"—*i. e.*, "Serving my country I consume myself." This motto is tinged with a somewhat mournful shade, and thoroughly characterizes the Chancellor's present position. If he had confined himself to his legitimate field as a diplomatist, and refrained from meddling with our domestic policy, and from making forced constitutional interpretations, he would have no reason to complain of the futility of his endeavors, for his greatness would gladly be acknowledged by the whole nation, and he would be more at peace with himself.

After a two days' excited debate, the motion of Herr Windthorst, the leader of the Ultramontane party, to repeal the law of May 4, 1874, was carried by 233 against 116 votes. This law prohibits clergymen who, for the infringement of state laws, have been removed by the Government, from exercising religious functions, and punishes their disobedience even with banishment. For the last seven years it has been a dead letter, and was thus of no practical value. The present large majority against it is due to its character as an exceptional enactment, and to the wavering attitude which the Government occupies in its conduct of ecclesiastical affairs. Members of all, and even of the most radical, parties voted for Herr Windthorst's motion, and for this reason its passage can, in my opinion, not be considered as a victory of the Centre. Nevertheless, the people at large look at it as a great Catholic triumph. Encouraged by this success, the Ultramontane party in the Prussian Landtag will very soon fall on the Falk laws and try to repeal them all. The moment is very propitious for carrying out their scheme.

The Prussian Landtag was opened to-day, and will sit for about a week simultaneously with the Reichstag. Its present session will be full of general interest, as the Government must develop its policy toward the Church, and especially its negotiations with the Papal See. In his address from the throne the King to-day informed the House that he had succeeded in reëstablishing the ordinary administration of several bishoprics, and that a bill for the reënforcement of the law of July 17, 1880, as far as it had become obsolete by its own limitation, would be submitted to the House. This law conferred discretionary powers on the Government for its negotiations with Rome and the bishops. "The friendly relations with the present chief of the Roman Church," the King concludes this passage, "enable us to satisfy our business wants by re-establishing our diplomatic intercourse with Rome. The means for doing so will be asked from you in the budget."

Besides the Roman question, the Landtag will have to decide upon the purchase of the rest of the private Prussian railroads by the Government. The experiment has thus far proved a very profitable one for the public exchequer, as it has yielded a net revenue of twenty-nine millions of marks. I believe that the measure will be carried through, but that some better guarantees than those given last year will be insisted upon for the legitimate appropriation of the railroad proceeds. †††

THE ANGLO-FRENCH NOTE TO THE KHEDIVE.

ALEXANDRIA, January 17.

THE policy of the English and French in Egypt is gradually discovering itself, or, rather, is gradually being crystallized out of the state of solution in which vague diplomatic utterances have recently contained it. The note presented by the French and English Consuls-General on the 7th to the Khedive lays down certain lines of policy which comprise a distinct augury of future events. The interest attaching to this important document is not so much in the actual words used as in the revelation it includes of much which does not meet the eye. On its first reaching this city by telegram from Cairo it took everybody by surprise, and the immediate question asked was, not what it meant, but what new thing the Khedive and his advisers had been doing to call for such a decisive act of diplomatic intervention from without. The note of the Governments specifically says that the meeting of the Chamber of Notables has afforded a fresh occasion for the English and French Governments to exchange their views once more as to the policy to be pursued. It further says in so many words that the two Governments considered the maintenance of the Khedive on the throne as an indispensable guarantee for order and prosperity, in which France and England are equally interested. Lastly, it is announced in the note that the two Governments are closely united in the determination to use such efforts as may be required to obviate the causes which might menace the existing régime in Egypt either from within or from without. Since the presentation and publication of this note, it is reported that some personal explanations have been offered to the Khedive which might reduce its apparent significance, and the Khedive is also believed, in his reply, to have professed his satisfaction with the prospects of stability for the existing order of the country, especially in view of his constitutional relations with the new rep-

resentative Assembly. Nevertheless, the better opinion here is that there was a real occasion for the note of the two Governments, which has gone so far beyond Lord Granville's celebrated despatch, in which he hardly adverted to the coöperation of France, and contemplated the intervention of either England or France as only a remote possibility in the case of an extreme emergency amounting to anarchy. This occasion is believed, in some well-informed quarters, to have been the disclosure of a long-rooted dissatisfaction on the part of the Khedive with the feeble support he was receiving from the Western powers. The result of this dissatisfaction was leading him to alternate between a reliance on Turkey and coquetting with what is called the National party. The Western Consuls-General here saw, that in the case of any further military pressure, which is every day on the cards, and of which symptoms are almost incessantly coming to the surface, the Khedive would be reduced to a position of formidable weakness. It seems likely enough that a communication to this effect was made simultaneously both to London and Paris, and the result has been that the two Governments have at last made resolute efforts to compose any existing differences, and to agree upon a united and energetic policy. This policy is expressed in the new note.

In some portions of Continental society here the new departure taken by France and England is looked upon with jealousy and suspicion. It is said that while the two Governments may have a claim to exercise control over the finances of Egypt in order to secure payment of their own bondholders, they have no different claim to intervene in the general government of the country from those which other European states have, such as, preëminently, Germany, Austria, and Italy. It is said further that, even though the newly-emphasized alliance should succeed in securing for Egypt all the political advantages which are supposed to be bound up with the continuance of Tewfik's rule, yet this is but a slender support on which to rest such weighty interests. England and France are agreed to-day, but they may differ to-morrow, or, what is still worse, one of them might, for sufficient consideration, surrender all its rights to the other, and Egypt might pass into the hands of some single European power before any coalition of other powers could be formed to vindicate the general interests.

For my own part, after reading carefully all the organs of public opinion which, in the depressed state of the press, afford still any clew to the mind of foreigners resident here, and after conversation with the best-informed persons, I think it probable that the account given above of the origin of the new note and of the altered and more decisive policy of France and England is the true one. On the other hand, I incline to believe that the criticism of this policy on the ground of its exclusiveness is both unreal and unreasonable. The commercial and political interests of England and France in Egypt, both as respects the Suez Canal and the relation of Egypt to other North African provinces, are tenfold those of all the other states of Europe put together. Nor is it fair to say that England and France have hitherto mainly, or even primarily, interfered in the government of Egypt for the sake of their own subjects who happen to be bondholders, and that their present action is of a new and extraordinarily aggressive kind. From the time which just preceded the deposition of Ismaïl, the English and French Governments have throughout acted as the agents and delegates of Europe. It was Germany which, by insisting that the judgments of the International Tribunals should be enforced by Ismaïl, induced France and England to give the needful intimation to Turkey that Ismaïl must be deposed with as much saving of the prestige and prerogatives of the Sublime Porte as might be. The Control established by France and England was not primarily due to the claims of bondholders, but to the necessity of maintaining the stability of the new Khedive's throne. Ismaïl had fallen through his indebtedness and impecuniosity. The only chance of firmly establishing the rule of his successor was to provide for the liberation of the country from its pecuniary obligations, and to prevent all lavish and irresponsible extravagance in the future. Thus, the meaning of the Control is not that the bondholders should be paid, but that Egypt should be free. The object is the establishment of good order, regular and moderate taxation, security to property, and an economic employment of the public revenue in permanent works in this country, and not the satisfaction of exacting money-lenders elsewhere. So far as the debts were concerned, the main machinery introduced was not that of the Control, but of the European Commissioners appointed to manage the public estates mortgaged for the debts. Thus, in intervening in a special manner at the present crisis, England and France would be doing nothing more than what is perfectly consistent with the position they have always occupied, and been encouraged to occupy by other European states, from the beginning of the present Khedive's reign.

The French paper which succeeded to *L'Égypte*, being worked by the same company, and called the *Gazette des Tribunaux*, has just received two warnings, and is in imminent danger of being suppressed like its predecessor. The first sin was that of publishing from a French paper some news about the doings of Arabi Bey, which it is imputed the editor ought to have known was not true. The second sin was that of not printing the warning which rebuked the first sin in the right place in the paper, and for general hostility of tone to the Government. Many, if not all, of the European journals (though not the English journal, the *Egyptian Gazette*) receive large gratuities from Government, and it fares badly with those who are neither in the Government pay nor conform to Government doctrine. Nothing but the weakness of wine-and-water, with the wine chemically extracted, will save them.

The last news is that a whole caravan-full of pilgrims escaped from their quarantine and reached the banks of the Suez Canal. A fight occurred with the Egyptian soldiers, who seem to be serviceable for fighting pilgrims, and they were compelled to retrace their steps. A.

Correspondence.

THE POWERS OF A QUORUM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The question submitted by Mr. W. H. Whitmore in No. 865 of the *Nation* does not admit of the same solution in every State of the Union; for the proper solution thereof, in any particular State, depends upon the requirements of the Constitution of that State in relation to the passage of laws.

It is safe to say that it is settled that the general rule is, that a simple majority, but not a less number, of a quorum of a legislative body can legally pass a law, except where a different rule is prescribed by the Constitution of the State; and that where there is a constitutional requirement of a two-thirds or a three-fourths vote in the affirmative in order to pass a law, said requirement is satisfied when it appears that two-thirds or three-fourths of a quorum have voted in its favor, unless the language of the Constitution plainly shows that such a proportion of all the members elected is intended. (As authorities upon the above, see 2 Mich. Rep., p. 287; 4 Mo. Rep., p. 303; and Cooley's 'Constitutional Limitations,' p. 171.)

Now, when we examine the fundamental laws of the several States, we find that in *most* of them, in order to adopt legally either all laws or all laws upon some specified subjects, it is necessary that said laws shall be affirmatively voted for by a majority or some other prescribed greater proportion of all the members elected or of the entire representation; in which cases all members of the Legislature, whether present or not, must be taken into account in determining whether or not a bill has received a constitutional majority. (See 22 Cal. Rep., p. 314.)

As throwing an additional ray of light upon the subject, I quote one of the provisions of the Constitution of this State in relation to the passage of laws, being section 13 of article 2, and which reads as follows: "*A majority* of all the members *elected* to each house voting in the affirmative, shall be necessary to pass any bill or joint resolution." Again, in this State, under the requirements of three general acts in relation to cities of the three general classes, "No ordinance" of any city "shall be valid unless a majority of all the members elect of the Council vote in favor thereof."

Respectfully, Thos. W. Heatley.
Troy, Kansas, January 30, 1882.

DANIEL DEFOE AND THE "REDEMPTIONERS" IN MARYLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The notice of Johnston's 'History of Cecil County,' in the last issue of the *Nation*, in which it is stated that descendants of Daniel Defoe's niece, who came into Maryland as a "redemptioner," are still living near Nottingham, Md., calls to mind the description of Maryland life contained in 'The Life of Colonel Jack,' one of Defoe's less known works.

'Colonel Jack' was published in 1722. In Johnston's 'History' it is said that Elizabeth, daughter of Defoe's sister, Elizabeth Maxwell, was brought into Maryland in 1718, and married to her owner's son in 1725, and that she did not communicate with her friends in England until after her marriage. The graphic description of Colonel Jack's life as a "redemptioner" in Maryland, however, suggests the idea that Defoe's niece may have been in correspondence with her uncle before the date of her marriage, and that he may have derived from her the information which he uses in his story. Be that as it may, Defoe seems to have been well informed in regard to "redemptioners" and their treatment in Maryland, and his account of their position and prospects may be accepted as largely founded upon fact.

Colonel Jack, with several companions, having deserted from a Scottish regiment, seeks passage from Newcastle to London on a collier. They get drunk on liquor supplied them by a kidnapper, whom they suppose to be the captain of the vessel which is to take them to London, and on becoming sober find themselves at sea, bound for America, whither they are carried notwithstanding their remonstrances, and delivered to planters in Maryland to serve a term of years. Jack's faithfulness causes him, after a time, to be made overseer on one of his master's farms. He so pleases his master, who is represented as a very humane man, by his success in managing the negro slaves without the constant use of the lash, that he obtains his liberty and "the coun-

try bounty—that is to say, a quantity of land to begin and plant for himself." He ultimately becomes a rich planter, owning several plantations and many slaves of his own.

This fiction is made the vehicle for very minute descriptions of the "redemptioners" and slaves in Maryland and their condition, which are no doubt in many respects true to nature. Defoe's conclusions are especially interesting when we learn that his own niece's experience was an example of their truth:

"The meanest and most despicable creature, after his time of servitude is expired, if he will but apply himself with diligence and industry to the business of the country, is sure (life and health supposed) both of living well and growing rich. As this is a foundation which the most unfortunate wretch alive is entitled to, a transported felon is, in my opinion, a much happier man than the most prosperous untaken thief in the nation. Nor are those poor young people so much in the wrong as some imagine them to be, that go voluntarily over to those countries, and, in order to get themselves carried over and placed there, freely bind themselves there, especially if the persons into whose hands they fall do anything honestly by them."

B. Sollers.

Baltimore, Md.

Notes.

The 'Q. P. Index Annual for 1881,' just issued at Bangor, Maine, is a guide to the contents of the *Living Age, Eclectic, International Review, Popular Science Monthly, Century, Harper's, Lippincott's, Atlantic,* and *Nation.* The simple device by which all these periodicals are distinguished from each other is prefixing the volume to the page referred to, since, as it happens, the volume numbers in no case coincide. The key to them is repeated at the foot of each page, but why was not the more intricate symbolism of * † ‡, etc., likewise explained continuously, in the blank space between the columns? It is needless to point out what a boon this work is to the frequenter of any library, as well as to the possessors of the above magazines and journal. ——The Messrs. Harper, by the way, announce that after July next they mean to destroy the plates of their *Magazine, Weekly,* and *Bazar,* prior to 1878, so that orders for back numbers and volumes must be sent in before June 30. Among new works in press they enumerate the 'Law of Stock Brokers and Stock Exchanges,' by John R. Dos Passos; 'Old Greek Education,' by J. P. Mahaffy; and 'Atlantis, the Antediluvian World,' by Ignatius Donnelly.——The 'Life of James Mill' and the 'Life of John Stuart Mill,' both by Professor Alexander Bain, are to be published in this country by Henry Holt & Co., under an arrangement with the author.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. have become the sole publishers of Bouvier's 'Law Dictionary' and 'Institutes.'—— The MS. of 'A Tour in Ireland in 1849,' by Thomas Carlyle, has just turned up and will be issued serially in the *Century Magazine.* —— Fords, Howard & Hulbert have in press 'John Eax,' by Judge Tourgee. —— 'Dorothy,' an English story in elegiac verse; and 'School Sermons,' by Dr. William Everett, of the Adams Academy, at Quincy, Mass., will be published immediately by Roberts Bros.——Lee & Shepard have brought out in good style an English version of Alphonse Daudet's 'Numa Roumestan,' with the original illustrations. The translator is Miss Virginia Champlin, whose success is noticeable in spite of a few inaccuracies, attributable either to haste or to the freedom which great familiarity with the French—not to say a proper theory of translation—has made warrantable. ——'Ecclesia Anglicana, a History of the Church of Christ in England from the Earliest to the Present Times,' by Arthur Charles Jennings, M. A.; 'Modern Heroes of the Mission Field'; and 'Questions that Trouble Beginners,' by the Rev. George W. Shinn, are to be shortly issued by T. Whittaker.——In the *American Architect* for January 21 will be found Mr. John H. B. Latrobe's interesting address on the building of the Capitol at Washington (in which the writer's father played so important a part), delivered last November before the American Institute of Architects. This journal, by the way, shows marks of permanent prosperity by the great increase in its minor illustrations, particularly initial letters embodying architectural motives.——Bulletin No. 2 for 1881 of the American Geographical Society contains Commander Gorringe's unpretentious account of his suggestive cruise in the *Gettysburg* while sounding the northern coast of Africa, and a paper, which Mr. Blaine might read with profit, on "Chili—its Geography, People, and Institutions," by James Douglass, jr.——In the *Publishers' Weekly* a review of the books of 1881 states that the number composed by American writers is greatly in excess of all previous years.——We learn from the London *Bookseller* that Mr. D. C. Thompson, of the staff of the London *Art Journal,* will issue by subscription a quarto illustrated volume on 'The Life and Works of Thomas Bewick, Wood Engraver,' of which the edition will be limited to 250 small-paper and seventy-five large-paper copies, at one and two guineas respectively. It will contain "a complete critical estimate of his engravings, both on copper and on wood."——"The *Library Journal* is at last self-supporting," is the publisher's pleasing announcement in the December number. He does not deny, however, that it is not yet highly profitable.——*Monthly Notes* (Trübner) for January 16 has an important paper by Mr. John Ballinger, of the Borough Free Library, Doncaster, who tells how, by means of a circular, he greatly enlarged the patronage of the institution, which had been working far below its capacity.——Strong petitions for the erection by the State of a special building for the Historical Society are now before the Legislature of Wisconsin.——The literary activity which characterizes the officers of some of the Government observatories of Europe is worthy of note. The recent report of Director Struve, of the Russian observatory at Pulkova (*Jahresbericht am 20 May,* 1881, *dem Comité der Nicolai-Hauptsternwarte*), gives by title fourteen papers published during the year by eight of the attachés of the observatory. These papers, only two of which are written in the Russian language, are published partly through the Kaiserliche Akademie der Wissenschaften, the observatory itself, the Russian Geographical Society, and the Astronomische Gesellschaft, of Leipzig. ——In *Polybiblion* for January, M. Henri Cordier announces that he has in press a bibliography of Beaumarchais.——One of the latest issues of the excellent *Universal-Bibliothek* of Philip Reclam, Leipzig, is Kant's little esssay 'Zum ewigen Frieden.' The editor is Karl Kehrbach, who some time ago carefully edited for the same cheap series the three *Kritiks* of Kant. The price is 30 pfennigs.

—By an unlucky and regrettable error, in our recent review of Ropes's 'Army under Pope' (page 84, column 3), the statement occurred that "The campaign was lost because *Porter* withdrew McDowell and Sigel from the vicinity of Thoroughfare Gap." Of course *Pope* should have been read.

—Peter Cunningham's octavo edition of Goldsmith (4 vols., 1854), recently reprinted in attractive form by the Harpers, will have especial value for some of its readers in the textual corrections which have accrued from the collation of earlier editions. Not the least of the pleasure to be had from a good writer is the study of the sources, whether in his temperament or in his art, from which he derives his effects. The temperament, of course, appears in any text, but the literary art is best shown by *variorum* readings such as those given in the present edition. As in the case of other classic authors whose *labor limæ* is recorded, it clearly appears that laborious writing must go to make good reading. Even in musical composition, which one might suppose to be the most spontaneous form of art-expression, the same law holds good. The score of a Beethoven symphony preserved in the Berlin Museum (the Seventh, if we remember correctly) is a mass of the most intricate and painstaking corrections. Byron corrected laboriously, and ought to have corrected more than he did. But aside from any question of form, it would not perhaps be easy to name an English author of the eighteenth century whose writings retain a more certain charm than Goldsmith's. They will long attract us by their urbanity and intellectual hospitality —traits that were none too frequent among the contemporaries of Goldsmith, nor, for that matter, even among the contemporaries of Carlyle, Freeman, and Ruskin; and the present reprint is the most accessible as well as the best edition.

—Food and clothing can be supplied without difficulty to a city of a million inhabitants. How to remove the refuse of a village of a thousand is not so well understood. Each successive publication on sanitary matters shows that there is little uniformity in practice, even in the different towns of the same country, upon the question of the scavenger's duties. Mr. Percy Boulnois, the city surveyor of Exeter, finds that in ninety English towns from which he received information the average annual cost of removing house refuse and of street cleaning is about tenpence per head; but the figure varies with different places from one halfpenny to three shillings and sixpence. A shilling per head per annum is sufficient, according to Mr. Boulnois's estimates, to pay for the proper cleansing of cities and towns. How this should be done he points out in his little book on the subject ('Dirty Dustbins,' etc. London and New York: Spon. 1881). The collection and disposal of house refuse form his chief subject, the methods practised in the city of Manchester being especially effective. The Health Committee of that city deals weekly with about 3,000 tons of refuse material, of which something over nine-tenths are ashes and cinders. The rest is classified as follows: Paper, 1 ton; dead animals, 2 tons; rags, 3 tons; stable-manure, 17 tons; tin cans, old tin, and iron, 33 tons; refuse from slaughter-houses and fish-shops, 60 tons; broken pots, bottles, and glasses, 80 tons; vegetable refuse, door-mats, floor-cloths, and old straw mattresses, 100 tons. The rubbish is sifted by steam-power; the dry, combustible refuse is burned, and the mineral refuse is fused, and its residue converted into good mortar. A third process utilizes a considerable portion of the offal as a fertilizer. In our climate the treatment of the snowfall is one of the most serious questions of town-cleansing. Mr. Boulnois finds the most perfect organization for the removal of snow not in the north, nor even in Paris, but in the city of Milan. For this purpose the city is divided into 112 districts, each one let out by annual contract; but the same contractors generally apply year after year. They belong to trades that are interrupted by the winter, as masons and quarrymen. Four engineers supervise the work, each in his appointed quarter of the city. The amount of each snowfall is

promptly ascertained, and is made the basis of the pay. It is measured by means of stone posts, capped with level slabs of stone, and placed in suitable open spaces. "As soon as it stops snowing, or two or three times during a storm of several hours, the depth of snow caught on the slabs is measured by the engineer, in the presence of two of the contractors in his section." The city finds the implements used; they are worth about $8,000. The number of men engaged after a snowfall is from 2,000 to 3,000. The expense varies with the severity of the season. During the winter of 1874-75 the snowfall was 40¾ inches, cleared away at a cost of $42,000; in 1877-78 it was only 5¼ inches, cleared for $5,200. In 1879-80 the cost averaged $1,000 per inch of snowfall within the walls, and $310 per inch without, equivalent to only about two cents per cubic yard. "Payment," adds Mr. Boulnois, "is made only for work effectually done" —a feature of city government which is, we dare say, more distinctively Italian than American.

—The fire in Park Row suggests anew the standing danger of an extended conflagration in the business portion of the city. Our easy system of fire insurance encourages fires by taking away the motive to build solidly. Why should the proprietor go to the expense of iron floor-beams and rafters when a company stands ready to pay his losses in case of a conflagration—when, as in the case of the old *World* building, even if the insurance falls short, the destruction is a pecuniary gain to an owner anxious to enlarge or rebuild? As a matter of fact the greater part of our fine buildings are full of wooden floor-beams and rafters which prove to be mere kindling-wood, as in Chicago and Boston, under the heat of an intense conflagration. They are fire-proof only until the breaking out of the fire. It may be pointed out that in our highly inflammable cities the construction of a really fire-proof building is quite another and a considerably more difficult thing than it is in cities in which wood scarcely enters into the structure of the house. In the Chicago and Boston fires even marble and granite walls crumbled under the fierce heat; brick was the only material that withstood it. In what city of southern Europe could a fire have raged so fiercely as to destroy marble and granite walls? It is only in cities where wood enters largely into the construction that non-inflammable materials are melted or crumbled by the heat. A building law that should forbid the use of wood for floor-beams and rafters would render lower rates of fire insurance possible by greatly reducing the number of fires, and it would also make the construction of a really fire-proof building easier and cheaper than it now is in inflammable cities. Even a poor building-stone does not crumble except under excessive heat; and the iron work which gives way in a great fire even more rapidly than a wooden beam is consumed would thus be rehabilitated as a fire-proof material. French fire-insurance companies, or some of them, provide that, while they make good other losses by fire, they shall pay no insurance upon the houses in which the fire originates. It will be seen that this provision gives the proprietor the liveliest interest in the care of his own building. Were a similar contract possible here, it would materially reduce the great destruction of property by conflagrations—a loss which is computed at about $800,000 per day for the United States, exclusive of the great cost of fire insurance and of fire companies. It would seem as if "practical reform" in the directions we have just indicated was quite as desirable as in many others about which more talk is made.

—Census Bulletin No. 273, by Prof. R. Pumpelly, gives a summary of the production of bituminous coal in the United States during the census year. Bituminous coal, in which term is included all the softer varieties, such as cannel coal, lignite, etc., is produced in twenty-four of the States and Territories. Out of a possible output of 76,155,970 tons, the mines produced during the year 42,417,764 tons. That is, the production was about fifty-six per cent. of what could have been taken out, with the same degree of development, if the state of the market had warranted it. The value of the product of the year at the mines was $53,006,073, or $1 25 per ton. The total capital invested is reported at $101,996,937, and the number of employees at 99,916. The area of coal land attached or belonging to the collieries is given as 443,643 acres, besides 56,101 acres, which are reported as "worked out." It should be observed that the latter item does not include the lands partially worked, or even those from which the seams of workable thickness have been taken, in case there are other seams which it is not at present profitable to work. Of the States producing bituminous coal, Pennsylvania of course takes the lead, its yield being more than forty-two per cent. of the whole product. The next are Illinois and Ohio, with fourteen and four-tenths and fourteen per cent. respectively. Following these, in the order named, are Maryland, West Virginia, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, and so forth, the States above named producing nearly nine-tenths of the entire product of the country.

—It is several years since we had the pleasure of praising M. Ernest Legouvé's admirable little essay on the art of reading. In this time 'L'Art de la Lecture' has reached its twenty-ninth edition in France, and it has been twice translated into English in America. Now M. Legouvé has written a sort of sequel to it, 'La Lecture en Action,' which is inferior in interest and instructiveness only to its predecessor. It appears from the first chapter that M. Hetzel, his publisher and the publisher also of the excellent *Magasin d'Éducation et de Récréation*, of which —under the assumed name of P. J. Stahl—he is one of the editors, asked M. Legouvé if he could not supplement and support the theory of his 'Art de la Lecture' by a series of practical examples, showing just how a good selection of pieces ought to be read, and also why they ought to be read in that way. This is exactly what M. Legouvé has done. He begins by showing that the style of reading should differ with the style of the writing read, and should be appropriate to it. Taking the fable of the Cat and the Rats, as told by Æsop, Phædrus, and Lafontaine, he explains that the first is to be read clearly, correctly, and with precision; the second with *finesse* and relief; and the third with color and sentiment. Thus we have a literary criticism preceding a lesson in reading and serving as its basis. This, of course, is the only proper plan; and we wish there were in English a Reader in which it was as skilfully carried out as here, and with as much variety. In the course of his 362 pages M. Legouvé brings forward the rules of reading, one by one, and illustrates their application by choice selections from the chief poets and prose-writers of France—Molière, Racine, Béranger, Théophile Gautier, Victor Hugo, in verse; and Fénelon, Voltaire, La Bruyère, Pascal, and Bossuet in prose. He gives us not only a course of reading, but, in miniature, a course of French literature, which has much of the lightness and ease of a comedy. Moreover, from his experience as a writer for the stage and from his association with actors, M. Legouvé has gained a store of anecdote, from which he draws freely to point a moral. His work is, indeed, what an American book once declared itself to be: "Reading without Tears." It can be recommended most cordially.

—In the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for January 15th, M. Maxime du Camp prints a chapter of literary reminiscences dating more than thirty years back, and containing interesting notices of Théophile Gautier and Gustave Flaubert. In conjunction with the former and with Arsène Houssaye, M. du Camp revived in October, 1851, the defunct monthly *Revue de Paris*, and continued its publication till January, 1858. He sums up its career by saying that financially it was something of a load; as literature, if not of great importance, it had some utility; and if it had served no other purpose than to introduce Baudelaire, Flaubert, and Eugène Fromentin to the public it was worthy of the sacrifices which it demanded. Flaubert was very undecided about publishing anything, and after much urging on the part of his friends, concluded to take the advice of Théophile Gautier, who was thirteen or fourteen years the senior of the others. Gautier listened with a smile while Flaubert developed his theories of art and the duty of the artist, and replied:

"I know all about that. Everybody goes through that phase, just as children have the measles. When I used to live with Arsène Houssaye, Camille Rogier, and Gérard de Nerval we had just such ideas. I know what it is to write *chefs d'œuvre;* I wrote 'La Comédie de la Mort'; I gave away two volumes of prose in order to have my verses published, of which seventy-five copies were sold. Everybody can write *chefs d'œuvre* if he will only believe in them. In this matter, as in everything else, it is only by faith that one is saved. You believe in the mission of the writer, in the priesthood of the poet, in the divinity of art. Oh! Flaubert, you are an innocent. The writer sells copy just as the draper sells kerchiefs; the only trouble is that calico brings more than manuscript. All the sculpture of Greece is contained in the Venus of Milo; just so all French prose and poetry can be reduced to a single volume; if that volume is saved, the literary art of France is saved. Can you add a line to that volume? I don't know, you don't know, nobody knows; perhaps in two hundred years somebody will know. To keep back manuscripts is folly; after finishing a book the next thing is to sell it as well as you can and publish it. That's all."

Flaubert disregarded this advice. He locked up his 'Temptation of St. Anthony,' which he had just written, and began 'Madame Bovary,' which was published in the *Revue de Paris* in 1857, and was prosecuted as an offence against the public morals.

—M. du Camp warns his readers not to take Gautier more seriously than Flaubert took him. Gautier had as elevated views of art as any one could, and if at times he indulged in cynical utterances, it was when he had one of his periods of discouragement. Harassed by creditors, and persecuted by his family, he led the traditional Grub Street existence. The task of furnishing the weekly dramatic review of the *Presse* became unbearably irksome to him, but as he derived his chief revenue from it he could not afford to get rid of it. He found a substitute, however, in Louis de Cormenin, who for three years wrote Gautier's *feuilletons* without anybody's suspecting it. The respite which he gained by this arrangement enabled Gautier to write his 'Italia,' which was composed in the printing-office without a single book of reference or document of any kind. His memory was wonderful; he could rely on it with a confidence which was never betrayed. He never corrected or revised a phrase; as soon as he had written ten lines they were set up in type, and so on to the end of the chapter or article. When the proofs were brought to Gautier he marked the errors by a scratch of his nail. He once said: "Schiller, in order to set his fancy working, inhaled the odor of rotten apples; I believe I could not write without smelling the stench of printers' ink."

One morning Gautier came rushing into the apartments of Du Camp, and informed him that he had narrowly escaped arrest for refusing to perform his duties as a member of the National Guard. His reason for refusing would find a ready echo in the bosom of Oscar Wilde. "I have no right," he said, "to disguise the beauty of my figure by clothing it in a ridiculous uniform. In 1832 I was about to become a St. Simonian, but when I learned that I should have to wear white trousers, a red waistcoat, and a blue coat, I recoiled with horror, and spontaneously renounced the new worship. I would rather perish in a dungeon than prove recreant to my principles." Having had a first taste of the "dungeon," however, he was tempted to yield to necessity, and repaired to the meeting of his company in the following costume of his own devising: Gray trousers, a yellow vest adorned with blue flowers, and a green swallow-tailed coat with gilt buttons. It is easy to imagine the indignation of the captain and the amusement of the company.

—In speaking of the days immediately preceding the *Coup d'État* of December 2, M. du Camp says that it was a sort of steeple-chase between the President and the Assembly which of the two rival powers should get ahead and rid itself of the other by committing some illegal and violent act. Nobody knew when the blow would fall, or by which side it would be dealt, but everybody confidently expected it. In one and the same day M. du Camp was accosted by one person, who said: "Have you heard? Tomorrow is the day; the President is going to sleep at Vincennes; everything is in readiness; the army is with the representatives; it is time to finish the traitor"; and an hour later by another, who said: "Have you heard? Tomorrow is the day; the Assembly will be dispersed by force; everything is in readiness; the army is with the Prince; it is time to finish the babblers."

—J. Mayer & Co., of Munich, have secured a royal patent on an invention which promises greatly to improve our pianofortes. A series of tuning forks are freely suspended over the three highest octaves of the piano, each fork having the exact pitch of the string over which it is suspended. The vibrations of the string are communicated to the fork, which in turn reacts on the string, whereby a full and sustained tone is secured, in strong contrast to the short and dry tones of the present pianos. The improved quality of the higher notes also improves the volume of the lower ones, since several of these high notes are always heard as overtones whenever one of the lower notes is struck. In this manner the difficult problem of equalizing the strength and fulness of the different octaves will probably be solved at last.

—At the fourth concert of the New York Symphony Society on Saturday evening three compositions only were played, each of which is eminently characteristic of its author—Mozart's G minor Symphony, Spohr's Concerto in A for violin and orchestra (*in Form einer Gesangsscene*), and Rubinstein's popular "Ocean" Symphony. The G minor Symphony is one of the three or four of Mozart's forty-one works of that class which still boast of a large number of admirers; but it cannot be denied that its colors, too, are rapidly fading away. To realize what immense progress music has made since the day when it was written, one need but compare it with the "Ocean" Symphony. In the older work the ideas are few and superficial, the forms narrow and artificial, and the spirit too naïvely happy to suit this pessimistic age. In the "Ocean" Symphony the themes and harmonies are of stirring originality and depth, the form broad and unconstrained, and the development of the musical plot, so to say, not so transparent and self-evident as to neutralize all emotion in the listener's breast. From a relative point of view it would be rash to claim such a complete superiority of Rubinstein's over Mozart's symphony. To the generation for which the latter was written its form and contents may have seemed as novel and interesting as the form and contents of Rubinstein's work seem to us; but music as a mode of amusement must not be judged from a relative, but from an absolute point of view. For many of the features which make Rubinstein's symphony the greater work its author is not personally responsible. They are the product and invention of many minds and only assimilated by him. But the features are there, nevertheless, and that is the point to be considered. Mr. Damrosch's orchestra played both these compositions equally well. The free and spontaneous performance of the "Ocean" Symphony—or the five movements of it which were played—clearly revealed the fact that the majority of the musicians have played it under Rubinstein's own inspiring direction. In the Spohr concerto the violin part was played by Master Michael Banner, a pupil of the Cincinnati College of Music, only thirteen years of age. For various reasons we are opposed to the parading in the concert hall of the powers of such youthful prodigies. Appeal is thereby made to emotions and interests not purely musical on the part of the audience, and the boy himself suffers almost invariably from this hothouse method of forcing his talents. The pleasure given by Mr. Banner's playing, however, was so genuine that these objections, for once, were quite driven to the background. His full tone and skilful bowing reflect as much credit on his teachers as the purity of his intonation and intelligence of conception do on his inborn talent. While the manly force and breadth of execution which can only come with age were of course absent in the concerto, there was evident everywhere a maturity of feeling which fully justified the applause bestowed on him. The manner, however, in which this applause was bestowed showed a strange want of intelligence on the part of a certain proportion of the audience. Surely it ought not to be necessary to remind a Steinway Hall audience that a concerto is not an Italian opera, or, in other words, that the orchestral part in a concerto is just as important as the solo part, and should not be spoiled by applause. An English critic congratulated London musicians the other day on the fact that an end was put some time ago to the bad habit of applauding every solo in a concerto and drowning the *tutti* in noise. New York should not be behind London in matters musical.

COBDEN.—II.

The Life of Richard Cobden. By John Morley. London: Chapman & Hall; Boston: Roberts Bros.

COBDEN possessed the rare virtues and shared the special defects which have at all times been found in religious reformers. Of his single-minded zeal for his cause it is hardly necessary to say much, for it is apparent in every word that he spoke and in every act which he did. He was a man of loving and lovable nature; he was tenderly attached to friends and family. But from the moment that he engaged in public affairs, his whole soul was given up to the service of the nation. He pushed aside the claims of business; he neglected (perhaps unduly neglected) his private interests for the public concern. When distracted with the fear of ruin, he bore up with a brave heart for the sake of "the cause." There are few things more touching in biography than the account given, with admirable tact and all due reticence, by Mr. Morley of Cobden's mercantile distress at the very crisis of his political triumph. One thing, and one thing only, in the free-trader's life touches even a deeper chord of human sympathy. Of the death of his son, and all that it meant and involved, one hardly likes even now to speak in what must necessarily be the cold language of writings intended for the public eye. Poignant sorrows, even when necessarily disclosed to the world, have still a character of privacy. Those who wish to understand a side of Cobden's character without which our idea would be most incomplete, should turn to the chapter on the "Death of his Son," in which Mr. Morley displays all the best talents of a biographer in revealing, and still more in not revealing, the tragic aspect of his hero's life; for a career crowned with ample success was, like other lives dedicated to public service, not a career of anything like unalloyed happiness.

"In the last year of Cobden's life, as he and Mrs. Cobden were coming up to London from their home in the country, Mrs. Cobden said to him: 'I sometimes think that, after all the good work that you have done, and in spite of fame and great position, it would have been better for us both if, after you and I married, we had gone to settle in the backwoods of Canada.' And Cobden could only say, after looking for a moment or two with a gaze of mournful preoccupation through the window of the carriage, that he was not sure that what she said was not too true."

Just after the repeal of the corn-laws, Cobden thus writes to a friend:

"I am going into the wilderness to pray for a return of the taste I once possessed for nature and simple, quiet life. Here I am, in one day from Manchester, to the loveliest valley out of paradise. Ten years ago, before I was an agitator, I spent a day or two in this house. Comparing my sensations now with those I then experienced, I feel how much I have lost in winning public fame. The rough tempest has spoilt me for the quiet haven; I fear I shall never be able to cast anchor again. It seems as if some mesmeric hand were on my brain, or I was possessed by an unquiet fiend urging me forward in spite of myself."

These passages tell their own tale. Cobden was assuredly not that "happy man" for whom sages have been searching in vain since the days of Solon and Crœsus. But it were a mistake to fancy that he was a person whom any one could call unhappy. He enjoyed in the fullest measure that buoyancy of spirit, that determined and excessive hopefulness, which was never wanting in any successful reformer. Both from theory and from disposition he was an optimist. The doctrines of free trade rest on the assumption that when men are left free to act in accordance with their obvious interests and their natural dispositions, their conduct will tend to the benefit of the whole of mankind; and Cobden adopted this axiom of his school as the guide not only of his public life but of his private feelings. His creed was himself. It is hardly possible to say whether he adopted his social and economical views because he was by nature an optimist, or whether his optimism, manifest no less in his absurd over-estimate of so-called "moral force" than in his unsatisfactory pecuniary investments, was the result of a philosophy of life based on the teaching of George Combe and confirmed by acquaintance with the phenomena of trade. Temperament was the source of opinion, and the acquired set of opinion confirmed the bias of temperament. In any case, sanguine buoyancy of nature was one of Cobden's special endowments. To hope all things goes a great way toward obtaining all things.

In addition to singleness of purpose and hopefulness of purpose, the preacher of free trade

displayed in all his public action singular capacity for the management of business. This, it will be thought, is a secular virtue, foreign altogether to the qualities to be found among successful religious teachers. But those who think thus take a mistaken view of the qualities generally to be found in men who have organized moral movements. Reformers such as Luther, Calvin, Knox, Wesley, and a score more whose names would occur to any one well versed in ecclesiastical history, were assuredly enthusiasts; but any one who studies their lives will soon perceive that they were persons of great capacity in the management of affairs. Nor is there anything in this to excite surprise. Genius is not a special talent. It is a power which may be turned in any direction. The innovator of genius can bring the force of his nature to bear on all which interests him. He may not feel much interest in the matters which occupy the attention of common men, but in so far as these matters affect his cause they have for him an intense interest. It is little likely that a reformer will make his own fortune, but it is likely that he will bring to the promotion of his reforms the powers and even the talents by which he might have made himself the richest of the servants of Mammon. That Cobden enriched the country by millions at the moment when he was likely to become bankrupt for want of thousands, is one of those idle paradoxes which attract popular imagination and mislead popular judgment. The paradox, such as it is, scarcely deserves the explanation, ingenious and true though it be, provided by Mr. Morley. Cobden gave the keenest attention to the conduct of the Anti-Corn-Law League. He could not at the same time pay any careful attention to the business of his own firm. The League grew and prospered; the firm became all but insolvent. The only point which concerns critics is to avoid the mistake of fancying that the man who managed with success the complicated affairs of the League had not the gifts of a first-rate man of business.

Another quality which in the case of Cobden, as of many other reformers, specially fitted the man for his work was the audacity of ignorance. Nature had given Cobden an active and inquiring intellect. His own energy had procured for him an education which was, like most things that a person procures for himself, of far more value than the training to be purchased at schools and universities. But it is no discredit to Cobden to say plainly that, if he knew many things of practical importance which were not understood by Palmerston or Russell, he lacked the width of knowledge which can only be acquired by complete training. Nor is there any absurdity in maintaining that the defects of Cobden's education contributed greatly to the success of Cobden's political career. He never tasted the most dangerous knowledge of all kinds of knowledge—the knowledge of his own ignorance. On the other hand, the truths which he did know, being acquired by his own efforts, had a force, a reality, a vividness, a meaning to him which no facts ever have to a student who has learned them at second hand from the mouth of others. Of the absolute truth of the principles which he had worked out more or less for himself, Cobden never doubted. Every additional fact which told in their favor was, as the saying goes, "grist to his mill"; and every fact or supposed fact which he picked up he at once adduced in support of foregone conclusions. Cobden, said a friend, always spoke "at the top of his knowledge." The expression which Mr. Morley interprets as the language of simple eulogy may strike others as a happy specimen of the sarcasms proper to candid friendship. If Cobden had not spoken "at the top of his knowledge"—or, in other words, talked with authority of matters which he did not understand—he would never have afforded sport to the Philistines by his reference to the "historical books of Thucydides." But had elaborate intellectual cultivation made it impossible for a man so honest to speak with assurance on the basis of inadequate knowledge, he might, it is likely enough, have never spoken at all truths which required to be driven home to the understandings of the English people. Honest audacity, even if aided by ignorance, is audacity still, and has all the influence which rightly falls to every kind of bravery. It were pedantry to regret that Cobden spoke "at the top of his knowledge" and sometimes a little beyond it. One may easily pardon defects in a sermon if the preacher vividly enforces the neglected truths of a good text.

No reformer can, from the nature of things, be a fair critic of the "world" which it is his mission to convert, and Cobden suffered from the moral disabilities inherent in his position. He was by nature fair and candid. When brought face to face, for example, with education at Oxford, he could recognize the fact that to do well in the University examinations required a greater effort than he and his friends (who no doubt conceived all the inhabitants of the colleges to be soaked in "port wine and prejudice") had believed. He was one also who, on grounds both of principle and of expediency, tried to use moderate language. But, for all this, he was in his whole attitude toward such a man as Palmerston constantly unjust. Palmerston was, both in his vices and in his virtues, the very incarnation of the man of the world; and Cobden, if he did not hate Palmerston himself, assuredly did detest the whole spirit of which Palmerston was the embodiment. For Lord Russell he could feel a cold respect. For Peel he entertained, even in the midst of conflict, that kind of antipathy which may very easily be turned to admiration. With Gladstone he probably felt a good deal of sympathy. For Palmerston, and all that pertained to Palmerston, he never had a good word, and, with creditable sagacity and firmness, declined to make part, under any circumstances whatever, of a Palmerstonian Cabinet. To settle the rights of the long controversy between him and the representative of a spirited foreign policy is not the purpose of this article. Mr. Morley is, unconsciously no doubt, unfair in his strictures on Palmerston. Even were every censure which he passes on a very remarkable and patriotic statesman sound, we should still complain that Mr. Morley omits to lay any emphasis whatever on the points of Palmerston's policy in which he was as much in the right as the Manchester school were in the wrong. All that need here be noted is, that Cobden's quarrel with Palmerston was in its essentials the old and never-ending feud between the reformer and the man of the world, between the innovator who tries to change the principles of society, and the man who takes life as it is. The controversy is one which, in one form or another, will endure for ever. Each party seems to himself and his followers to be exclusively in the right. A final judgment on the real issues between them can be pronounced by history alone; and even this judgment will not be really conclusive, since the point in dispute is the worth of different views of life—one might almost say of different virtues—and on this matter the verdict of one individual and of one generation will differ from that of another as long as the world endures.

"A character like that of Cobden," writes Mr. Morley, "calls for no elaborate attempt at analysis. In motive and purpose he was the most candid and direct of mankind." This statement, if properly understood, is strictly true. It is further as clear as day that when Cobden chose to speak out he did not fear the face of man. But we find it impossible to study the facts put before the world by Mr. Morley without seeing that Cobden, like other innovators, was endowed with a kind of practical wisdom which was hardly akin to directness and simplicity of action. Like all propagators of a faith, he was eager to gain disciples and to spread his creed. He practised occasionally the possibly legitimate arts by which preachers have in all ages tried to aid the cause of truth. Can any one, for example, think that Cobden's position in relation to Kossuth was a perfectly natural or clear position? The Hungarian came to England filled with indignation at the wrong done to his country, and burning with hatred of Russia. It cannot at this time of day be doubted that Kossuth would, if he had been able, have induced England and other free countries to intervene on behalf of Hungary. There are those who still believe (we incline to think mistakenly) that English opinion would have supported armed intervention on behalf of the Hungarians. However this may have been, one of the inherent difficulties in the way of any such policy was the fanatical adherence of the Manchester school to the principle of non-intervention. We find it a little difficult to see how Cobden could, under these circumstances, take Kossuth in any sense by the hand. Yet somehow or other he did to a certain extent keep up a friendly relation with the Hungarian patriot. They both were, it is true, displeased with the conduct of Palmerston; but the man who detested the English Foreign Secretary because he occasionally and fitfully intervened in the affairs of the Continent, was hardly the natural ally of the exile whose essential quarrel with Palmerston was that he did not at once use the sword of England on behalf of Hungarian freedom. Cobden's attitude is partly explained by the extraordinary delusion—it can be called by no other name—that if England acted on the principle of non-intervention, and got America to adopt the same course, "the word 'stop' addressed to Russia would have the force of a thousand cannons." Still, we confess to wishing that the apostle of free trade had left Kossuth and the question of Hungary entirely alone.

Cobden was probably at this, as certainly as other crises of his career, hampered by the falseness of his own position. He was the recognized head of the English democracy. He was termed by opponents a democrat, a leveller, a communist; the *Times* accused him of advocating an agrarian law. In matter of fact he was not a democrat, for he attached very little importance to popular government except as a means of checking the errors of an aristocracy; he was not even a Liberal, if by that name be meant a man to whom the maintenance of liberty was of itself, as to Mill, the main end of government. He might, indeed, be called a Radical, as from one point of view his economical reforms went to the root, in his opinion at any rate, of the evils with which English society was cursed. But he was, before everything else, an economist. Forms of government, national independence, political liberty, were in his view important mainly because of the security which they provided, or might provide, for good government—that is, government in conformity with the laws of political economy. "I very much suspect," he writes, "that at present for the great mass of the people Prussia possesses the best government in Europe. I would gladly give up my taste for talking politics to secure such a state of things in England." He is convinced that the English constitution is a "great juggle." It is "a thing of monopolies and churchcraft and sinecures,

armorial hocus-pocus, primogeniture and pageantry. The government of Prussia is the mildest phase in which absolutism ever presented itself." This was written in 1838. There is no reason to think that Cobden's opinion ever substantially changed. With perfect consistency he showed little enthusiasm for the plans of political reform which occupied the mind of John Bright. He distrusted rightly enough the bad political economy of the workingman. He does not show any sign of sympathizing with movements in favor of national independence. In all this there is, we frankly admit, something to admire even by those who do not agree with the dogmas of the peace party. It is impossible not to acknowledge that Cobden had intellectually a firmer grasp of the doctrines in which he believed than have most men whose life is spent in political agitation. But it is also impossible not to perceive that his position was to a certain extent false. He did not share the principles or the prejudices of ordinary democrats. At the time of the Crimean War the fact became apparent that Palmerston, aristocrat as he was, more nearly represented the English democracy than did the champion of free trade. A false position may lead even the most candid of men, not into dishonesty, of which Cobden was utterly incapable, but into calculated reticence, or at least into the awkward keeping back of points which might excite division between himself and his followers.

Cobden's enthusiasm for his cause, and his leniency toward the faults of beneficent absolutism, are closely connected with the most dubious moral feature of his policy. He exhibits a certain moral indifference in the choice of means for promoting economic reforms. His negotiations with Louis Napoleon were in themselves inconsistent with zeal for liberty. But it is difficult to believe that any man who had shared the burning indignation of Liberals in every country at the *Coup d'état*, and the despotism which it founded, could have voluntarily undertaken the task of opening the eyes of Louis Napoleon to economic truth. To Cobden the French Emperor was an interesting convert, who was able beyond any man living to promote the progress of the good cause. Cobden may have been right in holding that the service to mankind of promoting free trade and good will between France and England was sufficient to justify his friendly relations with the French despot. Still, there will always be found persons to regret that the high principle of Mr. Cobden and the worldly sagacity of Lord Palmerston should, curiously enough, have led two statesmen who agreed in nothing else, to agree in looking with toleration on the blood-stained author of the crime of the 2d of December.

HOWORTH'S HISTORY OF THE MONGOLS.

History of the Mongols, from the Ninth to the Nineteenth Century. By Henry H. Howorth, F.S.A. London: Longmans, Green & Co. 3 vols. 8vo.

It has often been remarked that the age of nautical discovery has passed; that in the state of modern geography the career of a Columbus or a Drake is no longer possible, and the only outlet for adventurous spirits is in the dangers and hardships of polar voyages. But the passion and the field for intellectual exploration are apparently illimitable, and each new achievement only furnishes a fresh stimulus to ambition. The most obvious illustrations of this are in the domain of physical science; but it is also true of a branch of knowledge which is nearly akin to geographical discovery—the history of races and languages. It is said that fifty years ago there was hardly a scholar in Europe who could read the Sanskrit books of the early Aryans; now many of them have been translated and published in English, and the study has had very notable philological results. A monument of industry and patience which might excite the envy even of German students is furnished in the work before us. Three large volumes, handsomely printed (though in small type), and with wide margins, comprising in all some 1,800 pages, are devoted to a history, mainly genealogical, of the tribes of central Asia, wrought out with a zeal and minuteness almost equal to that of a member of a New England antiquarian society, tracing up an ancestry whose whole title to interest lies in the fact of their existence.

The first half of the first volume comprises the erection of the Mongol Empire under Genghis (or, as we are now told to call him, Jingis) Khan in the twelfth century. Our author tries hard to endow his hero with some romantic personal qualities, but his narration of facts bars any other conclusion than that, apart from intellectual qualities, this hero was an unmitigated savage. Great qualities of some kind he must have had, since, as Mr. Howorth says, "he may fairly claim to have conquered the greatest area of the world's surface that was ever subdued by one hand"; while it is no less a testimony to his power of administrative organization that we find one of his successors, a hundred years after, ruling over "the largest empire that was ever controlled by one man." The origin of this great structure was in an obscure tribe living between the sources of the rivers Amoor and Yenisei, in about fifty degrees of north latitude. They were pure nomads, living by hunting and cattle-breeding, without any fixed pastures, and wandering every year in search of water and grass. Their food consisted of flesh and sour milk. Here, about the year 1160, was born Temudjin, (signifying "iron" or "steel," his sobriquet of Jingis, or the "Mighty" Khan being assumed only after he was forty years old), of a royal stock, which Mr. Howorth discusses with elaborate detail. His early career was that of thousands of adventurers in Asia—the assertion of his rights by the strong hand; and having subdued the neighboring tribes, he expanded his operations, till during the last twenty-five years of his life, covering the first quarter of the thirteenth century, his armies had overrun China as far as the Yellow River; had reduced the peninsula of Corea to at least tributary subjection; had subdued all central and southern Asia as far as the Indus and the Persian Gulf, and had swept over northern Asia and Europe as far as the river Dnieper in Russia.

These armies were composed of soldiers who could live anywhere where their horses and cattle could find pasture. On distant expeditions they took no gear except two leathern bottles for milk, a little earthen pot to cook their meat in, and a little tent to shelter them from the rain; and, in cases of great urgency, they would ride ten days on end without lighting a fire or taking a meal. "On such occasions," according to Marco Polo, confirmed by the Persian historians, "they would sustain themselves on the blood of their horses, opening a vein and letting the blood jet into their mouths, drinking till they had enough, and then stanching it." With these hardy habits, and controlled by the severe discipline of Jingis, these hordes were irresistible. Their conquering march through the rich countries of southern Asia must have been as romantic as those of the Crusaders from Europe, and of the Spaniards in Mexico. But it was more destructive than either. "The creed of Jingis was to sweep away all cities as the haunts of slaves and luxury, that his herds might freely feed upon grass whose green was free from dusty feet." It is frightful to read that from 1211 to 1223 18,470,000 human beings perished in China and Tangut alone at the hands of this man and his followers. Mr. Howorth philosophizes that the great scourges of God—Sesostris, Sennacherib, Darius, Alexander, Cæsar, Attila, Timur, Bonaparte—recur at intervals to purge the world of the diseased and the decaying, the weak and the false, the fool and the knave. But if Divine Providence undertook to renovate the world, it seems, in this case at least, to have made but a very poor job of it. The countries thus ravaged were rich and prosperous. Balkh, Samarcand, Khiva, and Bokhara were great cities, with large wealth, extensive commerce, and beautiful gardens. What the Mongols did for these their successors the Turks did for such cities as Bagdad, Aleppo, and Damascus. And what has come out of it? If the state of things destroyed was worse than what exists in these countries in the nineteenth century, it must have been very bad indeed.

After the death of Jingis in August, 1227, the work was continued by his numerous sons and relatives. His nephew, Batu, carried his arms over nearly all Russia, all of Hungary as far as Pesth and south to the Adriatic, very much on the same principles which had been so effective in Asia. Fortunately for mankind, the Mongols made no permanent settlement in Europe, but as internal quarrels broke out in the empire they retired again into Asia. The conquest of China was also completed about the same time. The empire of Kubhilai Khan, who died in 1297, included, under more or less direct rule, China, Corea, Tibet, Tung-King, Cochin-China, a great portion of India beyond the Ganges, the Turkish and Siberian realms from the Eastern Sea to the Dnieper, while the Ilkhans of Persia (whose empire bordered on the Mediterranean and the Greek empire) were his feudatories. After this time the Mongol rule began to decline. Luxury and effeminacy did their work as usual, and by the end of the fourteenth century the invaders had been driven out of China by the founders of the Ming dynasty, while their other dominions in Asia had been divided among various claimants.

The last half of the first volume is devoted to an analysis of the numerous tribes which made up the Mongol empire—a mass of intricate detail which we imagine few readers will have the patience to master. That Mr. Howorth has had the patience to write it shows how absorbing becomes the pursuit of such special investigations, and the terms of warm friendship and admiration in which he speaks of his colaborers in the same field show also what a close bond unites those who give themselves up to studies so far from the general line of inquiry.

The second and third volumes are devoted to the rulers and tribes in the countries surrounding the Caspian and those northward to the borders of Russia and the Arctic Ocean. It is curious to note how the traditions of government are modified by circumstances. In Mohammedan, and indeed in most Asiatic countries, the succession to a crown does not fall to the oldest son, but to the oldest male member of the family—brother or uncle as it may be. The political reason seems to be that a long minority with a regency is almost impracticable in the midst of lawlessness and turbulence: it is necessary that a grown and strong man should take the reins at once. But then, where difference of age (it may be slight) is the only determining element, there is a constant tendency to secure or establish a claim by the murder of all other possible competitors. The obvious inconveniences of this course lead, with the progress of civilization, to the establishment in European countries of a definite law of succession in favor of the

eldest son or child, and the rest of the family uphold this as the means of securing the best which they can obtain by peaceful methods.

The most interesting feature of these last volumes is the gradual development of the relations of the Asiatic tribes to Russia. It has been remarked that after the death of Jingis, his nephew Batu, in the middle of the thirteenth century, overran most of Russia, and penetrated to the Danube. We may be pardoned for the repetition, as Mr. Howorth, with each tribe, goes back for centuries and makes repeated reference to events already narrated, in a way which is sadly detrimental to the clearness of the story. The Mongol success was owing in a great measure to the principle which is so much in vogue in modern Europe, universal service. Every man was a horseman, and therefore a soldier, and all were subjected to an iron discipline. In Russia, on the other hand, the priests and merchants and slaves had so multiplied that the military class were in a small minority. The feeble militia which was assembled could not stand before the Tartar cavalry. Mr. Howorth observes again, after a description of the Tartar weapons, that they were far superior to anything then known in Europe. The history of warfare is full of examples of a transfer of dominion effected almost entirely by new inventions and improvements of the appliances of war, so that modern Europe, with its spirit of subjective analysis, spends its years of peace in scientific research applied to the implements of attack and defence. The forests and morasses of central Russia had no attractions for pastoral nomads, and so, after devastating the country in a frightful manner, the Mongols retired to the regions to the south and east. They left behind them, however, commissaries and tax-gatherers, who drained the vitals of the land. Two centuries of misery and degradation reduced the country to the lowest ebb, and then a revival began to take place, under the Czars Ivan III. and IV., the latter surnamed the Terrible. It is a striking fact of history that nearly at the same time all over Europe a remedy for the anarchy and chaos of feudalism was sought for in a centralized despotism. Henry VII. and VIII. of England, Richelieu in France, Ferdinand and Isabella in Spain, the Ivans in Russia, were all comprised in a period of little more than a century. It was the want of a corresponding power which has kept Germany and Italy in a state of disintegration down to our time; and the former may be said, *mutatis mutandis*, to be going through what other parts of Europe experienced three centuries ago. The work which the two Ivans, in the depressed state of the nation, did among the boyars of Russia had much more fatal effects upon municipal and social freedom than corresponding events elsewhere. To quote Mr. Howorth: "Serfdom was introduced, the peasant was tied down to the land, and the whole nation, by an ingenious hierarchy of officials, was made a mere machine, of which the key was in the hands of one irresponsible person, and during one long reign in the hands of a madman and a monster." None the less, the concentration of national strength worked out results here as elsewhere, and as the Tartar powers fell to decay the Western giant was growing in strength, till in the nineteenth century we find the situation completely reversed, and Russia invading the Tartars, as in the thirteenth they invaded her, but with a comparative mildness and beneficence which marks the change that has come over the world.

The third volume has a very interesting account of the first expedition which led to the conquest of Siberia. It was organized in 1579, by the Stroganoffs, a family of nobles on the frontier, and led by Yermak Timoveef, hetman of a body of Don Cossacks who had fled from Russian punishment of their robberies. Five years of the severest hardships ended in defeat, but paved the way for future enterprises. We have an account also of the modern city of Bokhara, associated for Anglo-Indian readers with the names of Stoddart, Conolly, and Wolff; and also of Khiva, captured by the Russian General Kaufmann in 1870, when General Skobeleff, since so famous, first came into notice.

It is hardly to be expected that a writer absorbed in Asiatic genealogies should be very sensitive to purity of English style, and Mr. Howorth's shows traces of the fatigue which the greatest enthusiast must experience in such a labyrinth. To a reader struggling in a sea of barbarous nomenclature it is an additional burden to find himself engaged in constant chase of an antecedent for the pronoun "he." Mr. Howorth modestly disclaims a position among the brilliant writers who have made history so fascinating to the general reader, being content with that of a collector of materials; but, granting that a recasting of these materials in a more narrative form might make them easier reading, he is certainly entitled to the credit of what principally gives history any real value, indefatigable research.

MARTIN'S 'HOW TO DISSECT A CHELONIAN.'

Handbook of Vertebrate Dissection. Part 1. How to Dissect a Chelonian. By H. Newell Martin and W. A. Moale. New York: Macmillan & Co. 12mo, pp. 94, 1 plate. 1881.

Dr. Martin was already known to American naturalists as the collaborator of Prof. Huxley in the preparation of the 'Elementary Biology,' which, although slightly antedated by Morrell and Rolleston, may justly be regarded as the real prototype of what we hope may become a long series of practical dissections of representative and peculiar organic forms. Theoretically, neither the frog, which is treated in the 'Biology,' nor the turtle, which is the subject of the present volume, is best suited for the exemplification of the vertebrate structure in general, or of the amphibian or reptilian modifications. Chelonians are a very peculiar and aberrant group, while frogs and toads are in some respects as decided morphological monstrosities as are the tailless apes and man himself. Practically, however, there is much to be said in favor of the generally distributed and easily obtained, preserved and dissected frog as an introduction to vertebrate anatomy, and our author explains the publication of the 'Chelonian Dissection' prior to those of the lizard, bony and cartilaginous fishes, tailed amphibian, rat, and pigeon, which he intends to prepare, upon the ground that the difficulties presented by the turtle led him first to put the directions into shape for his students. In passing, let us express the hope that the series may be made to embrace the amphioxus and lamprey eel, and that Dr. Martin may be led to substitute for the pigeon and the rat the more readily obtainable common fowl, and the rabbit or the cat. An additional reason for the early publication of the present part is the fact that "the great persistence of vitality in its various organs after general death of the animal makes it extremely promising for physiological experiment." So true is this observation that, although the volume professes to deal with merely structural considerations, we wish that, in addition to noting the action of the heart, which often beats long after death, the student were advised to pinch the muscles and nerves, or stimulate them with electricity, so as to obtain an elementary yet very distinct conception of some of the fundamental properties of those tissues. The action of the cilia also might be observed if some method of killing the turtle other than by chloroform were recommended.

The foregoing reference to the manner of killing the animal suggests the first criticism upon the practical portion of the work. On page 6 the student is told to "insert a tenaculum into the soft parts beneath the head, and draw out the latter; force open the mouth and direct a pipette, containing about a teaspoonful of chloroform, into the opening of the glottis, which will be found in an elevation at the base of the tongue; then blow the chloroform in to the lungs." This may be appropriate to the small and pacific "Red-bellied Slider Terrapin," but would our authors advise the same liberties to be taken (or rather undertaken) with a "Snapper," with the soft-shelled turtle which is so common at the West, or with the giant "Loggerhead" or "Gallapagos"?

Upon the following point criticism applies with equal force to nearly all published directions for anatomical manipulation: there is no list of the various instruments and materials required. Indeed, excepting the guarded bristle and the sharp knife for dividing the brain, the *armamentarium anatomicum* is assumed to be complete and appropriate; yet it is notorious that the average dissecting-case of the medical schools affords an altogether inadequate outfit for the nicer kinds of zoötomical work. Coming to details, nothing is said of injecting the vessels, which is certainly desirable upon at least one of the several specimens which each student should examine; there is no hint as to ligating the intestines before dividing them; "strong" and "dilute" alcohol are mentioned without definite intimation as to the per cent.; and *macerate* is employed in at least an ambiguous sense. The volume is advertised as "with illustrations," which consist, however, of four scarcely large enough figures of as many aspects of the skull. Since our authors determined to depart from the much to be regretted and wholly unaccounted-for plan of the 'Elementary Biology,' and the 'Practical Physiology' of Foster and Langley, most users of the present work will certainly wish that the illustrations had been multiplied; that the figures of the skull had been collocated with the description thereof, instead of forming a very unattractive frontispiece; that the numbers designating the bones had been replaced by the names themselves, or by intelligible abbreviations; and that references to the figures had been given in the text.

Most of the more important organs are mentioned, and our authors were probably wise in not describing or even enumerating each individual muscle, vessel, and nerve. Yet (especially in view of the detailed and apparently accurate account of the caudal portion of the sympathetic system) one is surprised at the absence of allusion to the interesting pair of lymphatic hearts at the root of the tail. The brain is allowed a fair share of space, but how can a student gain any clear or accurate conception of its general plan of arrangement without an intimation of the existence of a *lamina terminalis*? Since merely an acquaintance with human osteology is assumed as a prerequisite to such work as is here described, it might be expected either that each of the softer parts would be designated by a single name in all places, or that the synonymy would be indicated, at least in the Index. Yet *glottis* (p. 6) is not included in the Index, and in other parts of the work it is replaced by the ponderous and unfamiliar term *aditus laryngis*, with no intimation that the two refer to the same thing. In a greater or less degree, the same remark applies to the words *gullet* and *œsophagus*, *trachea* and *wind-pipe*,

chiasma and *optic commissure*, *thalami* and *thalamencephalon*, *optic lobes*, *midbrain*, and *mesencephalon*, *cardia* and *cardiac end of the stomach*. The Index, in fact, is simply verbal, and one must know all the names by which an organ might be called in order to ascertain where it is treated.

It is gratifying to observe the general, though not uniform, use of such exact toponomical terms as *dorsal* and *ventral* in place of the utterly vague *upper* and *lower*, *front* and *back*. Our authors, however, still employ the almost equally objectionable words *anterior* and *posterior* rather than the explicit *cephalic* and *caudal*, which have been suggested in the last edition of Quain's 'Anatomy,' and adopted by some writers. Notwithstanding an evident intention of accuracy, there are some pretty vague descriptions, as, *e. g.*, 206 *f*, and the statement in 209 that the "lateral ventricles" are "under their respective prosencephalic lobes." As in the other practical works which have been mentioned, excepting that of Rolleston, no references are given to compendiums of Comparative Anatomy, or to the papers of original observers of chelonian structure. It may be a fair question as to the desirability of very copious references; yet we think it only just both to the investigators and to the students that the latter should be informed by whom knowledge has been advanced in any particular direction. In the present case it would certainly not have taken much space to name the works and papers of the elder Agassiz, Bojanus, Brücke, Parker, and H. S. Williams. Despite the deficiencies which have been pointed out, the present volume will prove very helpful and satisfactory to any who will employ it (as it is intended to be used) specimen and scalpel in hand.

FREEMAN'S SUBJECT AND NEIGHBOR LANDS OF VENICE.

Sketches from the Subject and Neighbour Lands of Venice. By Edward A. Freeman, D.C.L., LL.D., Honorary Fellow of Trinity College, Oxford. With illustrations. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1881. Small 8vo, pp. 395.

UNDER the above title Mr. Freeman has arranged a series of short historical papers, some of which are entirely new, and many of which have been recast from articles which appeared five or six years ago in the *Pall Mall Gazette* and the *Saturday Review*. The present collection is a volume similar in form, content, and illustration to the 'Historical and Architectural Studies,' published in 1876. Mr. Freeman regards the above 'Sketches' as a companion and sequel to the 'Studies.' The latter related chiefly to Italian cities; the former relate more especially to the cities on the northern and eastern shores of the Adriatic. With Venice as a kind of polar star, Mr. Freeman has voyaged up and down the Dalmatian coast and along the western shores of Greece, visiting many points of historic interest; and his present work is a kind of historical Odyssey, in twenty-six books, the personal observations of an old historian of many devices, who, returning homeward by devious ways from historical warfare with the Turks, has lately found a modern Ithaca and a new England in the westward-drifting island of Atlantis.

The chief interest of Mr. Freeman's book attaches itself to the historic continuity of ancient municipal life in those lands which fringe the eastern shores of the Adriatic. Cities, like nations, possess a kind of organic life, and reproduce their kind. They even renew their strength, and sometimes, apparently, their youth. As Greek and Roman nationalities have endured to this day, reinvigorated with infusions of Slavic and Teutonic blood, so many Greek and Roman cities, grafted with fresh institutions, have preserved their old municipal stock; their historic soil and environment; their monuments and traditions; and, in some cases, their very names. Through all the storms of barbaric invasion, and amid the very wrecks of Roman, Gothic, Byzantine, Norman, Venetian, and Turkish dominion, certain of these ancient municipalities, like Zara and Durazzo, have stood forth like historical lighthouses, illuminating to some extent the darkness which settled down upon the borders of southeastern Europe. Some ancient cities, like Aquileia and Salona, have handed on their light to other cities standing by, like Venice and Spalato, as did runners in the old Grecian torch-race, or as Grecian colonies used to bear with them fire taken from the altar of their native city to kindle municipal life upon distant shores. Many ancient municipal beacons have gone out entirely, but some are now shining on with renewed brightness—for example, the haven of Pola, which shelters to-day the growing navy of Austria as it once sheltered the ships of Old and New Rome.

Among the most interesting of Mr. Freeman's municipal sketches are those of Ragusa and Spalato. Ragusa, "the city of argosies," is the daughter of Epidauros, a Grecian colony originally planted upon a peninsula hill, with a double harbor, like Epidamnos (the Roman Dyrrhachium, modern Durazzo), which was the daughter of the elder Korkyra, and the granddaughter of Corinth. The site of the ancient Epidauros is marked by a village known as Ragusa Vecchia, the old municipal home having curiously appropriated the name and fame of the city which went forth from out of it. It is as though England should one day assume the name of Old America. Old Ragusa, like Salona, mother-city of Spalato, fell a prey to Slavonic invaders, and its inhabitants founded a city of refuge upon "a peninsula of hills and rocks and inlets, offering a bold front to the full force of the open sea." There seems to be a principle of heredity in the very choice men make of ground whereon to build a city. The Greeks planted their first towns upon hills remote from the sea. Gradually these "hill-forts" crept out upon promontories, and their long walls reached down to harbors on either hand. The choice of a peninsula hill, or of land with easy access to the sea, finally became as much an instinct with Greek colonists as the building of nests upon rocky cliffs is with certain sea-birds. But the original idea of an acropolis was rarely, if ever, abandoned. Ragusa itself was simply a hill-fort brought down to the seaside. Mr. Freeman's description of this transplanted Greek colony, now Slavic in speech and culture, but still Hellenic in its traditions of local freedom, is one of the most felicitous of all his sketches:

"Ragusa lies at the foot of the mountains, and the crest of the mountains was her boundary. She has always sat on a little ledge of Christendom, with a measureless background of barbarism behind her. Those hills, the slopes of which begin in the streets of the city, once fenced in a ledge of Hellenic land from the native barbarians of Illyricum; then they fenced in a ledge of Roman land from the Slavonic invader; lastly, when we first looked on them, when we first crossed them, they still fenced in a ledge of Christian land from the dominion of the Infidel."

And herein lies the chief glory of Ragusa as contrasted with other important cities on the Dalmatian coast.

"We draw near to Zara, and say, 'There is the city that was stormed by the Crusaders.' We draw near to Spalato; we see the palace and the campanile, and round the palace and campanile everything gathers. We draw near to Ragusa; the eye is struck by no such prominent object, the memory seizes on no such prominent fact. But there is Ragusa; there is the one spot along that whole coast from the Croatian border to Cape Tainaros itself which never came under the dominion of the Venetian or of the Turk."

If Ragusa is interesting as an historical survival of the old Greek municipal spirit, though downtrodden by Napoleon and the "emperors" of Austria, Spalato is still more interesting as a survival of municipal Rome, which, from a hill-fort on the Palatine, went forth with widening power until it became the *civitas mundi*, *urbs et orbis*. Spalato, like Rome, a city of refuge, likewise developed from the abode of its founder, although the palace of Diocletian, the first building at Spalato, was a developed type of the abode of the Cæsars, then crowning the Palatine hill and representing Rome as did the hill-fort of its early kings. Diocletian was the first of Roman emperors to establish a new capital. He was the archetype of Constantine, who built a New Rome upon the Bosphorus. He was the forerunner of Theodosius, who finally divided the Empire into its eastern and western branches; for Diocletian gave the world the idea of two Augusti and two Cæsares, ruling in eastern and western capitals, at Nikomedeia, Milan, Trier, and York. All three rulers sprang from the region of Illyria, and to this region Diocletian, the ruling spirit, finally returned, and built himself a stately palace near Salona and his old home, where, having retired from imperial office, he showed the world that a Roman emperor could conquer himself, as he had conquered the old imperial city, by asserting the principle, *ubi Cæsar, ibi Roma*.

Mr. Freeman regards Spalato as the most marked and memorable spot in the whole course of his Dalmatian journeyings. He says it is a place thoroughly unhackneyed and as yet uninvaded by British tourists. He first visited Spalato in 1875, and his first impressions were those of unbounded enthusiasm. The visit was "the accomplishment of a thirty years' yearning after the architectural wonders of Spalato." It was chiefly this monumental city, described many years ago for art-history (see Kugler, 'Kunstgeschichte,' i., 226) by an Englishman named Adam, in an illustrated work on the 'Ruins of the Palace of the Emperor Diocletian,' that first attracted Mr. Freeman to the Dalmatian coast—that old border-land of rival empires and rival churches. And to this city of Spalato Mr. Freeman has returned again and again. In a sketch entitled "Spalato Revisited" he tempers somewhat his first enthusiasm about "the house which became a city," admitting that the name Spalato is not derived from the Latin *Palatium;* but he holds firmly to his main position that Diocletian's palace represents the greatest advance ever made in the art of building, for it was "the beginning of all consistent arched architecture—Romanesque, Gothic, or any other." This wonderful advance consisted in the simple expedient of rearing the Roman round arch directly from the capital of the Grecian column, without the employment of entablature, which had long prevented the perfect organic unity of two classic and representative types. Until the erection of the Baths of Diocletian at Rome, and of his palace at Spalato, Grecian columns had served no real purpose in Roman architecture except that of mural ornamentation. They had been beautiful masks for ugly walls. Now, however, we find them restored to actual use in upholding the mural superstructure. And thus began that wonderful development-process of modern architecture—Basilican churches like St. John Lateran and St. Paul's without the walls; Romanesque ca-

thedrals like that at Pisa and those along the Rhine; so-called Gothic architecture, which is but the pointed Saracenic arch made to spring directly from the head of the column, as does the Roman arch in Diocletian's palace. "All Romanesque and Gothic architecture was, like another Athene, in embryo in the brain of Jovius or his architect," says Freeman in an earlier paper on "Diocletian's Place in Architectural History" ('Historical Essays,' Third Series), which should be reread in connection with these new sketches of "Spalato" and "Spalato Revisited."

One of the most striking characteristics of Mr. Freeman's method of treating historical subjects is the habit of suggesting comparisons. He is ever on the alert to note points of resemblance and points of difference. The palace of Diocletian, "the main object and centre of all historical and architectural inquiries on the Dalmatian coast," suggests to his mind a Roman military camp, a *chester*, because of the vast original circuit of the palace and its outlying quarters for soldiery, its four gates and four streets. The great inner court of the palace, with its arcades yet standing, appears to him the *piazza* or public square of Spalato. The Venetian *loggia* of this town, the lower story of the Ducal Palace of Venice, and the pillared space below the civic palace of Udine, all remind him of English town-halls and market-houses, which are often built upon open arcades, beneath which is a sheltered place for traffic, while town affairs and local courts are carried on in the rooms above. "Enlarge and enrich a building of t[illegible] and we come by easy steps to the pala[illegible] and to the palace of Venice." At Ragusa Freeman discovers a town-hall which is a fair counterpart to that at Venice, although he regards the Ragusan arcade as much finer than the Venetian. An ancient knocker upon a side-door of the court of the cathedral at Ragusa is "a worthy fellow of the great one at Durham." At Treviso, which was the first acquisition of Venice upon the mainland of Italy, the numerous streams, canals, and bridges call up the memory of its mistress. Everywhere in his travels he is quick to observe traces of Venetian likeness or of Venetian influence. Curzola, "true child of Venice, knows neither horse nor carriage." Cattaro attracts him by its graceful little scraps of Venetian architecture. In fact, all Venetian towns beyond the Adriatic seem to him in some sort to reproduce their mistress.

Very early in this volume Mr. Freeman calls attention to the fact that the Lombards had their *Eastrice*, corresponding to the Austrasia of the Frankish kingdom and to the *Ostmark* (afterward *Oesterreich*) of the Frankish empire. But throughout the whole book extends the implied parallel between the East and the West, between Austria and Turkey, between the powers of Europe and of Asia. In reading the story of those little municipalities which dot the borderland between the old Eastern and Western empires, we are continually reminded of the survival of historic relations and of the existence of an unsolved problem—the "Eastern Question"—which is truly "eternal." Mr. Freeman's suggestive words as to a possible revival of the Eastern Question at no distant day assume a fresh interest in the light of the recent rebellion in the Balkan peninsula against the attempt of Austria to introduce her militia system in the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, which, by the Berlin treaty, she was authorized only to "administer." These provinces and the border districts of Dalmatia are now in revolt. Mr. Freeman has been among the mountaineers of the latter region, and has learned something of the Swiss spirit of independence which reigns among the men of the Bocche di Cattaro. In 1869 Austria endeavored to crush this determined people and their ancient rights, as she once tried to crush the Swiss Confederates at Morgarten and Sempach, and with much the same results. An army of Austrian troops was hurled back from the Bocchese Highlands. In village-inns [illegible] region Mr. Freeman saw rude pictures [illegible] the triumph. He says: "People still [illegible] about the mythical exploits of Tell, but hardly any one has heard of this little piece of successful resistance to oppression done only twelve years back." It remains to be seen what success will attend Austria's present invasion of mountain fastnesses. Mr. Arthur Evans, the son-in-law of Mr. Freeman, visited the Bocchese insurgents a few weeks ago when the rebellion was brewing, and in a letter to the *Manchester Guardian*, December 4, prophesied a general uprising of the mountaineers in the Bosnian and Herzegovinian Alps, and a desperate resistance to service in the Austrian *Landwehr*.

C F Bickford 280 27 82

Christopher Columbus (1440–1506). The first American citizen (by adoption). [Lives of American Worthies.] By W. L. Alden. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1881. Pp. 287.

If it is worth while to write a comic biography of Columbus, Mr. Alden's is certainly very well done. It is sprightly and entertaining, and affords agreeable amusement for an odd five minutes. Moreover, it must be confessed that there are incidents in the life of Columbus which diminish the regret that one feels at seeing a man of the really highest type made the butt of ridicule. Nothing can justify, for example, giving over the character and career of Washington to be made sport of by the author of 'Helen's Babies.' We are told in the announcement of the series that "the truth of history is adhered to with most uncompromising rigidity." Precisely what this means we do not know. Of course the main facts in the life of Columbus are faithfully stated; on the other hand, there are numerous incidents which are fictitious upon the face of them, being introduced merely in order to give a touch of the ludicrous to the narrative; and there is certainly no absolute dividing line between these to distinguish the truthful from the comical. The following passage about Prester John (p. 31) will give a good notion of Mr. Alden's best style:

"The wonderful credulity of the age is shown by his belief in a Presbyterian King whom no European had ever seen, and in a kingdom of which no man knew the situation. It ought to have occurred to the Portuguese King that, even if he could find this mythical monarch, he would not take any real pleasure in his society, unless it were to burn him. King John II. was a pious Roman Catholic, and, next to a Methodist, a Presbyterian King would have been about the most uncongenial acquaintance he could have made."

Much of the fun is genuine and good, a part is rather forced; but on the whole we prefer biography and drollery separate.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Acland and Ransome. Handbook of the Political History of England. London: Rivingtons; New York News Co.

Acton, R. England's Colonial Empire. London and New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.

Baker, B. The Actual Lateral Pressure of Earthwork. New York: D. Van Nostrand. 50 cents.

Beebe's Four-Place Tables. New Haven: H. H. Peck.

Books of All Time: a Guide for the Purchase of Books. New York: F. Leypoldt.

Bowen, H. C. The Shakspere Reading-Book. London and New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co. $1 25.

Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexikon. 13th ed. Parts 3-7: Adam-Almoraviden. New York: L. W. Schmidt.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 16, 1882.

The Week.

THE week has witnessed a further liquidation of speculation in France, where several credit concerns not of the first importance have collapsed, and it has witnessed in this country a beginning of the liquidation of the "bull speculation" in Cotton and Produce Exchange commodities. There was at no time during the week anything like a panic in the foreign markets for securities, and at the close some improvement was apparent. Nevertheless, there was sufficient uneasiness early in the week to advance again the rates here for foreign exchange to the gold-exporting point; and the result was an outflow of specie of nearly $2,500,000. The Bank of England steadily gained specie during the week, but not in sufficient amounts to warrant a reduction in the discount rate, which is still 6 per cent. The decline in the domestic markets in the prices of cotton, breadstuffs, and provisions was large, but as yet it has not been sufficient to quicken or enlarge the export movement, although of course the tendency is in that direction. As soon as merchandise exports become active, a stoppage of gold exports will be in order. The New York money market was easy at 4@6 per cent., although the banks lost $2,330,000 of their surplus reserve, which was reduced to $4,050,000, against $6,380,000 a year ago. At the Stock Exchange the tendency of prices, as a rule, was to lower figures. The Advisory Commission, consisting of Messrs. A. G. Thurman, of Ohio, E. B. Washburne, of Illinois, and T. M. Cooley, of Michigan, which is to consider the question of differential rates referred to it by the trunk-line railroads, met early in the week to prepare for regular sessions in March. There was a break of 15@25½ points in Tennessee State bonds, on account of a decision of the Supreme Court of that State that the Funding Act is unconstitutional. The most scandalous part of the business was that most of this decline occurred before the decision was rendered, showing that the decision was known in Wall Street before it was announced in court. There was also a heavy decline in the inferior class of railroad bonds, such as are speculated in like shares. Outside of speculation, the general trade of the country continues very large in volume and satisfactory as to profits. The price of silver bullion in London advanced to 52⅛d. per ounce; and the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar advanced to $0.8855.

Lord Granville's elaborate despatch about the Isthmus Canal would be very curious reading if we had not already had Mr. Blaine's. Any one would suppose, on seeing them, if he knew nothing of the history of the matter, that there was a contention going on for the possession of a canal across the Isthmus between Great Britain and the United States. There is not. There is no such canal in existence. None is likely to be in existence either in Mr. Blaine's or Lord Granville's lifetime. The money for such a canal has not been subscribed. It is much less likely to be subscribed now than it was six months ago, and it grows more and more unlikely to be subscribed with every despatch about the control of it. No prudent man cares to put money into an enterprise over which two first-class powers seem likely to quarrel. Earl Granville denies that the greatness of the Pacific coast was not foreseen when the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty was made, and alleges that the causes of dissatisfaction with its working which subsequently arose have since been removed, by the voluntary action of the British Government. This may be all true, but does not make up for the absence of a canal. This is all that is needed to make the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty really worth discussion. The treaty is about a canal; but until there is a canal, or a near prospect of one, it is simply an expression of opinion now thirty years old. Quarrelling over its provisions is very like litigation over a bequest of a testator who has left no assets. It was worth Mr. Blaine's while to write about it, because he needed the despatch for home use, but nobody else can get any good out of the question.

Mr. Blaine's despatch, offering the mediation of the United States for the settlement of a boundary dispute between Mexico and Guatemala, is another instance of the troublesome vivacity which has played such curious freaks in his management of our foreign affairs. There is really no reason why the United States should not act as mediator between Mexico and Guatemala in such a case, if the two countries desire it. On the contrary, it would be a very proper and, perhaps, a very useful thing to all parties concerned. But the first requisite is that both parties to the contest should want such a mediation. Mr. Blaine, after having been requested by Guatemala to interpose his good offices, was also justified in trying to ascertain whether Mexico would be willing to accept such an offer on our part. But when, in doing so, he rushed in with historical statements which were not only open to question, but also betrayed a bias of his mind in favor of the Guatemala side of the case, and when, besides, his despatch contained some expressions which could be construed as unfavorably reflecting upon the conduct of Mexico, it was very natural that his professions of disinterested friendship and of "lofty" purposes should have found scanty appreciation, and that the only honors borne away by our Government from the correspondence should have consisted in some corrections as to historical facts rather pointedly administered by the Mexican Minister of Foreign Affairs to the American Secretary of State.

Ex-President Prado, of Peru, publishes an open letter to Mr. Christiancy in reply to his confidential despatch on the ways and manners of the Peruvians. It consists chiefly of a flat denial of all Mr. Christiancy's charges of degradation and corruption. He suggests incidentally a curious explanation of Mr. Christiancy's statement that the Chinese are generally treated in Peru with the same severity as the slaves were in our Southern States. "You must have felt very bilious when you wrote that letter," he says, "or you would have spared your own country." He ridicules the idea that a man of standing would "lose caste" in Lima if he were to carry a parcel through the streets, and declares that the whole thing depends entirely on the size of the parcel. "Large-sized parcels," he admits, "are carried by servants or sent home by the sellers." But, he continues, "after all, what has public opinion to do with what a person carries or does not carry in his hand?" To a philosopher, of course, nothing whatever, but to the jaundiced eye of Caste it may have a great deal. Even in London, where Caste has lost its hold upon politics to so great an extent, it still draws the line at parcels "tied with a string," and in Lima this delicate distinction is probably unknown.

It is reported that Senator Ingalls's resolution against the repeal of the Pension Arrears Act will pass the Senate almost without a dissenting voice, since the Southern Senators who were on the Confederate side during the war seek to demonstrate their loyalty by favoring any amount of pensions for Union soldiers. But the worst of it is that they will also push the passage of a bill to pension all the survivors of the Mexican war whether disabled or not, and the widows of those of them that have died. It is suggested that this measure is particularly favored by Southerners for the reason that the South furnished a large number of soldiers at that time. Of course, estimates are made to show that only an inconsiderable sum will be needed for that purpose, as the number of surviving Mexican war veterans cannot be very large. But the crop of such veterans and of Mexican war widows that will show themselves immediately after the passage of a bill to pension them all, will be marvellous to behold. Pensioning men disabled in the service is one thing; but pensioning those who have come out of a war without having suffered any injury at all, and a great many of whom have been the whole time in depots and other comfortable places, scarcely away from home, is a thing which a nation cannot afford, unless it absolutely does not know what to do with its money We are not precisely in that condition. The Pension Arrears Act has already imposed burdens upon the people which, in the course of time, they will become more sensible of than they seem to be now. But the kind of demagogy which passed that act seems determined to stop at nothing unless public opinion interposes a veto which politicians will not dare to disregard.

The decision of the Tennessee Supreme Court that the 100-3 Funding Act of that State is unconstitutional, is based on the clause making the coupons receivable for taxes for a long period of time. The Court says that the

Legislature has no power to make a contract of this character, apparently on the ground that the legislative authority to raise money by taxation is limited to periods of two years. No clause of the Tennessee Constitution has been mentioned which warrants such a construction; and if the meaning of the Court is that because each Legislature lasts for two years only, therefore coupons cannot be made receivable for taxes beyond that period, the decision will long be remembered as a remarkable feat in legal interpretation. The Court seems to think that the Legislature might bind the people of Tennessee for two years, but we doubt it. The people of Tennessee are as hard a people for a Legislature to bind as any in the world. The bondholders complain of the decision of the Court, and insist that they are being swindled. This, however, was to have been expected, for bondholders, when payment is stopped, always become querulous and dissatisfied. Nothing short of complete confiscation will silence a noisy creditor of this class. The Georgians adopted this plan several years ago. They did not divide into any parties on the debt question, but simply appointed a committee, told it to go over the debt, and settle what should be paid and what should not. The committee repudiated all that they thought had better be repudiated, and there was no further trouble. The bondholders at first wrote letters about it to the newspapers; but even this they have now given up, and Georgia is prosperous and happy, and its credit as high as that of any state in the world.

There is a law forbidding officers and employees of the Government, who are not of the class appointed by the President with the consent of the Senate, to demand or receive from any other officer or employee any money or other property for political purposes. The penalty is removal from office and a fine not exceeding $500. For several years General N. M. Curtis was employed by the Government as a special agent of the Treasury Department. Last autumn he was also made treasurer of the Republican Central Committee of this State. As such he received contributions of money for political purposes from Government clerks and other employees in the Custom-house and Post-office. The Civil-Service Reform Association of this city brought the matter to the notice of General Curtis's chief, Secretary Folger, for such action as the law contemplated. General Curtis contended that he was not a Government officer or employee within the meaning of the law. We learn now that the Secretary of the Treasury has decided to dispense with General Curtis's services at the end of this month and to send all the papers in the case to the District Attorney of the United States in this city, to prosecute General Curtis if in his, the District Attorney's, opinion there has been any violation of the law. Secretary Folger, in explanation of his action, is reported to have said to a correspondent of the *Tribune* that when he came in as Secretary it was understood that General Curtis should "close up" the special business for which he was employed as soon as possible, and "when these charges were made it was agreed in consultation between us [the Secretary and General Curtis] that he should retire by the end of this month."

If this report of the conversation with Secretary Folger is correct, it would seem as if the Secretary had avoided deciding the case upon its merits, and preferred to have it appear that the discontinuance of General Curtis's services had nothing to do with the violation of the statute concerning the levying of political assessments. The Secretary does not seem to have decided the question whether General Curtis did or did not belong to the class of employees contemplated by the law. We do not see how the Secretary could leave that question undecided, inasmuch as the law provides that any officer or employee of the Government belonging to a certain class and doing a certain thing shall in the first place be removed. And as General Curtis, in his capacity of special agent of the Treasury, was subject to removal by the head of that Department, it was obviously the province of the Secretary of the Treasury to determine when under the law he was required to remove a certain employee for a certain offence. This was the duty of the Treasury Department just as much as it is the duty of the District Attorney in New York to prosecute General Curtis for a misdemeanor if the facts and the law warrant such a prosecution. To dispense with General Curtis's services for some other reason would look somewhat like shirking the question.

Mr. Cannon, the Mormon contestant for a seat in the House of Representatives as Delegate from Utah Territory, has been examined by the Judiciary Committee of the House for the purpose of getting from him some information about Mormonism in general, and to give him an opportunity to show "why the bill now before them to prevent all polygamists from voting and holding office should not be favorably reported." Mr. Cannon made some statements which will startle the female population outside of Utah, if they are at all nervous. He, for instance, said, "spiritual marriage" meant that "no woman could secure exaltation in heaven unless united in marriage to a Latter-Day Saint of the Mormon Church on earth." This would evidently make female society in the next world very exclusive. Finally Mr. Cannon fell back upon the old hackneyed argument, that "before Congress undertook to regulate the morality of Utah, there were matters nearer home which required attention: for instance, he had read only recently in the Washington newspapers of babes left to die in corner lots, and he thought there was a condition of affairs in the District of Columbia which required the attention of the Committee on the Judiciary more than did the Territory of Utah." To which Mr. Reed, of Maine, very properly replied that we do not defend such things here and that there is a law against it. It is the usual excuse of the advocates of an abuse that things elsewhere are not as they ought to be. But the Mormons carry this kind of reasoning to a rather unusual length. "There is a good deal of illicit intercourse in your society," they say, "and therefore we are justified in legalizing it among ourselves by recognizing polygamy as a divine institution. The bad practices of your society are against your law, but we do the same thing in accordance with our law. Therefore, you are sinners and we are saints." Why not apply the same rule to stealing and manslaughter?

The New York Stalwarts had a little dinner on Monday, in the guise of "the Lincoln Club," at which Mr. Emory Storrs and the Rev. Dr. Newman were the principal speakers, although General Grant told one or two good stories about Lincoln. Mr. Storrs, as the custom is at Stalwart feasts, laid the flattery on General Grant very thick, and then gave his views about what the state of things in this city ought to be. The city ought to be Stalwart, he said, and "independent in its Stalwartism," "because Stalwart influences had made the nation great"; and he declared, somewhat mysteriously, that he for his part would "rather have a thousand years of conflict than four such years of foul, sneaking, lying, blustering, nasty hypocrisy as we have passed through." It would appear from this that Mr. Storrs has been having some very disagreeable experiences recently, but he ought either to have explained what they were, or to have avoided all allusion to them. When his moral indignation is fairly aroused it always excites deep public interest and curiosity, and he ought not to excite these feelings and then leave them unsatisfied. One of the odd things about "the Grant crowd" is that they have always had a chaplain, and their chaplain has of course to be a man of mild and tolerant disposition. Ecclesiastics of this kind are easy enough to find, but it is not easy to find an ecclesiastic who combines this mild and tolerant disposition with an ardent enthusiasm and a burning imagination. The present holder of the office, however, does so, and falls little below his predecessor, Bishop Gilbert Haven, who was reminded by the Grant Administration of the Transfiguration on the Mount. Dr. Newman, in like manner, in a burst of childlike rapture over Roscoe Conkling, declared that this particular name "would live when the bronze had melted, and the marble crumbled, and the canvas faded away, and while the stars shine."

Cadet Whittaker's case, after being passed upon by the Judge-Advocate-General, who found that the court-martial was illegally constituted, is now before the Secretary of War, who is said to be very busy and to have no time to look into it. It is expected that he will shortly refer it to the Attorney-General to see what he thinks about the point of the Judge-Advocate-General. The Attorney-General is, however, we believe, very busy too, and there is no knowing when he will be able to attend to it. All this delay is of course delightful for Whittaker, because, the court-martial having found him guilty, it not only saves him from the consequences of his conviction for the moment, but raises the probability that his conviction will never have any consequence at all. He must often feel puzzled in trying to account for his good fortune, and for the tenderness which surrounds him.

The Reverend Talmage seldom touches a subject without throwing some strange new light on it, and in his Sunday lecture on "Secular Topics of the Week as Viewed from a Religious Standpoint," it occurred to him to utter a thought of some significance as to biennial legislatures. He pointed out that if the Legislature met only once in two years, the members would have "more time for earning an honest living." In "off years," not being able to spend the time in their usual occupations at Albany, their thoughts would naturally turn to other and better avocations, and returning to their homes and seeing those around them gaining livelihoods by honest toil, without murmur or complaint at the hardship involved, they would be tempted to imitate them. At first, of course, this would only lead to their alternating their years of corruption at Albany with years of virtue among their constituents; but, gradually, many of them would find honesty making their lives more cheerful and safe if not more profitable than the dull round of wickedness at the State capital, and finally those who had germs of good in them would become weaned from sin and learn to hunger and thirst after righteousness in legislation. A little leaven leaveneth the whole lump, and thus biennial sessions might alter the whole tone of legislation at Albany. Of course, it may be said that other members would occupy their off years merely in plotting new schemes of plunder, and that the biennial plan would thus only give them greater opportunities than they have now for deep-laid "strikes" and jobs. But this risk cannot be avoided, and in the long run we could rely on the influence of honest example.

Mr. Gladstone's proposed new rules of procedure were introduced in the House of Commons on Wednesday. The principal one is, of course, "the previous question"—the moving of which is given to the Speaker in his discretion, while with us it must be moved by a member and supported by a clear majority. But on the Gladstone plan it can only be carried by a vote of 201, on a division, and must not be opposed by more than 39 in a smaller house. To understand how great an innovation this is, it must be remembered that there has been until now no formal way of finally closing a debate as long as any member wished to speak. A debate could be adjourned, and generally when the question was an important one was adjourned, from time to time until every one who had anything to say had said it. Not that every one who would have liked to speak spoke on it. The discussion was usually closed by an understanding between the chiefs on both sides that the vote should be taken when there had been talk enough, and if any loquacious person or freelance attempted to disregard this understanding, he was coughed, or sneezed, or groaned down, or silenced by shouts of "Divide." But there was no rule enabling the majority to say by resolution that it had heard enough and wished to vote. It can easily be seen what a field this state of things opened to members who, like the Parnellites or the young Tories, cared nothing for party discipline or House usage, and wished simply to impede business. They had only to put up a number of long-winded speakers in succession to protract the debate indefinitely. To make matters worse, a member could discuss the principle of a bill on each of the three readings, although the House usage confined this discussion to the second reading. The obstructionists disregarded this usage, and not only made an exhaustive speech at each reading, but on every motion made while the bill was under debate. One of the new rules ties down such discussion of the principle to the three readings. It was in the Committee of the Whole, however, that the obstructionists did most execution. Here each member can speak any number of times. Under the new rule he is to be restricted, as in the debates of the House, to one speech. Moreover, the practice of moving the adjournment of the House as a mere dilatory proceeding is to be cut off by forbidding it until all the orders of the day or the motions on the paper have been disposed of.

The powers of the Speaker are enlarged not only by enabling him to put the previous question, but to silence members for what he considers irrelevancy or frivolousness, and by annexing penal consequences to "the naming" of a member. The power of "naming" a member has long been possessed by the Speaker, but, as Speaker Onslow said in the well-known joke, "the Lord only knew what the consequences of naming him would be." In fact, it had no consequence which any offender cared for, and only served the purpose of communicating to the House what it knew already, that the disorderly member was called Brown or Jones. Now, however, it is proposed to enable the Speaker to follow up the naming with a positive penalty, by enabling him to propose the suspension of the offender for one week, or for a month, or the remainder of the session in case he repeats the offence. Another great innovation is the introduction of Standing Committees like those of our Congress, to take charge of different branches of legislation. But the function of these committees is to be very different from that of our Standing Committees. The Standing Committees at Washington really do the work of originating or shaping legislation which in England is done exclusively, or almost exclusively, by the Cabinet. The proposed Standing Committees of the House of Commons are intended simply to subject Government measures to that piecemeal examination which they now undergo in the Committee of the Whole, or, in other words, to save the House the process of debate "clause by clause," which now consumes so much time, and which consists so largely of the discussion of frivolous or trifling amendments. A bill coming from one of the Standing Committees will be understood as having undergone all such useful amendment as it would have received in the Committee of the Whole, but it will be still open to the Ministry to accept or reject this amendment, either in the Committee of the Whole or in the House.

The English news seems to make it more likely that the closure difficulty will not be got over without an election in which it will be presented as an issue. The London press seems to be nearly unanimous in saying that the feeling of opposition to the new rules grows stronger among members of the House on both sides, and in London society. The truth is that the rules will, if adopted, greatly diminish the power of individual members, and greatly increase that of the Speaker and of the Minister of the day; and it is hard for the present House to agree to this in the absence of any positive expression of opinion from their constituents. In fact, the situation is somewhat like that created in France by the presentation of the *scrutin de liste* to the Chamber by Gambetta. It amounts to a request that the members will consent to make themselves something different and something less than they were when elected, and they naturally snatch at any excuse for not complying This is one of the cases, too, in which, as during Lord Beaconsfield's Administration, the opinion of society in London, by which members are apt to be very much influenced during the session, is likely to differ greatly from that of the provinces, where Gladstone's strength lies, and there is only one way of making the opinion of the provinces sharply felt in the House, and that is by a dissolution. The country newspapers are not read in London, and yet, if we may judge from what happened in 1880, it is in them that English opinion is to be found.

Mr. Gladstone's difficulties will probably be still further increased by his saying that the proposal to repeal the Union cannot be entertained as long as the Irish are not able to draw the line clearly between local and imperial affairs. This is clearly an indiscreet speech, as it suggests the possibility of a repeal of the Union as soon as the Irish agree upon a plan of separation between the purely Irish interests and those of the Empire at large. It has therefore made "a sensation," but the sensation is probably largely due to the fact that the idea that some sort of local government must be conceded to Ireland has obtained a lodgment more or less distinct in the English mind already, although nobody of prominence has had the courage to confess it. In fact, Mr. Gladstone conceded almost as much during the debates on the Land Bill, when he said he looked forward to the day when the Irish members of the House would manage Irish affairs as the Scotch now manage Scotch affairs. The great defect of Mr. Gladstone's Irish policy is that he has not foreshadowed some sort of Home Rule in his own arrangements now, without waiting for legislation. The retention of an Englishman in the Chief Secretaryship—an Englishman, too, of the Forster type—has been, if not a blunder, the loss of an excellent opportunity. Curiously enough, Mr. Gladstone thinks it is a sufficient defence of Mr. Forster's retention that he is a good man. This would be sufficient if his place were that of a bank president or other purely executive officer. But part, and a great part, of his function is to soothe the irritation and dissipate the delusions of a highly excitable and greatly exasperated people. For this his goodness is actually, to a certain extent, a disqualification.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

On Wednesday the Senate passed a bill ratifying an agreement made with the Crow Indians, by which they cede to the Government a portion of their reservation in southern Montana. The bill provides that the agricultural lands remaining in the Crow reservation shall be divided among the Indians in severalty, and that patents shall be issued to them therefor, and also that these lands shall not be "alienable or subject to incumbrance or taxation of any kind for twenty-five years." The passage of this bill is looked upon as the inauguration of a new policy in legislation for the Indian tribes. This is the only business of importance transacted by the Senate during the week.

Among the bills providing for the relief of the Supreme Court, one was introduced in the Senate on Wednesday by Mr. Pugh which proposes to divide the Court into three divisions, with three Justices in each, to be known as the Federal, Equity, and Admiralty Law divisions. These divisions are empowered to sit separately, and all causes are to be heard in the first instance by one of the divisions, except causes in which a jury is required; these are to be heard by the Court in banc.

The McCoid Apportionment Bill occupied the attention of the House on Wednesday and Thursday. Much opposition to the bill has been developed. On Thursday Mr. Cox of New York gave notice of a motion to recommit the bill to the Committee on the Census, with instructions to report a bill in accordance with the old method of apportionment. Should this motion be made, it will probably be carried by a large majority. Friday was devoted to the consideration of private bills and three appropriation bills—namely, for Immediate Deficiencies, Indians, and the Military Academy.

A bill to fix the compensation of letter-carriers was reported to the House on Tuesday, with favorable recommendation. It fixes the pay of auxiliary letter-carriers at $600 a year, and provides that after one year's service they shall be promoted, with their pay increased to $800 a year, and after two years' service they shall be advanced another step, and their salary increased to $1,000 a year.

The House Committee on Agriculture has adopted a report in favor of making the Agricultural Department an executive department.

The sub-committee of the House Committee on Territories has agreed unanimously on a bill to provide for the admission into the Union of all that part of Dakota Territory south of the forty-sixth parallel.

A delegation of about sixty residents of southeastern Dakota waited on the President on Friday, and submitted a resolution asking the removal of Governor Ordway of that Territory.

There appears to be an absolute necessity of some measure to relieve Congress from the burden of private legislation in the form of petitions and bills for the relief of individuals. The single Committee on Claims of the House has already had nearly a thousand bills referred to it, and the Committee on Invalid Pensions is still worse off. It is said that there is not a standing committee of the House which has not more or less private business on ts calendar.

The President has sent a special message to Congress, accompanied by a communication from Secretary Kirkwood, enclosing letters from the acting Governor of Arizona, in regard to the lawlessness existing in that Territory. Mr. Kirkwood says that in New Mexico and Arizona the difficulty of repressing lawlessness arises from the fact that the sheriffs either are intimidated, or have motives for currying favor with the disorderly elements of society, and he recommends that the Governor of Arizona be empowered to remove or suspend a sheriff for neglect of duty. The acting Governor of Arizona in his letter advises the repeal of the Posse Comitatus Act. In his message the President recommends that the Posse Comitatus Act be modified so as to permit the use of the military to assist the civil authorities in the Territories. The message was referred to the Senate Committee on Territories, and a bill conforming to the President's suggestions will probably soon be reported.

The case of Cadet Whittaker is still in the hands of the Secretary of War, who has been so pressed with other matters that he has not had time to lay it before the President. The case will eventually be referred to the Attorney-General for an opinion on the point raised by the Judge-Advocate-General as to the validity of the findings of the court martial.

More of Mr. Blaine's diplomacy was brought to light on Friday by the publication in a Boston evening newspaper of a correspondence between the State Department and the Government of Mexico, in relation to the settlement of the boundary between Mexico and Guatemala. On June 16 Mr. Blaine wrote to the United States Minister at the city of Mexico that Mexico ought not to extend her territory by force at the expense of her weaker neighbor. This letter of instructions was communicated to the Mexican Minister of Foreign Affairs, who wrote in reply that neither "force nor conquest had been the foundation of the rights which Mexico claimed to that portion of her territory which Guatemala disputed." He then goes on to show that Mr. Blaine had been guilty of "historical errors," one of which arose from "impassioned statement" or ignorance of the history of Mexico.

Secretary Folger has "thought it best" that Special Agent General Curtis's term of service "should end." The Secretary, however, says that he does not look upon it as a removal from office; nor does he undertake to decide the question of whether or not General Curtis was an officer of the United States within the meaning of the law he is charged with having violated. The Civil-Service Reform Association will now probably take steps to get General Curtis indicted by the Grand Jury, which meets on the 20th of February.

Members of the Government Assay Commission who have returned from Philadelphia report that the assay was most satisfactory, and showed less than the usual deviation in the coins from the standard.

Postmaster-General Howe has sent a letter to all the postmasters of the United States asking for contributions for the monument to President Garfield which is to be erected in Washington by the Society of the Army of the Cumberland.

The minority of the Naval Advisory Board on the improvement of the navy have presented a report, in which they recommend that fifty-three ships be built at once, and of iron hulls, on the ground that the steel used for ships has none of the physical qualities of real steel, and is simply a high quality of iron, whose tensile strength is in fact about the same as that of our best merchantable iron, while it costs much more.

The first annual report of the Bureau of Ethnology contains an exhaustive study by Colonel Garrick Mallery of the sign-language among North American Indians, and a paper by Dr. Yarrow on the mortuary customs of the Indians.

The Board of Army Engineers appointed to consider a plan for the improvement of the Potomac flats began its labors on Friday.

Colonel Seaton, Superintendent of the Census, thinks that it will require between eight and twelve months to complete the work of his bureau. The printed report will embrace about 20,000 pages.

The Supreme Court of Tennessee has declared the Funding Act of 1881, which compromised the bonded indebtedness of Tennessee at par and three per cent. interest, and made the coupons receivable for taxes, unconstitutional. Two of the five judges dissented from the decision. This decision has created considerable surprise among persons interested in Tennessee bonds.

Some time ago the City Council of Adrian, Michigan, authorized the issue of bonds for water-works purposes, but doubts were raised as to the legality of the authorization. It has since appeared that the whole issue of these bonds has been negotiated, and over half the money drawn on them. It is now charged that the bonds were not legally authorized, and that they are therefore not valid.

Much disorder having been caused in the town of Greenwood, Steuben county, New York, by an attempt to collect taxes levied to pay certain bonds issued by the town of Greenwood ten or twelve years ago in aid of a railway, and the people having intimidated bidders at the collector's sales, Governor Cornell on Monday issued a proclamation declaring the town in a state of insurrection.

The largest sale of land probably ever made in this country to private individuals was recently completed in Texas. A tract of land in the northeast corner of the State, five times larger than the State of Rhode Island, was transferred to five persons, who have agreed, in consideration therefor, to furnish the money to pay for a new State House for Texas.

A shooting affray took place in the office of the *National Republican*, at Washington, on Thursday, which resulted in the death of A. M. Soteldo, Jr., a well-known newspaper reporter. The city editor of the *Republican* was also shot in two places. The immediate cause of the affray was an article reflecting on Soteldo, which appeared in the *Republican*.

Ko-Kun-Hua, Professor of Chinese at Harvard College, died suddenly from pneumonia on Tuesday. He was a mandarin of high rank and considerable literary distinction, being the author of two volumes of poems, which at the time of his death he was preparing to translate into English.

A despatch was received by the New York *Herald* from Lieutenant Danenhower on Thursday, which stated that De Long's party was "in a narrow wilderness, eighty miles long, devoid of habitation and game." From his further account of the voyage of the *Jeannette*, it seems that the general health of the crew was excellent, no scurvy having appeared during the voyage. The ship drifted in a northeasterly direction, making but forty miles during the first five months, but during the last six months the drift was very rapid. The greatest cold experienced was 58° below zero, and the greatest heat 44° above. The photographic collection and the auroral observations were lost with the ship, but the naturalist's notes were saved. Lieutenant Danenhower gives a short account of the three newly-discovered islands Jeannette, Henrietta, and Bennett.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Gladstone's rules of procedure for the House of Commons are the absorbing topic in political circles in England. There is great opposition to the *clôture*, but it is stated that the Government is determined to stand or fall by the new rules, and it is intimated that in case they are rejected the Government will try to pass some reform bills, and will then dissolve Parliament. The debate on the rules will begin on Thursday next.

Mr. Gladstone's new rules of procedure for the House of Commons are, in brief, as follows: The Speaker shall have authority at any time to "put" the question before the House, but such a proposition must be supported on a division by more than 200 or opposed by less than forty members. No member shall have a right to make more than one dilatory motion in committee of the whole House during the debate on any one question. No member shall move the adjournment of the House before the orders of the day or the motions on the paper have been reached, and provision is made for enabling matters of extreme urgency to be brought before the House without notice and without delay.

The number of occasions on which the principles of a bill may be discussed is limited. When a member is "named" by the Speaker for disregarding his authority or abusing the rules of the House, the Speaker shall propose his suspension, which suspension, if carried, shall on the first occasion be for one week, on the second for a month, and on the third for the remainder of the session. Provision is made for the reference of bills to standing committees, in which case the bills will not be required to be submitted to the committee of the whole House, but discussion and amendment of them will be taken on the report of the standing committee to which they have been referred. The bills referable to these committees, which shall consist of from sixty to eighty members, shall be such as relate to law, trade, shipping, and manufactures. These are the main provisions embodied in Mr. Gladstone's proposed changes in the method of procedure. There are a number of minor rules bearing on technical points, but all with the same end—namely, to facilitate debate and prevent such "filibustering" as was indulged in by the Irish members during the debate in the last session on the Irish Land Bill.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday, in the debate on the address in reply to the Queen's speech, Sir Stafford Northcote accused the Government of allowing matters to "drift" in regard to Egypt, Ireland, and the commercial-treaty negotiations with France. In reply Mr. Gladstone made an eloquent speech, in which he attacked the Land League, eulogized Mr. Forster for his efforts to restore order in Ireland without bloodshed, and upheld the impartiality of the Commissioners under the Land Act, saying that the average of the rent reductions so far was twenty-three per cent. In regard to the Land League's war against property, he said he thought there was every indication that a great conspiracy had been defeated. In the afternoon Mr. Justin McCarthy, on behalf of the Irish members, gave notice of a long amendment to the address, categorically condemning every point in the Government's Irish policy, and urging an immediate return to constitutional methods. On Friday Mr. Forster, in speaking upon this amendment of Mr. McCarthy's, said that the Government had tried the effect of releasing the imprisoned suspects, and pointed to the case of Father Sheehey as an instance of the result of such action. Fair rent, he said, according to Mr. Parnell's views, practically amounted to no rent at all. In conclusion he said that, notwithstanding the signs of improvement in Ireland, the Government would not relax their vigilance.

In the House of Commons on the 14th the address in reply to the speech from the throne was adopted by a vote of eighty-seven to twenty-two, Mr. McCarthy's amendment condemning the Government's Irish policy and urging a return to constitutional methods being rejected by a vote of ninety-eight to thirty.

Lord Granville's despatch of January 7, in reply to Mr. Blaine's despatches in reference to the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, has been published. He denies that any analogy exists between the cases of the Panama and Suez Canals. He also denies that the unexampled development of the Pacific coast was unexpected, and says that the declarations of President Monroe before the treaty was made show that he and his Cabinet had a clear prevision of the great future of that region. The British Government is of the opinion that the canal as a water-way between the two great oceans and Europe and Eastern Asia is a work which concerns not only the American continent, but the whole civilized world. Lord Granville concludes by proposing an invitation to all the maritime states to participate in an agreement based on the stipulation of the convention of 1850. Her Majesty's Government would be prepared to endorse and support such action in any way, provided it does not conflict with the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty. In a subsequent despatch Lord Granville calls attention to the fact that Mr. Blaine, in using the argument that the treaty has been a source of continual difficulties, omits to state that the questions in dispute which related to points occupied by the British in Central America, were removed in 1860 by the voluntary action of Great Britain in certain treaties concluded with Honduras and Nicaragua, the settlement being recognized as perfectly satisfactory by President Buchanan. Lord Granville says, further, that during this controversy America disclaimed any desire to have exclusive control of the canal

In reply to an interpellation on Thursday in Parliament, Mr. Gladstone said that the outrages on the Jews in Russia must fill every one with the utmost pain and horror, but that as the question was an internal one, the British Government could only, when a fit occasion arose, intercede in a friendly manner.

A memorial signed by M. N. M. de Rothschild, on behalf of the Jews of England, addressed to the Emperor of Russia, setting forth the grievances of the Russian Jews and asking that some measures be taken for their protection, which was presented to Prince Lobanoff on the 19th of January, has been made public. Prince Lobanoff declined to transmit the memorial, in accordance with instructions from his Government.

Three hundred Hebrew refugees from Russia sailed from Liverpool on Saturday.

England and France have sent a collective note to the Powers explaining their attitude on the Egyptian question. This note is said to be couched in very amicable terms.

A despatch from Cairo to the London *Daily Times* on Tuesday says that the situation in Egypt continues to be one of expectancy, and that it is feared that the present Ministry will be forced to take decided action in order to hold their own with the army, as there are distinct symptoms of impatience among the soldiery, of which the Chamber is only the mouthpiece.

The British and French Controllers-General have protested to Mahmoud Barodi, the Egyptian Prime Minister, against the terms in which the ministerial programme mentions the European Control. The protest points out that the Control is not a mere agency for collecting the interest on the consolidated debt, but that it is invested with the fullest right to investigate everything connected with the Egyptian revenue.

The Porte has addressed a circular to the Powers stating that it has instructed the Khedive to observe international treaties and maintain order.

The ceremony of the return of the sacred carpet from Mecca was celebrated at Cairo on Sunday in the presence of the Khedive and the Ministers. There was an unusual display of troops and cannon. Arabi Bey, Minister of War, was present during the ceremony, and received special attention from the court and was warmly greeted by the populace.

France is said to be disinclined to reconvene the Monetary Conference on April 1st, and it is reported to be doubtful whether any English representative will be sent to the conference should it reopen.

The disagreement between France and Guatemala, arising from an assault on an attaché of the French legation, has been compromised. Guatemala is to give satisfaction.

New results of the failure of the Union Générale continue to appear in France. The Banque de Macon and the Comptoir Breton have failed. The official liquidator of the Union Générale has gone to Vienna to ascertain the exact relation between the Union Générale and the Vienna Länderbank, particularly whether the capital of both is the same.

In consequence of the prevalence of smallpox in the United States, the authorities at St. Thomas, West Indies, have ordered fourteen days' quarantine on all vessels from the United States.

A despatch from Vienna to the London *Times* on Monday says, in regard to the Herzegovinian revolt, that the coast line has been cleared by combined operations from Castelnuovo and Cattaro. The captured positions are being fortified, and an advance may shortly take place from various sides. In the meanwhile the revolt is increasing, and the revolutionists have established a provisional government. A number of minor engagements have taken place of late, in all of which the insurgents are reported to have been worsted. A fight occurred on the 10th instant near Tirnova, lasting from daybreak until two o'clock in the afternoon. The insurgents fled, leaving twenty dead and carrying away about forty wounded. The Austrians lost five killed and wounded.

It is reported that in order not to offend Russia, Austria has entirely abandoned the plan of partial or temporary occupation of Montenegro. Negotiations, however, are proceeding with Prince Nikita with a view to the passage of Austrian troops across his territory if necessary.

The first sitting of the committee on the bill to amend the ecclesiastical laws was held in Berlin, on Saturday. Herr von Schloezer, who is now at Rome negotiating with the Vatican respecting the present bill, has been furnished with extensive powers. The German Government, while desiring the revision of the May laws, insists that the discretionary powers vested in it shall remain as a basis for legislation on the subject.

The Papal Nuncio has expressed a desire that the Spanish Government should prohibit the proposed pilgrimage to Rome. The Spanish Cabinet, however, is adverse to taking this step, and would prefer that the Vatican should issue directions to the prelates that they alone should undertake the organization of the pilgrimage, in order that it may not have the appearance of a political demonstration.

Berthold Auerbach, the well-known German novelist and poet, died on Wednesday, the 8th. He was perhaps best known from his "Village Tales from the Black Forest," which have been translated into many languages. On the 14th, two Frenchmen of distinction, Henri Auguste Barbier and Louis Joseph Martel, died. The former obtained great popularity as a writer in France by his satirical 'Iambes' written at the time of the Revolution of July. Martel was prominent in public life, being for a short time President of the French Senate, of which he was a life member.

A treaty of peace has been concluded between Chili and Bolivia. The terms are as follows: The two republics mutually agree to consider the war at an end; Bolivia agrees to respect the Chilian right to occupy all the territories now in its hands which formerly belonged to Peru or Bolivia, and in return for this concession Chili undertakes to permit the transit of goods through Arica at moderate rates of import and export duty.

Mr. Trescott was formally received by the Government of Chili on the 14th of January. His speech on delivering his credentials was reassuring in its character, and calculated to remove all belief in the theory, which seems to have been current in Chili, that the United States was meditating conquest in those regions. The President's reply to Mr. Trescott was couched in very friendly terms. The Chilians have been sending expeditions into the interior of Peru, and endeavoring to restore order in those regions. On the seacoast, business is beginning to revive, and hopes are entertained that the pacific features matters are beginning to assume will result in some degree in the restoration of commerce.

A despatch from Panama says that although more activity is being shown in the prosecution of canal work, still nothing has been accomplished at all in proportion to what the public were led to expect would be by this time.

DEMOCRATIC BANKING THEORIES.

SINCE 1879 we have heard but little of the financial vagaries with which politicians used to divert the public mind during the suspension of specie payments. Even the silver agitation, full as it was of queer sayings and doings, fell far short of the resumption agitation in the oddity of the misinformation and misstatements which were poured forth during the ten years before resumption. A long list of the strange things said by Congressmen in debate on this subject was published in the *North American Review* some years ago by Mr. C. F. Adams, Jr., which, when massed together in this way, had much of the raciness, variety and mirth-producing quality of a good comic almanac, and seemed almost incredible to those who do not follow debates in Congress, or only see Congressional fallacies one by one. But, as those who took part in the discussion will remember, the greatest difficulty in getting the better of the inflationists did not lie in their arguments. These were generally easily enough disposed of. Their strongest weapon was their facts, which were by no means easily disposed of, and which had, perhaps, a more powerful influence than anything else in persuading people that a return to specie payments was not desirable. By their facts we do not mean real facts of nature, but baseless assertions disguised as facts, and presented with the calm and confidence with which truthful and accurate men produce real facts.

There is nothing, as we have said, more difficult to contend with, in public discussion, than this is, because the people, to their honor be it said, while ready enough to believe that a public man has been arguing badly, are not ready to suspect him of misstating the more notorious events of recent or contemporaneous history, and it takes a great deal of trouble to convince them of it. The inflationists and silver-men have both largely availed themselves of this popular charity or confidence, and accordingly have never been for one moment at a loss for evidence or precedent in support of any of their proposals. Whenever it has seemed likely that a foreign example or experience would give plausibility to any of their theories they have unhesitatingly compounded, out of their own heads, some very striking corroboration, to which they sometimes assign date and place, but more frequently describe as having taken place "recently," and somewhere in Europe generally. Not long ago, our vivacious friend Mr. Wendell Phillips helped to prove he was right in advocating a currency of permanent, irredeemable Government notes, by declaring that "the best minds of Europe" were coming rapidly round to this pleasing and simple scheme; and of course no gentleman was so impertinent as to ask whose minds they were, and in what particular part of Europe they carried on their processes of reasoning.

Mr. Buckner, of Missouri, has recently saddled himself with the gigantic task of reforming our currency and banking system, and proposes for this purpose to put an end to the issue of bank notes, and substitute Government paper for them, and to allow Congress to fix the amount required by the business of the country. To support his scheme he alleges that an elastic currency is all humbug, or, as he terms it, "a great financial or monetary folly," and that "since 1844 the credit circulation of Great Britain has been fixed in amount by law, and the same policy is adopted practically by Germany." Now, as both these countries, and particularly Great Britain, have had a much longer and more varied experience in dealing with currency problems than we have, Mr. Buckner's statement, if correct, would be very forcible. But it is not correct. It seems, as he utters it, a well-known and generally accepted fact, and it has been produced as such over and over again by Western papers. But it is nothing of the kind. The circulation of the Bank of England is not limited in amount by law. It may be of any amount, provided it is issued against the deposit of a corresponding amount of coin. The Scotch banks are allowed to issue the amount of notes over one pound which they had afloat in 1845, and any amount whatever in addition to that against deposits of coin. The Irish banks work under the same rule. The Government, in fact, leaves the amount of currency in circulation to be determined strictly by the wants of trade, which is the only way in which the amount of currency needed can ever be accurately determined. It does not undertake to supply currency to the people; nor does it allow anybody else to say how much currency the people ought to have. The whole banking machinery of Great Britain, in fact, since the Acts of 1844–5, works strictly under the laws of trade.

The process is, in reality, a very simple one. The world's stock of gold and silver is treated as the only source on which the British trader can rely when he wants more currency, and the banks are simply the medium through which he makes known his need of a larger or smaller supply. He gives notice of his needs by his applications for discount. When these are numerous and pressing, the Bank of England raises its rate, which draws gold from abroad, and when it receives the fresh supply it issues notes against it, or, in other words, issues the gold in a more portable form. It will draw any amount the British trader needs if he can afford to pay enough for the accommodation, and issues notes against every cent of it. When his need is over or diminishes, he signifies it in like manner by failing to apply for discounts and by returning to the Bank its notes, takes out the gold, and exports it, as something for which he has no further occasion. The greater part of this process goes on in the Bank of England, but it goes on also in the prominent banks of Ireland and Scotland; but the Government has nothing to do with it beyond the police duty of seeing that what the banks issue has gold and silver behind it.

It will be easily seen, however, that to the working of this system, or of any currency adapted to the wants of trade, banks are absolutely necessary. It is through them that trade makes known its need of more money, and they are the agents through which it is procured from those parts of the world which are over-supplied. The Government could not perform this function simply as an issuer of paper even against gold coin. It would have to become a banker and open accounts with traders, and discount their bills, because no trader could carry on business if, every time he needed money, he had to go to the Treasury with a bag of gold and carry away a bag of notes. He does not wish to draw the money at all except for export. He wishes it kept where he can get it when he wants it, and can draw it in sums to suit his convenience.

But is any sober-minded man prepared to have the United States Treasury go into the banking business? Does any one suppose for one moment that it would be possible for it, if it did, to create and maintain public confidence in the purity and fairness of its management? And if it does not go into the banking business, how is the country to communicate to it the demands of trade, varying as they do from week to week, and often from hour to hour, as to the volume of the circulation? And how are the demands, when communicated, to be met without the intervention of Congress? Nobody, surely, proposes to revive Mr. Boutwell's plan of empowering the Secretary of the Treasury to let loose a few millions of Government notes whenever he thinks it necessary, and nobody supposes that, even if Congress had the financial knowledge or experience to act as a bank directory, it could act with sufficient promptness. Mr. Buckner says that if we doubt this, "our objection proves too much; we deny our capacity for self-government." But this argument also, if good, proves too much, because the Constitution itself bristles with restrictions on the power of Congress, based on simple disbelief in the fitness of legislators for a great number of apparently simple duties, and belief in their proneness to commit a great number of apparently obvious mistakes. In fact, there is nothing more uncomplimentary in denying the competency of the Legislature to "run" a bank than denying its competency to discharge executive and judicial functions, which denial is one of the glories of our system of government.

THE GENEVA AWARD FARCE.

THE highly successful legislative farce known as "A bill reëstablishing the Court of Commissioners of Alabama Claims, and for the distribution of the unappropriated moneys of the Geneva Award," was announced for repetition on Wednesday by the Chairman of the House Judiciary Committee, Mr. Reed of Maine. The plot of the piece, with which some of our younger readers may be unfamiliar, is as follows:

Many years ago, long before the panic of 1873, or the Chicago fire, or the Granger movement, a war broke out between the United States and the Southern States, and a distant maritime power called England let some of her subjects build war vessels to help the Southern States. These war vessels burned and sank all the ships and cargoes of the United States or drove them off the sea. England said this was all right because she was neutral. The United States said it was wrong because England was neutral, and a great dispute arose as to what neutrality was, and whether it included the duty of preventing such things. All the

lawyers of the United States said it did; but all the English lawyers said it did not, and so there was no way to settle the dispute but to go to war or else to go to law about it. The latter course was resolved upon, because neither country really wished to fight. So a court was appointed by both countries to decide whether England had done her duty as a neutral, and if she had not, to ascertain how much damages she ought to pay.

Meanwhile the United States had told all its citizens who had lost anything by the war vessels to send in their claims to the State Department, and it would make England pay them. And from all quarters the claims came in—claims from people who had lost ships, and claims from people who had lost goods, and claims from insurers who had paid for vessels, and claims from people who said that the war vessels had diminished their profits because it frightened them out of their business, and claims from people who said that they had been forced to pay too much to insure their goods because the war cruisers had frightened the insurers. So the Government took all the claims, and told its lawyers to present them, with any others it could think of, to the court at Geneva. These lawyers were very clever men, and after thinking a good while they came to the conclusion that the Government had a claim itself, because the war vessels had caused the whole country a great deal of trouble, and given it a "bad time" for many years. They thought this was worth several thousands of millions of dollars. The English lawyers of course insisted that none of these claims were good, but they were all presented to the court.

Then the court decided in the first place that England had done wrong in letting four of the cruisers be built, and that England must pay for what they had done, and took up the claims of the insurers and the men who had lost ships and goods by the acts of the four cruisers, and made an award of damages based on them, and excluded all the other claims as being good for nothing. So they made England pay $15,500,000 in hard coin to the United States, and the United States took the money, and Congress said, "Now we will pay it to the claimants, those poor men who have lost so much and suffered so long." For it was now several years since the war. So the insurers and shipowners were much pleased, and clapped their hands for joy. But just then all the other claimants whose claims had been decided by the court at Geneva to be good for nothing came to Washington and demanded to be paid too. What they said was, "Never mind whether our claims have been recognized or not; we are your constituents, and if you don't pay them you shall not be reëlected." But Congress said, "We will pay the shipowners first, and then we will see about the others afterward. There is time enough to pay the insurers, because all insurance companies are rich and make money; and it would not look well to pay illegal claims just now." So the shipowners were paid off, and then there remained some ten million dollars to be distributed, and then Congress every year referred the matter to the judiciary committees, and the judiciary committees sent for the claimants and heard them. They always told the same story, however, so that this got rather tiresome, and the insurance companies began to make a loud noise about "their money," and ask why it was not paid to them, and the illegal claimants to make a loud noise about the insurance companies, and every year half a dozen bills were introduced into Congress—some to pay the insurance claims and some to pay the illegal claims, and some to let the judges decide who ought to be paid.

But at every session Congress adjourned without passing any bill at all, and so at the next session the bills had to be introduced all over again. Finally the Government got impatient, and said: "We can never decide what to do with this money; let us pay some of our own debts with it."

This year the House Committee has brought in a bill to provide for paying the illegal claimants and to prevent any of the remaining legal claims being paid. The insurers, who are the legal claimants, do not like this, and they will have a bill to pay their claims, which will exclude the illegal claims. Then some members of Congress will favor one bill and some the other, and finally neither will be passed, but Congress will adjourn and the curtain fall, and the audience go home and tell all their friends what a funny play it is. Its run has been one of the longest on record.

THE MORAL OF THE PRIZE FIGHT.

Strong expressions of disgust with the late prize fight continue to appear in the newspapers, coupled with lamentations over the keen interest in the affair displayed by men and boys of the working class all over the country. This interest, indeed, appears to have been as strong in Boston as anywhere, and Boston furnished the victorious pugilist. Sullivan was born and brought up in that city, under all the influences provided by the State for the proper education of its youth. We are greatly afraid, too, that diligent searching of the heart would reveal the fact that there were very few Massachusetts men of any class, who paid any attention whatever to the "mill," who were not secretly pleased that, a mill having taken place, a Boston boy should have won the belt from a Tipperary Irishman. If it has no other value, it shows, as the Heenan-Sayers fight was held to show, that the physique of the European race does not decline in this country. Sullivan is doubtless of Irish origin, but he has been exposed long enough to the agencies to which European philosophers like to ascribe the degeneracy of the American man, to make it clear that the degeneracy is easier to talk about than to prove. His victory is one of a great number of facts, which have been accumulated since the war, going to upset the old theories about the injurious influence of the American climate, which, when Cobden was here in 1833, he treated as no longer open to question. For this reason alone more people than care to avow it, took a clandestine satisfaction in the manner in which Heenan hammered Sayers, in 1860. The present writer in fact in that year heard a discussion in which an Episcopal clergyman displayed a warmth in maintaining Heenan's claim to the belt which would have seemed at least adequate in a sporting dry-goods jobber who had given heavy odds on the event.

A prize fight is a beastly spectacle, but then the prize-fighter has to be a fine animal, with much courage and endurance; and all men like a fine animal, and secretly chuckle over his strength and bottom, especially when they can claim any of the credit of him—just as they chuckle over the performances of their own or their country's horses. The encouragement to prize-fighters, which has happily greatly diminished during the last twenty years, does not in fact come wholly from the coarse and uneducated and vicious class. It is fed by secret rills of sympathy which flow from higher sources. The boys and men who hang round the telegraph and newspaper offices waiting for the story of a great "battle" have less shame, and probably less to do, than their neighbors; but they are not alone in their eagerness to know how the affair ended, and in their capacity for satisfaction or dissatisfaction over the result.

This explanation does not, however, cover the whole ground. An observer of the play of public opinion in an Anglo-Saxon country about a prize fight must, if candid, confess that there is in the popular interest in it a survival of the barbarism of which war is the most striking example. We have got so far as to abhor the vendetta and all violent modes of settling private differences, in this showing an immense advance on our ancestors; but in the matter of settling the larger differences of nations, we have made but little progress since the first recorded Olympiad. There is probably no subject to which the powers of the human mind have been so actively, eagerly, and energetically applied during the last 2,500 years as the means of deciding international disputes; but the principal result has been an immense improvement in the methods of destroying life, and the conversion of the happy warrior from a braggart swordsman and javelin hurler like Goliath into a pale and silent student like Moltke. There is still nothing which rouses and interests civilized people as much as war does—nothing which so disturbs their reason and judgment; and there is no field of human activity in which skill, independent of moral qualities or social usefulness, is so highly honored and rewarded. No statesman, however wise or able or useful to his kind, can win in fifty laborious and illustrious years more of public honor and love and gratitude than nations give in ten to the hero of a few successful battles.

This may be melancholy, but it is true, and it in part explains why a mill between "heavy weights" throws all the youth of the country into a state of excitement. It is, on a small scale, a display of that process of deciding things by force of which war is an example on a great scale. The issue is a very petty one, but it is nearly as rational as the question which is so often debated, with great heat, whether Englishmen or Frenchmen, or Englishmen or Americans, make the best soldiers. The British captain of a man-of-war, who welcomed Sayers on board his ship in the Mersey in 1860, and presented him to

his crew as an honored guest, was not mistaken in supposing that a good fighting crew must have Sayers's qualities—pluck, endurance, insensibility to pain and to the sight of blood, and a love of combat *per se*. In short, the extirpation of the prize-fighting mania from our manners will be accomplished by precisely the same process which makes men shrink from settling international differences by mutilating and destroying the bodies of great masses of young men and horses. A few centuries hence, let us hope, "mills" and great battles will be read of with common horror, not unmixed with amusement.

THE RAILROAD DEADHEAD.

THE Iowa Legislature last month directed the Railroad Commissioners of that State to make a report on the following points:

"1. Whether free or reduced rates of fare should be given to any class of citizens except paupers, mendicants, or other proper objects of Christian charity and benevolence.

"2. Whether persons elected to public office by the people, or members of the press, or political conventions of any kind, shall be allowed to accept these favors.

"3. Whether the railroad companies should be restrained from issuing passes to public officers or members of political gatherings or conventions of any kind at reduced rates of fare.

"4. Whether any or what limitation should be placed on these practices by law.

"5. If the Commissioners deem this to be a wholesome and legitimate practice, that they give this body their reasons for such belief."

The Commissioners have now made an exhaustive report, which is very different in character from what was expected by the legislators who brought the matter up. They say in the first place, that paupers and mendicants in Iowa—and the same thing is undoubtedly true elsewhere—are not given free passes or reduced rates, while the only objects of Christian charity and benevolence who are allowed this privilege are clergymen. This practice the Commissioners defend as tending to the spread of religion and morality, and as resting partly on a convenient application of the law of demand and supply to Christianity. They say: "It has been the practice for many years, and we understand ever since the railroad became the main channel for passenger travel, to extend to clergymen preaching or in charge of congregations along the lines of the various roads a certificate that enabled them to purchase tickets at half the usual rate. The preacher is engaged in the certainly laudable employment of teaching good morals and raising the standard of character in the community in which he lives. For this service he is paid by the voluntary contributions of those who respect his spiritual character and are grateful for his instructions. This we do not regard as charity, for he renders an equivalent for all that he receives as fully as laborers in any other profession." Editors, the Commissioners think, should have free passes "as payment for advertising, or such notices of the roads as seem to be an equivalent." With regard to political conventions they declare that the sentiment of the people of the State is in favor of reduced rates because, "under a republican form of government, the best results are attained where two political parties are nearly equally balanced, and where each, to gain or maintain supremacy, finds it necessary to nominate for positions of public trust its ablest and purest men, and advocate measures that each can demonstrate to be for the best interest of the people"; and "one method of keeping up these party organizations is through the instrumentality of political conventions, where men from all parts of the State meet for interchange of views and for general discussion of public policy." They add, what seems a more conclusive argument, that the Legislature has no power to prevent members of the press or delegates to conventions from taking free passes if they can get them.

With regard to elective officers the Commissioners think the case is different. All the executive and legislative officers, judges, district attorneys, and sheriffs in Iowa are, it seems, deadheads. The sheriffs are given passes for somewhat the same reason that clergymen get them. The latter are encouraged to raise the standard of character throughout the State, and the former to lay hands upon those whose standard of character is so low as to make lay treatment of a penal nature necessary. The railroads feel that the more the parson and the sheriff can be encouraged to travel the more safe life and property on their lines will be, and in this of course they have a direct pecuniary interest. On the other hand, the Commissioners do not think that this argument applies to the Governor, judges, or members of the Legislature, and whether the motives of such officers in taking passes are pure or not, they think that "each member of the General Assembly can best determine for himself."

The Commissioners then proceed with great gravity to narrate the story of Ansel Bascom, a once famous legislator of this State, who in the year 1846 was offered a free pass by the president of the Albany and Rochester Railroad. At this time the canal question was "up," as the canal question usually is at Albany, and Mr. Bascom wrote a letter to the president returning the pass, and saying that he went to Albany to represent the people and not the Albany and Rochester Railroad, that it was part of his duty to "watch" that railroad and see that it did no wrong, and that it would be consequently a fraud on the State for him to take the pass. Mr. Bascom's self-denial made him for the time being a public character; but the effect, the Commissioners say, was ephemeral—so ephemeral that they even add that the railway pass is regarded in this State to-day as a legislative "heritage." The Commissioners have evidently not seen the latest contribution to the literature of the subject contained in the letter of District Attorney McKeon, of this city, who recently returned a pass, stating that when he was a member of the Legislature at Albany he not only never took a railroad pass, but invariably waited till the spring thaw broke up the ice, and "came down by the boat," like the noble old Roman that he is.

The Commissioners declare that as an "abstract proposition" the free-pass system is a bad one, but they think that it cannot be dealt with by the Legislature as an abstract proposition. Several States have taken it up as an abstract proposition, with somewhat curious results.

The Pennsylvania Constitution, adopted in 1873, has article 17, section 8, as follows:

"No railroad, railway, or transportation company shall grant free passes or passes at a discount to any person except officers and employees of the company."

The Arkansas Constitution, adopted in 1874, has article 7, section 17, as follows:

"The General Assembly shall prevent by law the granting of free passes by any railroad or transportation company to any officers of the State, legislative, executive, or judicial."

The California Constitution, adopted in 1879, article 11, section 19, says:

"No railroad or other transportation company shall grant free passes or tickets at a discount to any person holding an office of honor, trust, or profit in this State, and the acceptance of any such pass or ticket by a member of the Legislature, or other public officer, *other than Railroad Commissioners*, shall work a forfeiture of his office."

The Board say in conclusion, with great frankness, that they regard the clause in the California Constitution "as the best model for a legislative enactment," and add: "It is said that these constitutional provisions are practically a dead letter in the States above referred to, as are all statutory provisions of this character, but this Board greatly mistakes the temper of the management of the Iowa roads if any legislative enactment of this kind will not be in every case scrupulously complied with."

There seems to be a difference of opinion in Iowa as to whether the reply of the Railroad Commissioners is the result of deep reflection upon this branch of the railroad problem, or whether it is to be regarded as the product of a sarcastic and cynical spirit. The arguments, suggestions, and facts contained in it, however, deserve wide attention as throwing some light on the limits imposed by circumstances upon reform through legislation.

THE PINE SUPPLY OF THE LAKE REGION.

THE publication of Prof. Sargent's Forestry Bulletin of Michigan completes that portion of the series which treats of the important pine forests of the great lakes, and enables us to offer some considerations upon the present condition of these forests, and the influence they exert upon the prosperity of the country.

It is shown that in the three great pine-producing States—Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota—there were standing, according to the carefully-digested estimates of the Census Office, in the spring of 1880, some eighty-two billion (82,010,000,000) feet of merchantable pine. Of this nearly one-half, or forty-one billion feet, are credited to Wisconsin; the two Michigan peninsulas show thirty-five billion feet, and Minnesota but a little more than six billion feet. The pine cut in these three States reached during the census year a total of over seven billion (7,035,507,000) feet. At this rate of destruction these States would be stripped of their pine forests in less than twelve years.

It should be borne in mind, however, that all estimates of standing timber, from the manner in which, from necessity, they must be prepared, are liable to considerable error; and although such estimates usually greatly exaggerate amounts, it is not, perhaps, unreasonable to suppose that many small and scattered bodies of pine, especially in the northern peninsula of Michigan and in northern Minnesota, have escaped the notice of the census experts, and that the published estimates might be safely increased by a few million feet. It is equally safe to suppose that no great bodies of unexplored forest remain within these States, or that, so far as they are concerned, new discoveries will introduce new elements in the calculations of the lumber supply of the country. The most northern and the most inaccessible wilds of these forests have now been explored; their limits are faithfully mapped, and the uncertainty which has so long existed in regard to their extent and richness has disappeared before scientific methods of investigation.

The Bulletins show, then, that at the present rate of production twelve years will exhaust the pine supply of these States. But is it probable that the rate of production will not increase with the growth of the country? According to the returns of the Ninth Census, 3,912,199,000 feet of lumber were manufactured in 1870 in Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota. These figures represent the total production, and include a

small amount of hard wood. The total production during the last census year, including also hard wood, reaches 7,145,969,000 feet, or an increase of eighty-three per cent. of production in 1880 over 1870. Something, probably 10 per cent. of this apparent increase, should be credited to the better methods of the Tenth Census, and its greater success in collecting the statistics of manufactures. On the other hand, 1870 was a year of great prosperity and excessive production, while in 1880 the lumber industry had not yet fully recovered from the commercial prostration of the preceding years.

An increase of consumption of eighty-three per cent. in ten years, or even of seventy per cent. (which is probably nearer the correct figure), is alarming. Nevertheless, the rate at which these forests will disappear will, we believe, be much greater in the near future. The almost entire exhaustion of the pine supply of Maine, New York, and Pennsylvania; the greater facilities which the improvement of the rivers, and the general introduction of short logging railroads and tramways, afford for getting out logs from regions which ten years ago were still either entirely unknown or considered so remote as to be beyond the reach of profitable markets, indicate that, rapid as has been the removal of these forests, the rate of future destruction must be much greater. It is probable that the annual production of pine lumber in these three States will increase considerably during the next five, or perhaps eight, years, and that it will then cease suddenly, and almost entirely. We do not wish to be understood to prophesy that at the end of eight years no more pine lumber will be manufactured in Michigan, Wisconsin, or Minnesota. Pine in small quantities will continue to grow in these States, and pine lumber will probably be manufactured there always. What we intend to say is, that at the end of eight, or perhaps ten, years the pine forests of these States will have been so nearly exhausted that their production will have ceased to be of any national importance, and will not be available for more than mere local supply.

No steps have ever been taken to preserve or perpetuate these forests. Their destruction has been wanton, short-sighted, and stupid. The goose which has laid so many golden eggs, and has built up cities and fleets and great traffic lines, is dying. There can be no future for much of the immense region from which these pine forests have been removed, and it must remain a desert until generations of humbler plants shall have made another crop of pine upon it possible. Nature is slow to forgive any infringement of her laws, and the great-grandchildren of the men who have destroyed these forests will not live to see the shores of the great lakes covered again with pine forests fit for the axe. A wiser policy and a different management might have secured permanent supply with greater, or as great, individual profit. The northwestern lumberman in his march to the north has made a clean sweep before him. If any tree escaped his rapacity, the fires, which have everywhere followed in his wake, destroyed it, and destroyed, too, the ability of the soil to produce pines again. Had he selected only trees of a standard size to cut, leaving all young trees to grow up and sufficient old trees to furnish the ground with seed for new crops; had he excluded fire from the partially-cut woods, these pine forests might have been preserved indefinitely, and been made to yield crop after crop, and far greater aggregate returns than have now been obtained from them.

The destruction of these forests will drive the men and the capital now engaged in working them to seek new fields of industry, and the failure of the lumber supply in these States must seriously affect the prosperity of Chicago and other points of distribution, as well as many transportation companies depending in whole or in part on the movement of lumber for their traffic. Chicago is now the greatest lumber centre the world has ever seen. More than one billion eight hundred million feet of sawed lumber entered it by rail and lake during 1881. Its shipments reach the Atlantic and to beyond the Rocky Mountains. The Chicago Lumber Exchange regulates the lumber trade of the country. In lumber Chicago is king; but its reign is almost over. Its immense lumberyards will soon be empty, and with the pine forests of the lakes will disappear the commercial advantages which its central position in relation to these forests has given to it as their chief point of distribution.

No city of the United States can ever hope to rival Chicago in the volume of its present lumber business. New Orleans or San Francisco will probably become the successful competitor in the race for second place. Both are the natural outlets for vast forests of great commercial importance, and both are conveniently situated for a great foreign and domestic lumber trade. The information, however, which Prof. Sargent has no doubt succeeded in obtaining in regard to the extent and character of the forests of the Gulf and the Pacific has only been partially published, and we must therefore defer any further predictions upon the future of the lumber industry of the country until the completion of his series of Forestry Bulletins shall have furnished us with the facts necessary to consider this subject intelligently.

THE PAST YEAR IN EGYPTOLOGY.

CAIRO, January 16, 1882.

THE past year will ever be memorable for the valuable and remarkable discoveries that it has yielded to Egyptology. M. Maspero has just published his official report of the great find of royal mummies at Thebes. The narrative is enlivened by numerous photographs, among which are those of the mummies of Thutmes III. and Ramses II.—the grand old monarchs whose titles are inscribed on the Central Park obelisk. The texts of the interiors of the pyramids of the V. and VI. Dynasties, opened at Sakkara last spring and summer, are also appearing in rapid succession in M. Maspero's 'Recueil,' published at Paris. Besides these discoveries, concerning which accounts have already appeared in your columns, three additional discoveries have been recently made which do not deserve to be passed by in silence.

In the desert five miles west of Kom-el-Hamadra—a village on the western border of the Delta, and midway between Cairo and Alexandria—the Bedaween unearthed a large stone which they described as "taller than a man, and covered with fine writing." Herr Emil Brugsch, the Conservator of the Boolak Museum, and brother of Dr. Brugsch Pasha, proceeded at once to the spot and found the stone to be a stela, or tablet, used by the Egyptians to record decrees and epitaphs. This newly-discovered monument is inscribed with tri-lingual texts which prove to be copies of the Decree of the Synod of Priests assembled at Canopus, ordaining the deification of Berenice, the daughter of Ptolemy Euergetes, and creating a fifth order of priests to be called Euergetæ. The decree is dated the 17th of the month of Tybi, of the ninth year of Ptolemy Euergetes (B. C. 238), and is consequently nearly a century older than the famous Rosetta Stone. Another copy of this same decree of Canopus is inscribed upon the stone of Sân or Tanis, in the Boolak Museum, of which the British Museum possesses a cast.

To appreciate the interest that attaches to this new find, it may be well to recall the fact that in 1819–22 it was the tri-lingual Rosetta Stone that yielded to the researches of Young and Champollion the key to the language of ancient Egypt, and thus became, as Mariette says, "the instrument of one of the greatest discoveries that do honor to the nineteenth century." Not, however, until Lepsius and Mariette, in 1865–6, brought to light the Greek, hieroglyphic, and demotic texts of the Canopic Decree engraved upon the Stone of Sân, was the accuracy of Champollion's mode of interpreting hieroglyphics confirmed, and the study of Egyptology placed on sure and solid grounds. The Stone of Kom-el-Hamadra—as, judging from analogy, I suppose this stela will henceforth be called—bears the same decree as that of Sân, except that the texts, inscriptions, and representations are very much fuller and detailed than are those of the latter. The stela is a splendid piece of workmanship: it is of limestone and measures eight feet high by three feet wide and two and a half feet thick. The top is rounded, and represents the winged disk, and pendent *urœi* serpents, together with the upper and lower portions of the crown *pshent*. Below the *urœi* serpents there are some twelve lines of hieroglyphs, and representations of Ptolemy Euergetes, his queen, and his daughter Berenice, the "Queen of Virgins." Then follows the decree in Greek, hieroglyphic, and demotic. This stela has already been placed in the Boolak Museum, which, with the additions of the past year, is now quite as rich in monuments, tablets, mortuary relics, and writings—barring historical papyri—as are the combined collections of Europe. This is as it should be, for Egyptian relics have an artistic value here, which they lose in the uncongenial climate and surrounding of Europe and America.

The second discovery that I have to announce is that of two tombs of the VI. Dynasty, which present the earliest known instances of the *arch*. These tombs are of private persons of high rank. They were discovered near the most southerly group of Sakkara pyramids, and within a stone's throw of the prominent truncated pyramid of King Unas, known as the Mastaba-el-Pharaoon. It should be remembered that in the interior of the Pyramid of Mycerinus of the IV. Dynasty—the smallest of the three great Pyramids of Ghizeh—there is a passageway the top of which, although *resembling* an arch, is not constructed on the principle of an arch—that is to say, blocks were placed horizontally, one projecting beyond that immediately below it, till the uppermost two met in the centre; the interior angles being afterward rounded off to form the vault. Several instances of these pseudo-arches are known to exist in tombs of the VI. and later Dynasties, but no true arch had hitherto been found previous to those in the tombs of the XVIII., XIX., and XX. Dynasties, near Thebes. The arches in the two recently-discovered tombs of the VI. Dynasty are built over the entrances. They have ornamented keystones, and are beautifully constructed of fine bricks.

The third discovery to which I have referred is that of the long-sought-for entrance to the Pyramid of Maydoom—a pyramid which will probably turn out to be at least a century older than the Great Pyramid of Cheops, and hence the oldest known monument in Egypt. This pyramid, situate some fifteen miles to the south of Ghizeh, is one of the most striking landmarks on the Nile. From a distance it seems to stand on the top of a hillock; a nearer view shows this hillock to be formed by the crumbling away of the outer casing of the pyramid itself. It is

called by the Arabs "el Haram el Katdab" (the false pyramid), for they suppose it to be formed of the rock itself. Its general appearance has been described by Miss Amelia Edwards as "an unfinished Tower of Babel." The Pyramid of Maydoom is doubtless the most carefully constructed and altogether the best-built pyramid in Egypt. About fifty years ago Ibrahim Pasha, wishing to effect an entrance, thundered away at it for a whole day with artillery. He neither attained his object, nor did the pyramid itself suffer much material injury. A few weeks ago Maspero's workmen, after a long and careful search, removed the massive blocks which had so long concealed a small opening, that soon proved to be the much-coveted entrance. This aperture was discovered on the northern face of the pyramid, and at a considerable distance from the base. The corridor leading from the entrance toward the interior has been cleared for a distance of forty-five metres. This corridor is similarly disposed, and is constructed in the same manner, as that of the Pyramid of Cheops. The entrance to the central chamber is effectually blocked up by the falling of the roof of the corridor. The workmen are, however, busily engaged in clearing away the débris—a task both difficult and perilous, which may require one or perhaps two months. The only texts thus far found in the corridor are the inscriptions of two Scribes who visited the interior of the pyramid in the time of the XV. Dynasty. Recently discovered collateral evidence tends to strengthen the hypothesis that this pyramid is that of King Snefroo, of the III. Dynasty, who reigned, according to Brugsch, B. C. 3766, or, according to Mariette, B. C. 4200. The picks of the Arab workmen will, however, soon determine the question.

Discoveries of the startling and dramatic nature of those of the carefully preserved Royal Mummies, and the opening of long-closed pyramids and tombs, are perhaps overshadowed, as far as pure scientific value is concerned, by a new region in Egyptology recently opened by the successful exertions of Dr. Brugsch Pasha and M. Revillout. These two savants have made a specialty of the demotic writing of Egypt—a writing so intricate and confused as to be unintelligible to some of the keenest Egyptologists. The hieratic writing, used almost exclusively by the priests, is to the hieroglyphic what the handwriting of the present day is to print. The demotic is a very much abbreviated form of the hieratic, and stands in about the same relation to the hieroglyphic that our shorthand does to the page of a printed book. Moreover, the demotic, being written in the hurry of every-day business, actually presents a penmanship so cramped and careless as to add almost insurmountable obstacles to the already difficult task of deciphering it.

The demotic came into use during the XXVI. Dynasty, and being used for ordinary business and legal transactions, its literature gives an insight into the laws, social state, customs, and manners of the Egyptians that is not to be hoped for from the scholarly and monumental styles of the hieratic and the hieroglyphic. An excellent account of the nature of the treasures which demotic scholarship has in store for us, appeared in a recent number of the London *Times*. It seems that no less than several thousand demotic papyri are preserved in the collections of London, Paris, Berlin, Leyden, and Turin. These documents, mostly of a legal character, are no longer a *terra incognita*, but furnish a solid basis for the study of the law in its earliest development. The demotic papyri provide us with deeds of sale, of transfer, of gift, of partnership, of endowment; leases of houses and lands; mortgages, bonds, receipts for taxes and other payments, marriage settlements, marriage contracts, decrees of divorce, title-deeds, inventories, etc.

The progress in the interpretation of demotic literature strikingly recalls the truth of Bunsen's prediction, that "Henceforth the positive philosophy of universal history, constructing and delineating the curve described by the Divine mind in man through space and time upon this star which we call the earth, . . . cannot be carried on scientifically and successfully without the assistance of Egyptology." The effect which these demotic papyri are destined to have upon our present ideas of ancient law and legal institutions remains yet to be seen. It is too much to expect that Egyptologists shall also be legists; but the moment has now come for the jurist to work hand in hand with the Egyptologist, to utilize the material that science has placed at his disposal, and at length to trace the history of the law throughout that logical and natural course which has been both widened and deepened by Egyptology. B.

Correspondence.

THE REVOLT IN DALMATIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Within the last two or three weeks the newspapers on both sides of the ocean have begun to contain a good deal of news from the eastern side of the Hadriatic. For many months past events have been going on there which have been fully chronicled in the Manchester *Guardian*, and less fully in the *Pall Mall Gazette*, but which seemed to draw to themselves no notice in any other quarter, British or American. This is not very wonderful. Dalmatia is a good way from Britain, and further still from America, and many people have doubtless become tired of anything to do with "the eternal Eastern Question." But more than this, it has throughout been the interest of powerful personages to hinder this piece of present history from being known. Few newspapers, British or American, have any direct and constant communication with Dalmatia, and information from Vienna is worse than no information. It is the story of the lamb as told by the wolf. In England most people take their knowledge of such things from the *Times*, and the Vienna correspondent of the *Times* is well known as one of the bitterest and most unscrupulous enemies of the Southeastern nations. No people in the world have smaller means of making their wrongs known than the South-Slavonic people who are under the Austrian yoke. It is simple ignorance of their case which hinders them from receiving the full sympathy of all lovers of right in both hemispheres. Liberal Europe and America rejoiced at the deliverance of Lombardy and Venetia from the rule of Francis Joseph. But then Liberal Europe and America knew something about Lombardy and Venetia. Southern Dalmatia, Herzegovina, and Bosnia are now in arms against the same foreign oppressor from whom Lombardy and Venetia have been set free. Their cause is the same; their right to the good wishes of freemen is the same. No nobler struggle for right was ever waged on European or American soil than that which is now being waged among the hills by the Mouths of Cattaro. It is the struggle of a few brave men to guard the rights and homes of their fathers against, not indeed the bloodiest, but certainly the meanest and pettiest tyranny to which an unwilling people ever had to bow its head.

There used to be a proverb among schoolboys about "hitting one of your own size." At Solferino and at Königgrätz Francis Joseph tried hitting those of his own size, and he found that those of his own size hit rather too hard for him. Since then he has tried hitting those who are not of his own size, and at that game he has got on better. It is easier to bully Servia and Roumania than to fight France and Prussia. It was easier still for one of the great powers, with the other great powers to back him, to filch from Montenegro a little haven which Montenegrin valor had won from the barbarian and in which not one of his grandmothers had ever reigned. He seemingly thinks it easiest of all to force, in direct breach of his imperial, royal, and apostolic word, a hated burthen on men whom a very modern usurpation has unhappily constrained to be his subjects.

I speak of Francis Joseph personally, because every one who knows the Southeastern lands knows that the boasted constitutional monarchy of "Austria-Hungary" is a mere sham as far as those lands are concerned which are neither Austria nor Hungary, but in which the common sovereign of Austria and Hungary rules as a foreign intruder. There is no constitutional government in Dalmatia, any more than there is in Russia—or rather, there is a great deal less. For the people of Russia can bring a great indirect influence to bear on the policy of their national prince, whose interests are the same as theirs; the people of Dalmatia can bring no influence whatever to bear on the policy of a foreign ruler, whose interests are the opposite to theirs. The only kind of moral or immoral influence which that foreign ruler can exercise in the subject land is to try to play the Italian and the Slavonic elements in the land against one another. Beyond that there is simply the rule of the sword—suppression of newspapers, suppression of municipal corporations—all the usual tricks of foreign tyranny. With all this there is no reason to charge the Austrian people, or even the visible Austrian Ministry. It is all the doing of the irresponsible prince and his irresponsible advisers.

Let me shortly run through the history of these lands as far as concerns present events. In the last century Dalmatia was very unequally divided between the two commonwealths of Venice and Ragusa. The Ragusan territory came in the middle, leaving Venetian territory to the northwest and to the southeast. The Ragusan dominion, though oligarchic in constitution, was native, and not oppressive. The Venetian rule was foreign, better and worse in different times and places, but one which at least kept out something worse in the shape of the Turk. Many towns and districts willingly accepted it. Among these were some of the districts near Cattaro, which commended themselves to Venice on condition that their old rights and customs should be observed, and that, if at any time the Republic should be unable to protect them, she should leave them to themselves, and not cede them to any other power. On these terms, which seem to have been well observed, the men of the *Bocche* remained Venetian subjects till the fall of Venice in 1797. Then the two spoilers, the French and the Austrian, divided the prey, and all Dalmatia, including the privileged districts, fell to the share of the Austrian; that is, the people of the Mouths of Cattaro were, in defiance of their old rights and of old treaties, forcibly handed over to a new foreign master. Next the spoilers quarrelled. In 1805 the Austrian ceded his supposed rights over Dalmatia to France, in the person of the elder Buonaparte. Part of Austrian Dalmatia was occupied, and in 1808 Buonaparte, without any provocation, suppressed the commonwealth of Ragusa and annexed its territory. Between 1810 and 1814 various points were occupied by England—England, Russia, and Montenegro being allies against France. In 1813 the French were driven

out of Cattaro, which became the Montenegrin capital; the mountain principality now again reached to the sea from which Turk and Venetian had so long shut it out. Meanwhile the people of the privileged districts freely united themselves to Montenegro, according to their old rights. It must be remembered that the Slavonic people of Southern Dalmatia, of Herzegovina, and of Montenegro are simply the same people in every sense, parted asunder only by arbitrary political divisions. Montenegro simply means that extent of territory, more or less at different times, which has been able to preserve its independence. At this time, as the ally of England and Russia, the independent land was greatly enlarged. France was driven out; Austria stood by and did nothing; the men of the Bocche—the Mouths of Cattaro—were, by their own act, restored to the rule of their national prince and to full fellowship with their own people.

After the fall of Buonaparte, at the peace of 1814–1815, it might have been expected that the commonwealth of Ragusa, arbitrarily suppressed by him, would have been restored, and that at least those parts of Dalmatia which had voluntarily joined themselves to Montenegro would have been allowed to keep the freedom which they had won. But Francis of Austria—the man who had been the last Roman Emperor and German King, and who devised the new-fangled and grotesque title of "Emperor of Austria"—had the face to ask that all should be handed over to him. Cattaro he could not keep; Ragusa had never been his for a moment. But he had the imperial, royal, and apostolic shamelessness to ask for both; and England and Russia were base enough to let him have what he asked. They betrayed their mountain ally; the newly-won freedom of the Bocche was overthrown, and its people, so lately delivered, were again thrust under the foreign yoke. Montenegro had to give up her recovered sea-coast and her new capital of Cattaro. Ragusa, instead of the restoration of her republic, had to exchange one foreign master for another. The Austrian, in short, took all that French, English, Russians, and Montenegrins had been fighting for. He went off rich with his own former stealings of 1797, and with his son-in-law's stealings of 1808 besides. He did, however, at the request of Alexander of Russia, promise to the men of the Bocche that he would observe their old privileges which Venice had respected. The chief of these was exemption from the Austrian (so-called) *Landwehr*. The mere name should not mislead any one. To a German, *Landwehr* means military service in defence of his own land at the bidding of a national government. To the South-Dalmatian subject of Austria it means military service at the bidding of a foreign intruder, who may likely enough bid him march against his own people. For to him the free people of Montenegro are his own people; their prince is his national prince; Francis Joseph, his self-styled King and Emperor, is merely a foreign usurper, holding his land in bondage by brute force. That is to say, the Dalmatian feels in 1882 as the Venetian felt in 1865, and the Lombard in 1858.

It will be remembered that in 1849 Francis Joseph gained possession of the kingdom of Hungary by Russian and Croat help, and that, after eighteen years' rule as tyrant, he became its lawful King in 1867. From that time dates the so-called *dualism* of Austria and Hungary. This practically means the joint supremacy—the *condominium* one might almost say—of the German and Magyar minorities over the Slavonic majority in the various kingdoms, duchies, etc., which make up the family estate of the House of Lorraine. Francis Joseph, kept on his throne by the help of Slavonic swords, holding all that he has by the grace of Nicolas of Russia and Jellachich of Croatia, has now and then found himself in a singular relation toward his own instruments. He has had before now to seek his tools for his enterprises against the freedom of other nations among the men whose blood he once sought when they were defending the freedom of their own nation. Driven out of Italy, but now firm on his Hungarian throne, Francis Joseph now stretched forth his hands to vex certain of the race to whom he owed it that he had a crown on his head or a shirt to his back. The first act came in 1869, in the shape of an attempt to set aside the chartered rights of the men of the Bocche by forcing the hated *Landwehr* upon them. The attempt was in vain; the brave Dalmatians took to arms and utterly routed the troops which the foreign oppressor sent to bring them under the yoke. I have seen in Dalmatian houses pictures of scenes in this struggle. The defenders of freedom are seen hurling the invaders down their heights with a good will. Never, not at Marathon or at Morgarten, did men wage a nobler or a more successful struggle for right. The foreign lord of Dalmatia had to knock under to the Dalmatian people; the scheme of forcing the *Landwehr* on the men of the Bocche was given up for eleven years. But it was convenient to hush up the overthrow alike of the imperial, royal, and apostolic policy, and of the imperial, royal, and apostolic armies. Solferino and Königgrätz could not be hidden; defeats among the Dalmatian mountains could be. I find that the best informed men both in Britain and America never heard of the Dalmatian war of 1869. But, small as the scale was, freedom assuredly never won a nobler victory.

In 1875 Francis Joseph paid Dalmatia the memorable visit which undoubtedly led to the Slavonic revolt in Herzegovina, and to all that has since happened in southeastern Europe. The visit was understood as a visit of reconciliation, and Francis Joseph was well received in his character of King of Dalmatia and Lord of Cattaro. A noble future was at that moment open to him: he might have put himself at the head of the Slavonic cause—that is, he might have put himself at the head of the great majority of his subjects. At their head he might have done all that Russia did, and more also, without calling forth anything like the jealousy that Russia called forth. For a while his policy was distinctly favorable to Southeastern freedom. When I was first in Dalmatia, in the autumn of 1875, the patriots of Herzegovina, who had just risen against the Turk, were receiving effective Austrian support in every shape short of actual military help. But the King of Hungary and Archduke of Austria could not go on in the course which might have suited the King of Croatia, Slavonia, and Dalmatia. Help given to Slaves was not agreeable to Magyars; and the imperial, royal, and apostolic policy turned about. The patriots were discouraged in every way; the patriot leader Liubibratich was basely kidnapped and kept a prisoner. But no active steps were taken; the policy of the House of Lorraine was, just as it was sixty years before, to stay quiet while others acted, in the hope of thereout sucking no small advantage in the long run.

The Psalmist speaks of certain oppressors of old who lay waiting secretly in their dens that they might ravish the poor. This picture exactly sets forth the policy of the Apostolic King. There is nothing of the *pecca fortiter* about him. He has not pluck for burglary or highway robbery; but he can put his hand into the pocket of his poor neighbour and filch from him his hard-won halfpenny. In the war of 1876–1877 Montenegro won back a seaboard; the men of the mountains won three havens from the Turk—Spizza, Antivari, and Dulcigno. Of these, Spizza and Dulcigno, though small, were possessions worth having, for so small a state as Montenegro; Antivari had been utterly ruined in the siege—ruined mainly through false promises of Austrian help to its defenders. At the Congress of Berlin in 1878 Francis Joseph, like his predecessor, who asked for Ragusa and Cattaro and got them, asked for Spizza, and got it. No demand could be more shameless. He had not the slightest shadow of claim to Spizza; the rich man wanted the poor man's ewe lamb, and that was all. It was the kind of deed the unrighteousness of which is almost outshadowed by its pettiness. Dulcigno, too, was given back to the Turk. It was only Antivari, because Antivari had been carefully made worthless, which Montenegro was allowed to keep, and that only on insulting conditions. As far as Dulcigno is concerned, the cruel wrong done to the men of the Black Mountain has been since redressed by the energy and patience of Mr. Gladstone; but Spizza, perhaps the very smallest stealing to which a crowned head ever stooped, remains part of the family estate of Francis Joseph.

The same treaty of Berlin also handed over to Francis Joseph the "administration" of Bosnia and Herzegovina without any formal cession of those lands by the Sultan. That is to say, the Apostolic King, like some of his predecessors, became the man of the Turk. The annexation was not acceptable to either the Mussulman or the Christian inhabitants of those lands; for both are South-Slavonic, and every man of South-Slavonic blood had by that time taken the measure of Francis Joseph. The provinces to be "administered" were won by the apostolic middle-man of the Turk, but only after a gallant resistance, chiefly from the Mussulman inhabitants, but with some Christian help. Those lands have since been "administered" after a fashion which has united the whole people, of whatever creed, in a common loathing of the foreign dominion. Which form of tyranny, Turkish or Austrian, is the worse is perhaps a matter of taste. The Turk robs, murders, ravishes, when the fit is upon him; but the fit is not always upon him, and in the intervals he leaves his victims alone. The Austrian never has the same outrageous fits as the Turk; but then he never leaves his victims alone for a moment. Every hour of their lives they are worried about some small matter or other. Their national feelings are insulted by all those petty follies which bring no profit to the ruler, while they call forth the hatred of the subject even more strongly than deeper wrongs. At last the *Landwehr* was to be forced upon Bosnia and Herzegovina. That was too much for either Christian or Mussulman endurance; and a large part of Herzegovina and Bosnia is in arms against the stranger.

So in Dalmatia. The defeat of the attempt in 1869 had a wholesome effect for a while, as was shown by the conciliatory visit of 1875. But the events of 1878 gave Francis Joseph a great advantage, in case he should ever dream of a new attack on the rights which he was for a time compelled to respect. Up to that year Montenegro, Herzegovina, and the Bocche, inhabited by one people in every sense of the word, were under three distinct rulers. But whenever any one of the three had any fighting to do, whether against Turk, Gaul, or Austrian, the other two always came to help. After 1878 this could not be so easily done. Francis Joseph had got a great military advantage from his joint possession of Herzegovina and Dalmatia. He had got a great political advantage from the European recognition of Montenegro. Prince Nicolas is now diplomatically bound to keep his people—

if he can—from helping their enslaved brethren. Last year therefore, Francis Joseph thought that the time was come for a second attempt on the liberties which he had engaged to respect. The *Landwehr*, he thought, could now be forced on those who had successfully resisted his agression in 1869. When I was last in Dalmatia, in June, 1881, the storm was beginning. The hateful burthen was being pressed on the lowland districts; the men of the mountains had made up their minds to resist, as they had done eleven years before. At Manchester every detail has been all the while known in full. The rest of the world seems for many months to have taken no notice. Now every paper tells of the details of actual warfare.

What may come of all this none can tell. The odds are fearfully on the side of evil; but a good cause, inaccessible heights, Crivoscian valor, and Austrian stupidity, are four powerful influences on the side of right. Movements on behalf of freedom which looked much more promising have before now been crushed; but movements which looked quite as hopeless have before now succeeded. The movement of 1875 seemed quite as hopeless, and it has changed the whole map of southeastern Europe; the movement of 1881 *may* be destined to put an end to the ugly and upstart imposture which calls itself the "Austrian Empire."

Meanwhile Austrian brags, Austrian predictions, Austrian statements of any kind, go for nothing. The other day, Montenegro was to be "occupied." A pretty hard game that for the hired and kidnapped bondsmen of Francis Joseph, as any one will say who has seen the freemen of Tzernagora on their own heights. But it is a most hopeful sign, if the telegram be true which announced a few days back that thirty-five soldiers of a Dalmatian regiment had left the service of their foreign oppressor and had joined themselves to the defenders of their country. All honor to men who could thus trample under foot the base traditions of their trade, and could prefer clean patriotic duty to the bloody spectre called "military honor." With such men for ensamples, what can be the feelings of a man like Jovanovich, himself a Slave, but who is not ashamed to take the pay of the stranger again his own people? On this side of the ocean, one is inclined to ask whether he knows the history of Governor Trumbull of Connecticut. The original "Brother Jonathan" would not be a bad model at this moment for a Governor of Dalmatia, or of any Slavonic land under the "dual" yoke of Budapest-cum-Vienna.—I am, sir, your obedient servant,

EDWARD A. FREEMAN.

NEW YORK, Feb. 7, 1882.

HOOSIER BIBLIOGRAPHY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If there is to be a bibliography of bibliographies, your note of last week contributes certainly a curious instance toward the material for such a work. But I beg that the future compiler of that work may not overlook the 'Catalogue of the Indiana State Library for the year 1859,' which has long been my wonder and admiration. So far is it from attempting the complexity of the *catalogue raisonné*, that its rigorous alphabeticism sets down 'A Manchester Strike' between 'Agriculture' and 'American.' It invites us to such *tours de force* as the 'Autobiography of Sir Simonds D'Ewes, by Halliwell,' and the 'Autobiography of Sir Walter Scott, by Bart.' 'Bank's History of the Popes' appears under the letter B. Strong in the historical department, it offers a choice between the 'Life of John Tyler, by Harper & Brothers,' 'Memoirs of Moses Henderson, by Jewish Philosophers,' 'Memoirs and Correspondence of Viscount Castlereach, by the Marquis of Londonderry,' and 'Memoirs of Benvenuto, by Gellini.' In fiction, you may find 'Tales of my Lanlord, by Cleishbotham,' and 'The Pilot, by the Auditor of the Pioneers'; while, if your passion for plural authorship is otherwise unappeasable—if Beaumont and Fletcher or Erckmann-Chatrian seem to you too feeble a combination of talents—you may well be captivated by the title 'Small Arms, by the United States Army.'

The State of Indiana has undoubtedly learned a good many things since 1859; but, whoever its present librarian may be, it is hardly probable that his highest flight in bibliography has surpassed the catalogue from which I have quoted.

T. B.

ROCHESTER, Feb. 6, 1882.

COLLEGE DISCIPLINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was on the point of mailing a fuller discussion of this subject, when your last issue appeared with the interesting letter from "L. N. D.," stating some facts of which my letter would only be a repetition. Knowing your space is valuable, I shall therefore embody my thoughts in a few short propositions:

1. It seems to me that three stages in a course of education are sufficient. These stages may be named the school, the college, and the university. As it now is, many of our so-called universities are merely schools, while some of our colleges are becoming universities. The cause of this confusion of terms, and of the unsettled state of discipline, is no doubt chiefly found in the constant change and growth of the larger Eastern colleges, and their ambition to hold the chief rank and place among our institutions of learning. This, as the writer from Louisville shows, has led the college into difficulties and inconsistencies in discipline, as well as other things.

2. The name *university* ought to represent an institution where not rudiments but sciences are taught by specialists, and where the learners are responsible young men who have chosen one or more of these sciences for a life-work. Here should be not only *Lernfreheit*, but *Lehrfreiheit*. This alone can promote the best interests both of the ambitious student and the worthy professor. The laggards among both will be left behind. The opposite system is a premium on idleness and a support of dullards.

3. The college should terminate the general preparatory culture of boys or youths, which, where early advantages have not been wanting, ought to be completed at the age of from eighteen to twenty. It should be an institution for training the mind and disciplining the character, and should not aim to be an institution of learning, in the broad sense of the term. Its teachers should be men of character and manhood rather than profundity of knowledge, good drill-masters rather than deep investigators. They should be able to impart rather than discover truth. The teacher's personal interest in the student should not be diverted by ambition for renown as a scholar, nor the efficiency of his teaching encumbered by large numbers of students. A college in this sense is not only not benefited by, but is inconsistent with large numbers. Its success cannot, and its reputation should not, be dependent on vast libraries and collections, costly apparatus, and thick catalogues. Love of bigness may be pardonable in the dry-goods trade, steamships, and hotels, but not in the training-school for young minds and growing characters. These things should belong to the universities. Here numbers will be a source of inspiration both to teacher and learner; here complete equipments in every direction will be an aid to free investigation, and not merely a stimulus to vanity.

4. It has been well said that life is too short to spend all the time from childhood to the age of twenty-five or thirty in preparation for a life-work, no matter how exalted or important its nature may be. Preparation too protracted is pernicious (perhaps the "alliteration" here may attract the notice of "A Father"). The "upper story" of a profession is only reached after long years of faithful, plodding practice, and these, under a sense of responsibility to self and to others, constitute the essential preparation for success. If young men are kept in preparatory training-schools, and not allowed to assume the responsibilities of manhood till the blood is chilled and the ambition dampened, the "thoroughness" of preparation defeats its own ends.

5. Instead of decrying the smaller colleges as intruders, I would predict that they will win the day in the end, if they are not led by the false examples of the East to keep adding to their requirements for admission and the "breadth of their curriculum," and wasting their means in showy buildings and in printing advertisements, circulars, and catalogues. If the race for "bigness" and "breadth" continues as it has commenced, the American college will ultimately be left out in the cold. The young men will go from the high school or the academy to the university, and the college will become an aristocratic and leisurely school of "culture" for wealthy young men who have not the patience for discipline or the ambition for action.

The great Eastern colleges have rendered the country eminent practical services, and merit our gratitude and admiration, but they are now fit subjects for conversion. Let them become universities pure and simple, and no longer attempt the impossible task of governing, drilling, and disciplining mature young men with methods suitable for boys, and in classes numbering over a hundred. Such an attempt can be neither "safe" nor successful. The methods and appliances of the university should aim to produce eminent professors rather than successful students. For in free and emulous action the successful professor will lead the ambitious student along without being hampered by him.

These things are not said in a spirit of dogmatic assurance, but from a long-growing conviction. It is not a voice from one of the "feeble Western colleges," but from an individual connected with one which aims with more success than wisdom to equal the Eastern college in "breadth of learning," and with both wisdom and success to maintain its paternal government.

P. H.

BELOIT, WIS., Feb. 6, 1882.

THE AMERICAN COLLEGE *VS.* THE EUROPEAN UNIVERSITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you permit me to present in your excellent journal a few considerations bearing upon the problems discussed in the editorial of January 19 on Yale and Harvard? The line is there fairly drawn between two opposing systems of education. Harvard has been remarkably successful in imitating the methods of the European university, and Cornell and other schools are following her lead.

The one positive (and commendable) feature of the university is its wide range of electives; beyond this all is negative—no required studies or compulsory attendance, no rules, no responsibility for the moral or even the intellectual improvement of the student. The advantages of this *laissez-faire* system as applied to college

students are not to be overlooked. It is a great relief to the instructor to feel that it is none of his business whether his pupils improve or abuse their opportunities. It stimulates both teacher —or rather professor, for in the university scheme the professor does not condescend to *teach*—it stimulates both professor and pupil to specially fine work in special departments. It has given Germany perhaps the leading position in the intellectual world.

We must remember, however, that German universities correspond rather to our professional schools than to our colleges, and are intended for older students, and designed to give eminence in a single branch rather than general culture. Just here has been their success, and also their failure. It seems to us improbable that any such system can be imported bodily and made to supplant the American college. The latter is a growth indigenous to our soil. Starting with the moral earnestness of the Puritans, it has grown up with other American institutions. It admits of indefinite improvement, but its fundamental ideas, resting upon real human wants, cannot be set aside.

The idea of a curriculum or fixed circle of required studies may be old-fashioned, but so is the multiplication-table. That the required studies may be supplemented by electives all will admit, but to make all studies elective must defeat the very object of a liberal education. Here lies the fallacy of the elective system. It dazzles us with the rich variety of electives, and somehow produces the impression that a student can take them *all* in the four years. Its advocates eagerly point out this and that and the other branch which the student may elect, but they studiously conceal the fundamental and essential branches which the student may omit. A student may graduate from Harvard without studying political economy, English literature, mental or moral philosophy. Natural history is wholly elective. Hitherto logic and outlines of history have been required, but we can all see with President Eliot that there is "reason to believe that the time is not far distant when the few subjects still prescribed for all students will in their turn become elective." The idea that a certain amount of information and a certain familiarity with the lines of thought in each of the leading departments of human knowledge is essential to an education, is wholly ignored. What will Harvard's degree mean? Not that the graduate has been trained in the methods of classical, scientific, and metaphysical thought, and introduced to history, political science, and all the more important branches of study. It will mean simply that he has pursued for four years the studies most agreeable to his yet unformed taste—those which are easiest to him, or which look toward his profession.

There is an immense pressure in our age, and in every age, for superficial education—something to give reputation and polish at the least expense of time and effort. We have scientific, normal, and business schools, each having a legitimate sphere, but each professing to give its patrons all the advantages of a full college course. For these short courses a sort of fiat-parchment is given: "This is an educated man —by order of the president and trustees." Now, the elective system is pandering to this very thing. The colleges in which it prevails virtually say to the student: "You cannot afford, you do not need, to spend four years in general culture. You may omit all that is hardest for you, and spend four years in those branches in which you are already most proficient, and which will shorten your professional studies, and we will give you the same degree."

The idea, also, that the college and its instructors must stand in a sense *in loco parentis* has a justification in the nature of things. The parental relation need not be confounded with that of the policeman or drill-sergeant. Parents who put their sons at an early age into a store or shop desire to know something more of the employer or foreman than that they are successful and efficient in their business. Such men stand *in loco parentis* to the young men under their influence, and ought to have some paternal qualities and some sense of responsibility. How much more the college professor, whose influence is tenfold greater. He is the only friend of mature years the student has. If he feels called upon to expend no part of his energy and ability in stimulating his pupils to diligence, or in dissuading them from folly, but is merely a coleopterist from Dr. Holmes's breakfast-table, he is worth very little to his pupils. He may be a useful and distinguished man, but no college should put him in charge of its undergraduates. The unfledged tutor, if he has still some human sympathy in him, is better than such a professor. In fact, the university knows nothing of those class exercises which Americans call recitations. It gives the student nothing but lectures, which would be far more available in print, and examinations. The real work of education, which the Faculty ignores, is done, and poorly done, by private tutors.

The tendency of any restraint which does not amount to military discipline to stir up opposition is easily overestimated. Such restraint is wholesome in the family; when it is supported in college by the personal influence of instructors whom the students thoroughly respect, its results are most salutary.

It is true that the college needs rarer men for its chairs of instruction than the university—intellect and learning are not enough. It is also true that the size of the school somewhat increases the difficulties of college government. Still, we believe that the schools now conducted on the college plan are fairly successful, and turn out better men, intellectually as well as morally, than those conducted on the university plan.

The university methods have their place in post-graduate courses. We shall all be glad to send our young men to Cambridge or Baltimore after they have completed a thorough curriculum under teachers who really teach, and who feel some responsibility for their welfare; but the American college will not soon be supplanted by the European university. Both are needed. The university is on a par with professional schools, the college is a second home; the university instructs, the college educates.

WILLIAM GOODELL FROST.

OBERLIN, O., Jan. 23, 1882.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The theory of voluntary training propounded in your article entitled "Yale and Harvard" (*Nation*, No. 864) provokes some comment. All education is of course a process of transition from the helpless irresponsibility of infancy to the self-moved independence of manhood. The former shades off steadily into the latter. The question is, How far ought the process to go during the college stage of study? Nature has something to say as to the age at which the average boy should be surrendered wholly to his own guidance. Is it from sixteen to twenty? Yet at college, away from his parents, the boy must be controlled by the college, or not at all, save as he falls into the current of popular opinion and feeling among the students. Is this a competent guide? A community of college students forms a little world of itself, with standards of right and wrong and of propriety often ludicrously at variance with those prevalent in civilized society: shall the character of the student be surrendered entirely to this authority?

And as to the selection of studies: Are boys from sixteen to twenty years of age qualified by general knowledge and maturity of understanding and judgment to choose freely for themselves? Will they not be likely to select either under the influence of fashion or some other equally invalid consideration, or else the study they like best? In the latter case, a mind by nature somewhat unsymmetrical will be made more so by the effect of elective studies. Not that the principle of division of labor should be finally ignored. There comes a time when the mind should be given up mainly to the work for which nature designed it. But should not a comprehensive and symmetrical foundation first be laid, that the specialist may bring to his work a weight and balance of intellectual action the want of which is often painfully evident in the attitude of the clergy to science, and of science to religion, and in other fields of thought?

Discipline has been regarded as the most vital element, at least in the earlier stages of mental training. But can discipline be attained under a system of complete freedom in conduct and in study? Is there not something gained in character by the habit of obeying orders? Must not the youth first obey orders from without himself? And must not the authority pass but slowly from without to within—to the will itself, but to the will as distinguished from the tastes and desires? Would any amount of hard study, done at the call of attraction, give the will command over the mental faculties, especially attention? If mere attention, as attracted, be sufficient, would not novel-reading be as effective, in a disciplinary point of view, as the study of science or language? In your own fine language ("Chromo-Civilization," *Nation*, No. 482), "Culture, in the only correct and safe sense of the term, is the result of a process of discipline, both mental and moral. It comes by the protracted exercise of the faculties for given ends, under restraints of some kind, whether imposed by one's self or other people. In fact, it might not improperly be called the art of doing easily what you don't like to do." Now, has all this been shown to be a mistake? and if a mistake in the college, what is it in the military school, and in all effective training in art, business, or manual craft? What will West Point say to the theory of voluntary deportment and study? And if nerves are steadied and fibre toughened and order cultivated by obedience and work under authority there, why not elsewhere? An objection is sometimes made to the sameness of prescribed studies for different minds. But here also it may be asked, if this is an evil in college, how as to the same thing in all military, gymnastic, pugilistic, musical—in fact, in all training which deserves the name? Does not this objection, too, arise from confounding the training with the special stage of education?

The free-university system of Europe has been alluded to. But is it certain that the average results of that system are better than, or even as good as those of ours? And may not its best fruits be due to the later stage of culture at which the university takes the student, and the thorough discipline which he has already received in the gymnasium or preparatory school? It is the university, in distinction from the college, that adopts the free system in Europe. Doubtless a certain current of popular feeling is at present in this country setting toward the extreme of freedom in education as in other things. But the laws of nature are very strong, though sometimes unseen by the popular eye. It would be remarkable if the order, the discipline, the law of military organization, which,

from its material and uncompromising nature, conserves itself by the inevitable destruction of the transgressor, should not beget in society a deeper thinking and healthier force, against which, to use your own language again, "the most bumptious youth will hit his head, and be reduced to thoughtfulness and self-examination, and be forced to walk in ways not always to his liking."

In fine, is there not room on this subject for the application of another of your own telling sentences about the value of a type of mind which does not participate too much in the "advanced thinking and general rage for social and political experimentation of the last twenty years"? C. W. CLAPP.

GODFREY, ILL., Jan., 1882.

[There is a good deal of force in the above objections to the "elective system." The elective system assumes that students are competent to elect, and will elect with reference solely to their own highest intellectual needs or powers, or else that they have parents or guardians who are competent to assist them in electing. In a very large number of cases this assumption is not well founded. The student is often not competent to choose his course, or, if competent, has not the moral strength to choose rightly, or comes from an uneducated family which can give him no advice and exercise no influence over him in this matter. We presume it is safe to say that fully one-half the undergraduates of American colleges are the sons of fathers who are unable to help them in deciding what branches of study will make a college education most valuable to them, either for the purposes of intellectual training or of professional success. But it does not follow from this that, as our correspondent seems to think, there is no alternative except the "curriculum, or fixed circle of required studies"; nor do we think anybody of authority has ever seriously objected to this because it was "old-fashioned." What is needed is something between the "fixed circle" and absolute freedom. In other words, the college should assist the student in selecting, with due regard to his needs and his capacity. The best system would be one in which each student should make up his course under the special supervision or with the special assistance of a professor. But this is probably hardly practicable. If not, the best way out of the difficulty would seem to be the division of the studies into groups or courses, and the restriction of the election to these groups. They might be so made up as to meet the needs of every type of mind sufficiently common to be worth recognition, and would prevent the indulgence of pure laziness, or the total neglect of subjects with which every liberally-educated man should be acquainted.

As regards the "loco-parentis" college for which our correspondent pleads, there is only one thing to be said, and that is, that, however desirable it may be, it does not exist. There are no such colleges as he describes, and no professors who supply the student with "wholesome family restraint." Moreover, it is almost certain that in the present conditions of American life they cannot be created. We cannot find the professors competent to be parents to the undergraduates, or find the undergraduates ready to accept professors as parents. One of the most singular delusions of our time is the notion prevalent among American fathers and mothers that they can secure this restraint in small colleges and in colleges where the faculty is religious. Small country colleges doubtless offer fewer temptations and attract students bred in simpler homes than the large ones, but they are also compelled to put up with an inferior quality of instructors and inferior instruction. As regards the large ones, we shall simply say that a boy is notoriously just as "safe"—and we believe safer—in those which are trying hardest to be universities as in those which are trying hardest to stay colleges, and that the influence of the professor diminishes in the direct ratio of his eagerness to exert parental authority.

Nor does all this conflict with what another correspondent, Mr. Clapp, says about the value of discipline. With most of what he says we most heartily agree. But the ordinary American college does not supply this discipline; no school in the country does, except West Point. The others profess to supply something of this kind, but they do not supply it, and it is time that parents got over thinking that they do, and got over sending to college for the four best years of their lives young men for whom they greatly desire it.—ED. NATION.]

THE ELECTORAL COLLEGE AND THE TITLE TO THE PRESIDENCY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I quite agree with you in your criticisms upon the "bill which a committee of the House of Representatives is said to favor," providing for a reference to the courts of a disputed title to the Presidential office. All experience, notably in the case of the "Electoral Commission," demonstrates the futility of expecting a non-partisan decision from partisan judges upon a political question of vital interest to political parties. But that is not the worst of it. You not only get a partisan decision in the particular case, but you lower the tone of the judiciary, and shake public confidence in the courts. You do not clarify or purify a political muddle by dragging the ermine through it, and the ermine only comes out of it just so much the worse for wear.

The fact is, common sense dictates the final abandonment of the pleasing dream that such a thing is possible as ever obtaining from any tribunal, however constituted, a strictly judicial sentence upon such an issue as that presented by a disputed succession to the crown, the imperial purple, or even the Chief Magistracy for four years of a republic fifty millions strong. The pressure is too vast for any human resistance. Could you trust a Holt, could you trust a Hardwicke, a Mansfield, a Marshall, a Story, a Taney, a Chase, to give a perfectly unbiassed judgment in a cause which directly involved the victory or defeat of their party and their friends? To state the question is to answer it.

We do not want to bring our judiciary into contempt. We do want a prompt and final settlement of a disputed title to the Presidency. We must have it, or take all the chances of civil war. But we can get no such settlement except on partisan considerations. With these principles in view, let us look to find where the power can be most conveniently and appropriately lodged.

Not in Congress, for that would make the Executive a mere creature of the Congressional caucus, and destroy the symmetry of the whole system.

If not in the courts, if not in Congress, where then? The only answer is, either in the Electoral Colleges of the several States, or in a college of colleges composed of all the electors of all the States.

The latter strikes me the more favorably, but would require a Constitutional amendment. Objection is often made to the whole system of electors as a failure. That is correct, as the system is now working. But it is an admirable framework for a self-adjusting machine for deciding election contests.

The points which the proposed amendment would cover are as follows:

1. The district system for individual electors, and two electors-at-large for each State.

2. Congress to regulate by law the time and manner of giving notice of contest in any case, taking testimony, etc., as is now the case with respect to contested seats in Congress.

3. All the electors to meet in college at the seat of Government a sufficient time after the election to allow for taking of testimony in all cases of contest.

4. *The Electoral College to be the "judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members,"* and to choose its own officers.

5. The Electoral College to choose a President and Vice-President of the United States by ballot; and in case both offices become vacant during the term, the same Electoral College to be convened to fill such vacancies for the residue of the term.

By some such system as this the whole problem of a disputed succession would be solved by the settlement of individual contests for seats in the College, and there would be nothing for courts to decide. Of course all such contests would be settled pretty much upon partisan grounds, just as they have always been by Congress and even by judges; but the settlement would be had, nevertheless, and that it would be found on the side of the apparent majority for the time being would be really the best guarantee for a general acquiescence in the result.

This plan of course involves expense. Mileage and per diem would follow as a necessary incident. As an insurance premium against a heavy war risk, the expenditure would be an economy. The office of an elector would be more desirable and attractive, and men of experience and ability would as a rule be the candidates for the office. Members of Congress should be ineligible. The powers of the Electoral College should be expressly limited to the objects specified.

C. E. P.

BALTIMORE, MD.

THE GENEVA AWARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you kindly state through the columns of the *Nation* whether there is any reason whatever why the Hon. Charles Francis Adams should not, in response to an open and direct appeal to him, declare, in his official character as ex-Commissioner representing the United States in the Geneva arbitration, whether that body acted upon "national" claims only, or whether they did not discuss, decide upon, and award satisfaction of the claims of private citizens of the United States against the Government of Great Britain? The bill just introduced into the House of Representatives rests its entire equity upon the assertion that the tribunal discussed only "national" claims, and private claimants were only witnesses on behalf of the United States in their action for trespass. The word of Mr. Adams would settle this question beyond

contradiction. Is there any valid reason why he should not give it? G.

BALTIMORE, MD., February 11, 1882.

[The same suggestion was made editorially in the *Nation* (July 27, 1876), in the following terms:

"There is, however, an easy way of settling all disputed points about this Geneva Bill which never seems to have occurred to our correspondents, and which we strongly advise them to take, promising ourselves to abide by the result. When the United States decided to submit its claims against England to arbitration, it appointed as its own member of the court Mr. Charles Francis Adams, who, as our correspondents are aware, was familiar with the history of our whole case from the beginning, and had very strong opinions as to England's liability. He is thoroughly conversant with all the principles and facts involved, and with the whole course of the deliberations of the Geneva Court. He knows, if anybody does, whether the tribunal had before it the claims of insurance companies or not; whether in the award they were treated as having any rights; and whether there was any understanding that the Government could do what it pleased with the money. If Congress had ever really desired to find out what the national honor and a decent regard for the opinion of mankind required them to do with the fund, the first person they would have gone to for information would have been Mr. Adams. They would have inquired of him, Were or were not the insurance claims included in the award? Did the tribunal which interpreted the Treaty of Washington render their decision as final, or did they expect every single point decided in it to be reversed by act of Congress? If our correspondents want to know about this, let them go to Mr. Adams and ask him, and if he does not inform them that they are engaged in helping on a monumental swindle, we are greatly mistaken."

To this a correspondent of the *Nation* answered:

"There is something almost funny in the suggestion contained in your article on the Geneva Bill, that Congress should have inquired of Mr. C. F. Adams whether insurance claims were included in the Geneva Award. Mr. Adams is a good lawyer, and his embarrassment at being called upon to answer the question without showing too plainly the simplicity of the questioners would have made the job the most delicate of his life. He could only have said in substance, clothed, of course, in official phrase, that this submission to arbitration was like all others from the time when the memory of man runneth not, etc., in one respect—to wit, it was in writing, and that the judgment upon the submission was likewise in writing; that these, with a journal of proceedings of the Tribunal, constitute what is called its record, and that the said record imports absolute verity. What it shows to have been submitted was submitted, and all else was not submitted, although every member of the court might solemnly aver that it was. What it shows to have been determined and passed upon and considered, was so determined, passed upon, and considered, and nothing else, although the whole court and all who were in attendance upon it were to say otherwise. This answer would doubtless have displeased you, but it would nevertheless have been the only one Mr. Adams could have made, unless he chose to violate all the proprieties."

To this again the editor replied: "No; it would not have displeased us. It would be exactly what we contend for. The submission was in writing, and so is the award, and neither is, or ever was, or ought to be, in the breast of Messrs. Frye, Butler, or Hale"—*i. e.*, in the breast of Congress. It is now to be further observed regarding the assertion that "the Tribunal discussed only national claims, and private claimants were only witnesses on behalf of the United States," that it is false from beginning to end. There is not one scintilla of truth in it. The private claims were presented as private claims as distinctly as language could make them, and the national claims as national claims. Some of the former were allowed; all of the latter were rejected. The distinction between the two classes was made and discussed before the Tribunal. Any one who now, with knowledge of the facts, says it was not, would say anything.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

D. APPLETON & Co. will publish this spring the third and fourth volumes of Lecky's 'History of the 19th Century'; Bain's Lives of James and John Stuart Mill; Huxley's 'Science and Culture, and other Essays'; 'Physical Education,' by Dr. Felix L. Oswald; the 'Bryant Birthday Book'; 'Errors in the Use of English,' by W. B. Hodgson; 'The Metropolitan Museum of Art,' an illustrated quarto; a new translation, by Jehu Baker, of Montesquieu's 'Grandeur and Decadence of the Romans'; 'Capital and Population,' by F. B. Hawley; and a text-book with a taking title, a 'Geographical Reader,' by James Johonnot.——G. P. Putnam's Sons announce an illustrated volume of travel by Mr. S. S. Cox—'From Po to Pyramid by way of Palestine,' as the alliterative title reads; and 'Thomas à Kempis and the Brothers of Common Life,' by the Rev. S. Kettlewell.——A new 'Life of Daniel Webster,' by the Rev. H. N. Hudson, will bear the imprint of Little, Brown & Co.——Houghton, Mifflin & Co. publish directly a 'Life of Copley,' by the late Mrs. Charles Amory, one of the painter's descendants; a new and complete edition of Bret Harte's works; and 'Evenings with a Reviewer,' by the late James Spedding.——Roberts Brothers have in press five lectures by William Morris, called 'Hopes and Fears for Art.'——'Saunterings in Europe,' by the Rev. Charles Wood, of Albany, is announced by A. D. F. Randolph & Co.——Among new periodicals we notice the prospectus of the *Illustrated Quarterly of Medicine and Surgery*, edited by Drs. George Henry Fox and Frederic R. Sturgis, and published by E. B. Treat, at No. 757 Broadway; the first number of Judge Tourgée's illustrated weekly, *Our Continent* (Philadelphia), which seems to us a very odd conception, whether considered from a literary or a typographical point of view; and early numbers of Dr. Sauveur's fortnightly *Les Récréations Philologiques*, which is published at 74 West Thirty-fifth Street, New York. The original feature of the last-named journal is that it prints contributed translations into French—*e. g.*, of the 'Vicar of Wakefield' and 'The Lady of Lyons.' As it happens, the current number of M. Jules Lévy's *Le Français* contains the beginning of a French version of Aldrich's 'Marjorie Daw.' The editor also reprints, with some condensation, a late criticism in the *Revue Politique et Littéraire* of the Howells-James views of Americans abroad.——L. Prang & Co. send us samples of valentine cards intended to elevate the art of these missives, and the major part of them may have a reformatory effect. Still, when catering for young children, the designers have not always observed the line between innocence and sophistication; and generally the legends and poetic adjuncts need literary censorship.——"Æstheticism" is one of the topics in the Providence Public Library's Monthly Reference List for January.——L. W. Schmidt sends us the sixth and concluding part of Stacke's popular 'Deutsche Geschichte,' which covers the period from the accession of Frederic William III. to the throne to the end of the war with France in 1870–71. Princess and Queen Luise appears in a variety of pictures of the royal family, one of which shows the present Emperor as a little boy. While on the whole the illustrations are both more sparse and less curious than in the preceding parts, there is a fine array of portraits of the men who raised up the fallen Prussia—Vom Stein, Hardenberg, Scharnhorst, Gneisenau, Blücher, along with the luckless Schill, Andreas Hofer, W. von Humboldt, Metternich, a striking likeness of Bismarck in 1847, Moltke, Von Roon, etc., etc. In the Napoleonic contest Leipzig naturally receives the most illustration from contemporary prints. Add to the foregoing a facsimile of the *Schlesische Zeitung* of March 20, 1813, containing the royal announcement of the alliance with Russia, and a map showing the historical development of Prussia. The completed work pictorically can never become "out of date."——From the same source we have received parts 3 to 7, inclusive, of the current edition of Brockhaus's 'Conversations-Lexikon.' Here the important geographical articles are Afghanistan, Africa, Algeria, and Egypt. There are excellent maps of North America, the Alps, and the Antilles; and the illustrations include American Antiquities, and Apes.——*Le Livre* for January (J. W. Bouton) exchanges its gray cover for one of blue, with a new design in a kindred tint. Various initial letters, and some more or less happily conceived headpieces marking the standing departments, give an altered aspect to this magazine. In illustrations the foremost piece is the Rouen Museum's portrait of Corneille, by the painter Philippe de Champaigne, now for the first time engraved. The text gives weighty reasons for prizing this likeness more than Le Brun's, which has been generally followed in myriad reproductions. To a limited extent, indeed, the article will serve as a Corneillian iconography. More interesting than M. T. de Mare's reduced *eau-forte* after one of Boucher's illustrations of Molière, is Toby Johannot's vignette for the *Revue des Deux Mondes* in 1830, with its lank female personifications of the Old World and the New. How far away it seems from the "fleshly school" of art now fashionable.——A paragraph in an Athens newspaper announces the discovery of a very ancient MS. of the 'Iliad' at Mount Athos. It is a papyrus roll, and purports to have been copied by Theophrastos, an Athenian, in the 117th Olympiad, when Simonides was archon—that is, in 311 B. C.

—Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have published in more than one size and style an 'Analytical Index to the Works of Nathaniel Hawthorne.' To this is prefixed a minute account of his life and of his productions in chronological sequence. The task has been well performed, and lays the public under a lasting obligation. But one thing is left to Hawthorne's admirers, and that is to prepare a vocabulary indicating the range of his masterly English.—— The first and second series of 'Every-Day Topics' continue the Messrs. Scribner's uniform edition of the late Dr. Holland's works.—— Mr. Rolfe's illustrated, annotated, and expurgated edition of Shakspere (Harpers) has just had the "Merry Wives of Windsor" added to it.——Leypoldt & Jones's 'Books of All Time'—a pocket *catalogue raisonné* in which "scarcely an author is given whose works are not counted among the treasures of literature," and which embraces not less than twenty-five American poets, will be found serviceable as a guide to editions, etc. The title is a little pretentious, and may be misleading, as if it were "Books *for* All Time." Mr. Leypoldt has also issued a pretty 'Reading Diary,' in the line of fiction alone, bolstering up the weak-kneed by a preliminary citation of respectable authority in favor of novel-reading. A carefully selected list of authors and works follows, with room for noting the name of the friend who recommended it, and the diarist's own judgment after reading.——A. C. Armstrong & Son have reprinted Miss Gordon-Cumming's entertaining 'At Home in Fiji,' already reviewed in these columns. The two

volumes have been compressed into one, but otherwise the work appears to be unchanged. ——Dr. James A. Emmerton, of Salem, Mass., has printed privately a volume of 'Materials' toward a genealogy of the not numerous family bearing the name (generally spelled with a single *m*). It is a cautious and solid work, resting nowhere on conjecture, and not establishing an English connection. Several members of the two leading American stocks, whose relationship is undetermined, have achieved distinction in science, scholarship, and otherwise. —— The eighth volume of Collections of the Maine Historical Society is the first publication since the well-advised removal from Brunswick to Portland. Its contents, both historical and biographical, are mainly local, or contributions to New England history; but exception must be made of Dr. Israel Washburn's paper on the settlement of the Northeastern Boundary, which, though written nearly three years ago, has, in consequence of the late Webster celebration, a certain timeliness. The Society has in press the 'Trelawny Papers.'——The 2,000th volume of the Tauchnitz Collection of British Authors (Leipzig: Bernhard Tauchnitz; New York: F. W. Christern) was expressly made commemorative of the progress of the series, and Professor Henry Morley was selected to write 'Of English Literature in the Reign of Victoria, with a Glance at the Past.' The "glance at the past" occupies nearly a quarter of the book. The author's proper theme is treated, of course, with great succinctness, but with much dexterity and perfect readability. The chronological arrangement is ingenious, beginning with the literary veterans whose lives and sometimes productions overlapped the year 1837, and then coming down to their juniors by decades until we find ourselves among "Men of the Times." Carlyle has the better part of a chapter to himself—eighteen pages, against one to Ruskin, four to Macaulay, ten to Dickens, etc. Baron Tauchnitz has prefixed to this convenient summary nearly complete "facsimiles of the signatures of authors in the Tauchnitz edition, photographed from their correspondence and agreements" with himself. American authors are freely represented here. The Messrs. Putnam, by the way, have announced their intention to reprint this work of Professor Morley's.

— The recent suspension of Antioch College nas called forth comments in various quarters marked at once by ignorance and unfriendliness. It is the second time that this college has suspended its work, and both times the cause has been the same—the cause of most such suspensions—the want of funds. The college was founded by the Christian denomination (not that known as Campbellite); and as this denomination is anti-Trinitarian in its theology, some assistance was obtained from Eastern Unitarians, and two Unitarians in succession—Horace Mann and Thomas Hill—occupied its presidency. But it never was adequately endowed, and when the war came it went to the ground, as many smaller institutions did at that time. After the war it was conveyed directly to the Unitarian body, who raised a fund for its support, and opened its doors again in 1865. The Christians still retained some control over it, members of this denomination composing a minority of the Board of Trustees. But now, again, the endowment was inadequate: the college was reorganized on the scale of the endowment that was hoped and expected, but when it was once in operation, it was found that no more money could be raised, and in 1866 began that succession of "shrinkages" which have ended at last in a second suspension. Under the presidency of Dr. Hosmer, President Orton, now of the Ohio State University, and Professor Derby, of the same institution, it struggled along until a large part of its fund, unfortunately invested, ceased to yield any income; under these circumstances there was nothing to do but to close the doors and allow the funds to accumulate. Meantime it has maintained a high standard of scholarship and instruction, and has ranked in the popular estimation far higher than the majority of Western colleges. The character of its Faculty is illustrated by the fact that it is hard to mention a member of it who is not now, if alive, connected with some institution of high rank. We need only mention President Orton and Professor Derby, of Ohio, and Professors Russel of Brown (late of Cornell), Clark of Yale, Hall of Williams, Chandler of Cornell, Langley of Michigan, Allen of Wisconsin, Anthony of Iowa, and Hosmer of Washington (St. Louis). As to the theological tone of the administration, it is enough to say that Presidents Hill, Hosmer, and Orton all belonged to what is known as the conservative wing of the Unitarian body. The complaint, therefore, that the prevailing influences have been anti-Christian has no weight except with those who would deny to these men the Christian name. But the fact is that the spirit of the institution, at least since its reorganization, has been more in harmony with the Harvard than the Yale theory, as defined in the *Nation* of January 19; but this theory of education is sure to be pronounced "ungodly" and "unchristian" by those who prefer the other system. It is certain, at any rate, that this did not materially affect the attendance, for when the college was reopened in 1865 as distinctively Unitarian, the numbers and the success of the first year promised a rapid growth. Of course the partial collapse the next summer put an end to all such hopes.

—What is called, for want of a better name, the "dictionary catalogue" has got a foothold in Germany. Gustav Wolf in Leipzig has published a 'Medicinisches Vademecum' (which has already reached a second edition), a 'Juristisches-staatswissenschaftliches Vademecum,' and a 'Theologisches Vademecum,' "in which the book-titles," says Petzholdt, "after the American custom, are mingled in a sort of name and subject index, which presents to the public the matters which it seeks in the way best adapted for finding them." This, from a conservative German—one of the high-priests of the straitest sect of bibliography—is remarkable. In this country German and Germanizing critics have objected to the "dictionary catalogue" its unscientific mixing of name, subject, and title in one alphabet—a practice which one man declared threw him into such confusion of mind that he could make no use of the catalogue. Probably, after all, Petzholdt would agree with this so far as to repudiate utterly the hybrid genus in a work intended for the learned; but for the "public," who cannot be expected to have such nice sensibilities, nor to be able to puzzle through the intricacies of a strict scientific arrangement, the alphabetical plan is good enough. Another American practice, that of including references to the separate parts of collected works, is followed by Dr. Brunnhofer in the lately-published subject-catalogue of the Aargau Cantonal Library, which exceeds 1,000 pages. We have called it an American practice, but the Italians may claim the priority. Ilari's catalogue of the Siena Public Library is very full in this respect. In this country it was first used to any extent in Prof. Abbot's card-catalogue of Harvard College Library; and the first one published in which it appears is that of the Boston Athenæum, which is just completing at once its alphabet and its decennium of printing. The Brooklyn Library, the Mercantile of San Francisco, and the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, are the only others that have done much work of this kind. Their references are mainly to periodicals, while Dr. Brunnhofer's are especially to the great collections, like Grævius, Gronovius, Pertz, and other *Sammelwerke*, such as we gave a list of on Dec. 22 and 29. Petzholdt expresses some doubts whether the Swiss librarian's successors will be willing to follow up his work in the same laborious and costly style.

—The late Saint-René Taillandier had contributed to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* various essays on the modern revival of Provençal poetry, of which the "Mirèio" of M. Mistral is the best-known example, and he had intended to work these papers over into a connected study of the movement from its origin to the present. He died without doing so, and the scattered essays have just been gathered together to fill the final half of a volume called 'Études Littéraires' (Paris: Plon; New York: F. W. Christern), the first pages of which contain a more nearly complete sketch of the life of Boursault, the only one of Molière's literary adversaries whom he deigned to notice on the stage directly and by name. In this sketch, which he called "Un Poète comique du temps de Molière," M. Taillandier shows that Boursault was instigated to his attack on Molière by other and older enemies, and that he speedily forgave and forgot Molière's contemptuous retort, for he took occasion to praise the great humorist after his death in lines of ample eulogy, although not of as much poetic worth to us as they seem to have been to M. Taillandier. The chief value of this half of the 'Études Littéraires' is in the light it sheds incidentally on the condition and circumstances of literary and dramatic life in France in Molière's day, and immediately thereafter. There is not much warmth in M. Taillandier's work, but it is painstaking and accurate.

—A fresh proof of the vitality of the new Japanese civilization reaches us in the form of the "Third Annual Report of the Central Sanitary Bureau of the Home Department." That the registration statistics are based on a defective system of nomenclature is to be regretted. The absence of the titles "scarlatina" and "typhus maculosus" is noteworthy, and excites a question whether the diseases themselves are unknown in Japan. It is also questionable whether the mortality rates are to be trusted. But even this attempt is wonderful, in a country where most of the practitioners of medicine belong to the ancient school, and only a few hundred among 33,000 are as yet supplied from the school at Tokio. The very fact that statistics of mortality are attempted is a proof of a spirit not to be daunted by the most difficult problems. It is interesting to find 1,659,298 cases of vaccination recorded during six months, and a percentage of 32.48 of success in cases of revaccination. The most curious bits of information are those relating to the traffic in patent or secret remedies (mostly harmless in their nature), which are sold to an extent justly deprecated; there being recorded 10,576 different kinds sold by their makers, 226,835 sold by retailers, and 173,070 by travelling peddlers. The document was printed in 1881, though the period covered terminated on June 30, 1878.

— Many persons have felt the need of a brief and comprehensive treatise upon Roman antiquities which should contain the latest results of scholarship, without the minuteness of detail which characterizes the great works of Mommsen and Marquardt, and of Lange. It will probably be a long time before any book in the English language meets this want; but fortunately most scholars can make use of either French or German, and each of these languages affords a book of the desired character. Willems's 'Droit

Public Romain' is no doubt the best and most complete brief treatise that exists. For the German language the veteran J. N. Madvig—distinguished alike as grammarian, editor, and antiquarian—published last year the first volume of a work entitled 'Verfassung und Verwaltung des Römischen Staates.' This volume contains the whole of the Constitution (*Verfassung*) properly so called; the other volume, to be published this year, is to contain the administration (*Verwaltung*)—the military, financial, judicial, etc., departments of the state. It may be remarked that none of the great treatises—neither Lange, nor Becker-Marquardt, nor even Mommsen-Marquardt as yet—covers the whole of the ground. Madvig's qualifications for his task are illustrated by the fact that he was the discoverer of one of the most fundamental principles of classification as regards the Roman colonies and *municipia*. His point of view in the present volume is, on the whole, a conservative one. He holds (p. 89), against Mommsen, that the patricians were the exclusive occupants of the public land, and refuses to recognize, as even Lange has done at last, that the plebeian tribal assembly was a different assembly from the *Comitia Tributa*, composed of patricians and plebeians alike (p. 234). On the other hand, he agrees with Mommsen that the plebeians belonged to the *Comitia Curiata* (p.99), and to the Senate of the early Republic (p. 125), and that the *patrum auctoritas* was a special power of the patrician members of the Senate (p. 234). On the whole this book will be found a safe guide to the subject. It is, however, hard to consult, consisting of long paragraphs, without helps either in the margin or at the top of the page. It is to be hoped that the next volume will contain an index.

—The promise of a new symphony and the reappearance in New York of Mrs. E. A. Osgood at the fourth concert of the Philharmonic Society raised anticipations of an unusually attractive entertainment, which, however, were not fully realized. The new symphony was by Hans Huber, a young Swiss composer whom a majority of the audience on this occasion probably heard of for the first time, although his symphony is numbered opus 63. In giving this work the sub-

Tell," Herr Huber boldly incurred a double responsibility by making it incumbent on the critic to judge it not merely from a purely musical point of view, but also in reference to the appropriateness of its title. And it may be stated at once that if the printer had by mistake substituted Napoleon Bonaparte or Julius Cæsar for Tell, nobody would have known the difference. Opponents of programme music continually assert that if any descriptive hint is to be given at all on the programme, it is best to limit it to the title simply, and not to give an extended description of the scenes the music is supposed to illustrate. It is just the other way. If a composer has written a work under the inspiration he received from witnessing or imagining some particular pictorial scene or historical event, the audience will always gain an advantage by having this scene just as vividly brought before their minds. This can only be done by giving a brief and pregnant description of it either in prose or poetry. A series of emotions will be aroused by this description which will greatly increase the enjoyment of the music, for the reason that music is never so effective as when we are already in a state of emotional excitement or depression. We do not know whether Herr Huber has written an analysis of his symphony. If he has, it should have been printed; if not, he might as well have omitted the title too. Otherwise, the symphony is a work of considerable merit. Its logic—*i. e.*, the inferences drawn from one chord to another—and the treatment of the melody, are modern. The same is true of the instrumentation, which is rich and full, but not sufficiently varied. Indeed, a want of variety is the greatest defect of the symphony regarded as a whole, neither the movements nor the individual ideas being sufficiently contrasted or original to subdue a slight sense of monotony. The opening allegro is characterized by a vigorous movement which has some of the bracing effect of mountain air, but it is surpassed in poetic beauty by the following adagio, the instrumentation of which is particularly fine. The two remaining movements are down hill. Mozart's D major Symphony (No. 5, ed. Breitkopf & Härtel), and the minuet and finale of Beethoven's string quartet No. 9 in C, were the other orchestral numbers. Mrs. Osgood sang alone, "Ah, That my Heart's Blest Freedom," from Gluck's "Armide," and with Mr. Toedt the duet. "O Teresa," from Berlioz's "Benvenuto Cellini," in which nothing is more remarkable than the truly marvellous and inexhaustible originality of the instrumental combinations. Mr. Toedt's voice was not in prime condition, but Mrs. Osgood sang her part with the purity of intonation, grace, and natural simplicity which made her a general favorite in England during her absence from this country.

BISHOP THIRLWALL.

Essays, Speeches, and Sermons. By Connop Thirlwall, D.D., late Lord Bishop of St. David's. Edited by J. J. Stewart Perowne, D.D., Dean of Peterborough and Honorary Chaplain to Her Majesty. 1880.

Letters to a Friend. By Connop Thirlwall. Edited by Arthur Penrhyn Stanley, D.D., Dean of Westminster. 1881.

Letters, Literary and Theological, of Connop Thirlwall. Edited by J. J. Stewart Perowne, D.D., Dean of Peterborough, and the Rev. Louis Stokes, B.A., Corpus Christi College, Cambridge. With Annotations, etc., by the Rev. Louis Stokes. 1881. London: Richard Bentley & Son.

CAN it be a mere accident that Thirlwall's most elaborate piece of literary criticism is an essay on irony? We find it difficult to believe that the subtle analysis of Sophoclean irony was not, unconsciously of course, dictated by a deeper feeling than the mere desire to explain the essential characteristic of the most perfect, if not the greatest, of Greek tragedians. It is impossible not to suspect that Thirlwall's true motive for the profound study of a moral and literary quality the full significance of which escapes thousands of readers, lay in the interest with which every reflective being regards, whether knowingly or not, the peculiarities of his own nature. Criticism often becomes self-portraiture. The article on the irony of Sophocles throws curious light on the genius, and even on the career, of Thirlwall. We doubt whether it would be possible for the most ingenious of critics to paint one aspect of Thirlwall's mental attitude more forcibly and more truly than in these words:

"There is always a slight cast of irony in the grave, calm, respectful attention impartially bestowed by an intelligent judge on two contending parties, who are pleading their causes before him with all the earnestness of deep conviction and of excited feeling. What makes the contrast interesting is, that the right and the truth lie on neither side exclusively; that there is no fraudulent purpose, no gross imbecility of intellect, on either; but both have plausible claims and specious reasons to allege, though each is too much blinded by prejudice or passion to do justice to the views of his adversary. For here the irony lies not in the demeanor of the judge, but is deeply seated in the case itself, which seems to favor each of the litigants, but really eludes them both."

Here is, one might fancy, an exact description of the position of the Bishop of St. David's when called upon to deal with the plausible claims and specious reasons put forward by High Churchmen, by Low Churchmen, or by Latitudinarians, before the calm and unbiassed tribunal of his judgment. Newman and Littledale, Williams and Baden-Powell, Bishop Colenso and Archdeacon Denison—a score of other men more or less famous and more or less fanatical—each at one time or another appears as an excited litigant, attempting to gain the approbation or support of the grave, calm, judicial intellect which gives to the case of each of the enthusiasts, pleading his own cause with the earnestness of deep conviction, "respectful attention" and, it must be added, "nothing more than attention." For the irony of the judgment-seat contains one element which, oddly enough, is not noticed by Thirlwall. To the litigants the matter at issue seems one of life and death; to the serene magistrate the cause which he decides may have speculative interest, but is of no personal importance. Add to Thirlwall's analysis this overlooked element, and you have a perfect picture, not perhaps of his real, but assuredly of his apparent, attitude toward the earnest theological reactionists or theological innovators whose tenets are stated, criticised, and refuted in elaborate charges which, unlike most episcopal compositions, are racy with all the flavor of thoughtful irony, expressed with something approaching literary perfection.

"There is, however, an irony which deserves to be distinguished from the ordinary species by a different name, and which may properly be called *dialectic irony*. This, instead of being concentrated in insulated passages, and rendered prominent by its contrast with the prevailing tone of the composition, pervades every part, and is spread over the whole like a transparent vesture closely fitted to every limb of the body."

If this had not been written by Thirlwall, the conjecture would at least be plausible that the passage was a fragment from a critique on Thirlwall's own style. Of him, if of any one, it is true that the style was the man. But the essay which affords the very language that most appropriately reproduces the impression made by the intellectual attitude, no less than by the literary manner, of an author who, beyond all others of his age, lays claim, as it were of right, to credit for judicial gravity and weightiness, also supplies the conception which does not solve, but which certainly does describe, the enigma of the Bishop's career.

"Without departing from the analogy which pervades the various kinds of verbal irony, we may speak of a *practical irony*, which is independent of all forms of speech, and needs not the aid of words. Life affords as many illustrations of this as conversation and books of the other."

There is something in this utterance almost prophetic. The irony of Thirlwall's intellect, the irony of his style, are all as nothing compared with the practical irony of his life. No one will deem this language exaggerated who meditates on the singularities of Thirlwall's career; who compares the splendid promise of his youth and manhood with the apparently inadequate results achieved by extraordinary talents, high character, and exalted position, and who perceives that, as far as observers can judge, the one great external success of Thirlwall's life was in large measure the source of its apparent failure.

Thirlwall was richly endowed by nature. Literary talent with him, as with Macaulay, was not the result of training or labor, but of inborn capacity for clothing thought in appropriate language. At the age of thirteen he wrote better than most men write at twenty.

He was born in 1797, and on the 4th of January, 1810, he writes to a school friend :

"If you have visited Oxford, you have seen, in spite of what I said of my father's prepossessions, by far the finest of the two universities. You should, as I have done, have seen Cambridge first. Its inferiority would not then have appeared so striking. I shall belong to the former. Your conjecture respecting Kirke-White is, I think, a very probable one. He would have been a second Cowper, although he might not have enjoyed so long the use of his transcendent powers. From such studies and from such honors may I always be free. I prefer a long life a thousand times to such immortality."

This letter savors, it is true, a little of the pomposity of precocious youth, but it was the rare mark of Thirlwall's genius that early maturity was in him consistent with permanent strength. We can more than half pardon the parental folly of printing the writings of a boy of eleven when we know that the capacity of the boy was not the result of too early development, and foretold the intellectual powers of the man.

Nor was Thirlwall's knowledge inferior to his literary skill. His life was, from youth to age, a life of reading and study. His recreations were what to other men would have been severe labor. Of science he knew nothing, but it may fairly be said that of all other branches of study—of history, of philology, of philosophy, of divinity—he had not only profound knowledge, but, what is a very different thing, a real and substantial command. He was not oppressed by his own erudition. No one could say of him that "the coals had put out the fire." The brightness of his genius was not overweighted by the weightiness of the material accumulated by his energy. People forgot the vastness and accuracy of his information in respect for his judgment and admiration for his logical powers. John Mill's tribute to his genius as a speaker is well known, but bears repetition :

"The speaker with whom I was most struck, though I dissented from nearly every word he said, was Thirlwall the historian, . . . then a Chancery barrister, unknown except by a high reputation for eloquence acquired at the Cambridge Union before the era of Austin and Macaulay. His speech was in answer to one of mine. Before he had uttered ten sentences I set him down as the best speaker I had ever heard, and I have never since heard any one whom I placed above him."

The Bishop's speech on Jewish disabilities, or his speech on the disestablishment of the Irish Church, is conclusive proof that Mill's language is not the expression of reminiscences tinged and falsified by the enthusiasm of youth. The eloquence of perfect argument belonged to Thirlwall from his earliest to his latest days. That perfect command of all the instruments of logic which Mill acquired under the arduous and unceasing discipline of his father, was with Thirlwall the free gift of nature.

Power of literary expression, immense learning, and logical acumen may yet occasionally be possessed by persons deficient in judgment, wanting in insight, and incapable of that self-control which enables a man to direct his own life. It is not possible to believe that Thirlwall suffered from any of these deficiencies. It is not possible to write or speak of him without a too frequent use of the word judicial. The universal belief of his friends that, had he kept to the bar, he would have become preëminent among the great judges of England, is one of those prophecies which, though never put to the test of experience, would, one may feel certain, have, if so tried, met with its fulfilment. His mind was open to light. His interest in Niebuhr, his translation of Schleiermacher, showed that he turned naturally toward the new thought and the new feeling of his age. But if there was one quality in which, to judge by his early letters, he seemed preëminent, it was the power to direct his own steps, to work out his appropriate destiny, to be master of his fate. All his judicial powers were brought to the selection of his profession. He found the bar distasteful and unsuited to a life of thought, literature, and study. He was free from vulgar ambition ; and he chose the Church as his profession not, as we gather from Mr. Perowne, under any violent impulse of excited feeling, but under the deliberate conviction that in the discharge of clerical duties he would find the appropriate sphere for his moral and intellectual activity. He adopted the career of the priest and the student, and it is no discredit to Thirlwall to believe, what every expression he uses and the whole course of his life until he became a bishop proves, that he sought the position of a priest in great part because clerical duties were, on his view, easily compatible with the noble duties of a serious and earnest student. Even the friends who deplored his retirement from the bar may have felt during the years of Thirlwall's life at Kirby Underdale that his deep judicial wisdom had led him to select his proper path, and many, though not, one would think, all, of his admirers may have fancied that Thirlwall's promotion to a bishopric sealed the wisdom of his choice. Yet it is at this very point that the true and almost painful irony of his career begins.

When the crisis of Thirlwall's career came he was not master of his fate. The caprice or the public spirit of Lord Melbourne changed and fixed the whole tenor of Thirlwall's existence. He had never sought promotion. The *nolo episcopari* was in his mouth perfectly sincere. His first impulse when offered a bishopric was to refuse. "He was anxious to complete his 'History of Greece,' and was meditating a visit to the land of art and song during the autumn. It is said to have taken all the power of suasion of his friends to make him agree to be a bishop." He did agree, and, we may fairly conjecture, agreed against his own judgment ; yet his very interview with Melbourne must have warned even a less sagacious person of his error :

"Very glad to see you ; sit down, sit down. Hope you are come to say you accept. I only wish you to understand that I don't intend, if I know it, to make a heterodox bishop. I don't like heterodox bishops. As men, they may be very good anywhere else, but I don't think they have any business on the bench."

This was the language of the clever *pococurante*, worldly, good-natured old premier, who probably thought a good income, a seat in the House of Lords, and a dignified position the deserved reward for the liberalism of one among the very few theologians who forty years ago were inclined to protest against bigotry. Lord Melbourne's sagacity was not at fault. The translator of Schleiermacher's 'St. Luke' did not turn out a heterodox bishop. We cannot doubt that he accepted the see of St. David's with perfect honesty, and cannot but regret that George Eliot should, if rumor be correct, have been the person to charge the Bishop of St. David's with having found in the path which leads to a bishopric "a royal road to orthodox faith." But it is clear, as far as human judgment can penetrate into the mysteries of human conduct, that Thirlwall, when he yielded to the persuasion of Lord Melbourne, wandered from the path of wisdom. From that moment his career became filled with contradictions. A student and a thinker, he was compelled to undertake the work of administration. He had at once to turn from the study of divinity, or the composition of history, to writing letters like the first written in his official capacity, which explains to an unwise parson, in language probably a good deal above the clergyman's comprehension, the folly, not to say the illegality, of refusing the communion to parishioners whose only offence was attendance at a theatre. In Wales, indeed, Thirlwall's linguistic talents availed him something. He learnt to speak and preach in Welsh; but though he could learn the tongue, he was not the man to reach the hearts of Welshmen. "I am glad," he writes, "to find that anybody listened to my sermon. I admired the patience of the congregation, who, though three-fourths of them were longing for Dr. Griffith, did not make any scraping with their feet or show any outward sign of suffering." Congregations of Ranters and Methodists never heard Thirlwall's passionless and convincing arguments without "longing for Dr. Griffith." He was scarcely more in harmony with the feeling of the clergy than with the sentiment of the common people. Incidental expressions in the 'Letters to a Friend' (obviously a young lady) show that Thirlwall himself felt that a cold and stiff manner shut him out from the sympathy and intercourse which his real kindness, wisdom, and lovableness ought, but for his chilling exterior, to have secured to him. Few, except here and there an intimate friend or a favored correspondent, knew the goodness of the Bishop's heart.

This is of itself pathetic ; but what makes the moral isolation of the Bishop something more than pathetic is that it must have been an almost insuperable bar to the adequate discharge of his duties. His statesmanlike breadth of view and his unrivalled capacity for cogent argument must, it would be thought, have found room for their display and exercise in the debates of the House of Lords. To a limited extent this probably was so ; his speeches were memorable. The miserable fallacies which are, to the disgrace of the nineteenth century, being reproduced in England and in Germany as an apology for or an extenuation of attacks on the Jews, and which might have excited horror even in the Middle Ages, are anticipated, exposed, and rebuked by Thirlwall's speech on Jewish disabilities delivered in 1848. But, though none but fools or bigots could despise, and none but the most skilled debaters and dialecticians could meet, Thirlwall's arguments, he did not apparently greatly influence his audience either in the House of Lords or in Convocation. The present Archbishop of Canterbury, Bishop Wilberforce, Bishop Magee, or the late Dean Stanley has each of them, it may fairly be conjectured, produced greater effects on the feelings, and even the actions, of the audiences he addressed than were ever produced by the incontrovertible reasoning of the Bishop of St. David's. Mill is no fair type of ordinary Englishmen.

Thirlwall's true sphere was his study, which he happily nicknamed "Chaos." Here his incessant application added daily to his immense knowledge. Yet, by some strange turn of fate, his learning and his wisdom were, from the time of his consecration as a bishop, of little avail to the world. His 'History of Greece' was, when he wrote it, by far the best work on the subject to be found in the English language. It has merits of its own which have never been surpassed ; yet it was superseded by Grote's great work, which had a kind of "body," so to speak, and life not to be found in Thirlwall's sensible and cautious sentiments. No one acknowledged the merits and the superiority of Grote's book with more ample and unstinting liberality than Thirlwall. But critics who admire and appreciate the generosity of the Bishop may also note that the ultimate cause of Grote's triumph, if so it can be called, in the magnanimous contest between the two friends, lies in the fact that the London banker possessed a sort

of largeness and force of character which somehow or other was wanting in Thirlwall. Grote was not a more remarkable or a more learned, but he certainly was in some way a bigger, man than the Bishop.

In the sphere, at any rate, of theology Thirlwall might have been expected to influence his age. In him profound learning and unrivalled dialectical skill and supreme soundness of judgment coexisted in a rare combination. The candid perusal of his letters makes it apparent that his mind was constantly occupied with the theological problems which have now exercised and tormented two generations of Englishmen. He was prepared to sum up the never-ending case of scepticism against revealed religion in favor of Christianity. His high character and his intellectual eminence were calculated to give to every expression of his convictions a weight, with the English public at least, as great as ought in reason to be attributed in matters of religious belief to the authority of any individual. But though Thirlwall was prepared to sum up the case, he never (if one may be allowed to follow out a metaphor irresistibly suggested by the idiosyncrasies of his genius) delivered judgment. A sermon such as that on the resurrection proves that he held the dogmas of Christianity to be not inconsistent with the dictates of reason; but he left no permanent or monumental work to explain, to defend, or support his theological beliefs. Moreover, his official position detracted from the influence of his opinions. A bishop defending orthodoxy is, however honest his own convictions, an apologist for dogmas which he can hardly deny to be true without some slur on his own honesty. An anonymous sceptic published toward the close of Thirlwall's life a book entitled 'Supernatural Religion.' The new writer was, whatever his other merits, deficient in accurate scholarship. The intelligent public and many acute critics, nevertheless, rushed to the conclusion that the author of an attack on revelation was the Bishop of St. David's. This stupid blunder proves the dulness of educated readers and educated writers. It also demonstrates past a doubt that the Bishop had failed to make any impression on the opinions of his generation. *Cor sapiens et intelligens ad discernendum judicium*, is the inscription on his monument. It contains far more truth than is generally found in epitaphs; but between the lines of the appropriate and deserved tribute to the memory of an eminent man those who have studied his life will read the thought that Connop Thirlwall — "scholar, historian, theologian"—though, or rather because, he was "for thirty-four years Bishop of St. David's," failed to make any permanent mark on his time, and will reflect that the lives of men have, no less than the dramas of tragedians, their touch of profound irony.

RECENT AMERICAN POETRY.

THE wrongs of the American aborigines are doubtless great, but these have had their revenge upon the pale-faces by tantalizing them with a perpetual theme for ineffectual verse. The Indian names are often graceful and plaintive, their legends are poetical, yet who but Longfellow has succeeded in making anything out of them as literary material? Even he barely succeeded; and Whittier's "Mogg Megone" and "The Bridal of Pennacook" are left unread. What hope is there then for humbler bards, except perhaps to give pleasure to themselves and to their own households? Yet the longest poem thus far composed in America is said to be an Indian epic, called "Teuchsa Grondie," reviewed in its day in these columns, and comprising some ten thousand lines. Compared with this, Major Mayer's 'Mendota' (Madison, Wis.: Atwood) seems exceedingly modest, with its thirty pages; and he borrows mainly the Hiawatha measure, thus securing ease to the reader, while he carefully avoids the less melodious Indian names. It is impossible to say as much for Mr. Hathaway's 'League of the Iroquois' (Chicago: Griggs), although it comes to us with a printed circular in which Mrs. M. E. Starrett, of the *Inter-Ocean*, describes it as "*the* American poem, the Indian epic which the literary world has long been waiting and looking for." But did the literary world —one may modestly ask—expect to find in this much desired epic a collection of proper names so formidable as the following verses, from the

"SONG OF NYAH-TAH-WANTA."

"Hayo-went-ha, Hayo-went-ha, great is he;
Come to woo Nyah-tah-wanta—can it be?
And he calls her lovely Kax-aa—is it so?
But a lowly, simple maid—Nyah-tah-wanta—
That I know.
He, the Home-wind, sweet Kee-way-din, soothly singing,
Seems to tell:
"Hayo-went-ha come to woo Nyah-tah-wanta—
That is well." (P. 99.)

Mr. Hathaway's picture and autograph are prefixed to the volume, and the whole is evidently the work of a gentle-hearted and painstaking man; but he has undertaken a task in which success is almost impossible, if the past results achieved by bards more experienced may be taken for a warning.

If it is hard to write readable Indian poetry, to produce good religious poetry is almost as difficult. If, as is sometimes intimated, the American church is in danger, it certainly will not be saved by clinging to such floating straws as are most of the volumes of devout verse which come to us; there seems no theme on which our authors demand so little of themselves. 'The Voice of St. John,' by Rev. William W. Newton (New York: Randolph), is the best of these; it has the serious and well-expressed thoughts of a cultivated man; and it is a small and modest volume. We cannot apply these terms to 'Search the Scriptures; or, The Way of Truth is the Way of Life' (San Francisco: Bancroft). Why should any one be led to search the Scriptures by books which are themselves far less searchable than the Scriptures? 'Moses Resisted,' by W. T. Helms (Nashville, Tenn.: Haynes & Camp), has far more to offer to the reader; it is a poem in twelve cantos, aimed nominally at Jannes and Jambres, who withstood Moses (2 Tim., iii., 8), but actually at the three "infidel scientists" of the day—Huxley, Darwin, and Tyndall. Every miracle wrought by Moses is hurled in long stanzas at the heads of these three guilty men; and as if this were not enough, the poet has a vision of his own respecting three serpents, whom he expressly identifies with these sinners in a foot-note. That they and their followers may know the worst, we state the application of the vision:

"Need I interpret what is here expressed
In allegory, as of form the best?
Need I to these three serpents give the name
By which each revels in an earthly fame?
Three scientists are they who lead the way,
And God and truth would with their fossils slay.

"As if they sat supreme in Wisdom's gates,
And knowledge centred in their sickly pates,
They and their smaller satellites assume
That Moses' record is laid in its tomb;
That Christian men of learning must agree
God's Book must yield to their geology!

"Forth from this Babylon, O Christian! come,
And make the Word of God alone your home;
Forth from their company, lest they enthrall,
And you with them should to perdition fall:
Wear not their title vain, but let it be
A synonym for infidelity." (Pp. 6, 7.)

We should say that, as stated in this volume, and with such dangers and such defenders, it is as clearly a contest of fossil against fossil as the war in Bret Harte's celebrated scientific society.

'Theon,' by Sallie Neill Roach (Philadelphia: Lippincott), is a poem, half-narrative, half-dramatic, and inscribed "To the Lost Cause." We can only say of it that its execution is not quite commensurate with the ardor of its purpose. Another Southern volume, looking more to the future, and far richer in poetic quality, is the collection called 'Down the Bayou, and Other Poems,' by Mary Ashley Townsend (Boston: Osgood). These poems, though printed in Boston, seem to have been mainly written in New Orleans—which we regret to find the author rhyming with "demesnes" — and have that wealth of unhackneyed material to which Mr. Cable's novels have been introducing us of late. The long, lazy, floating strain which gives its name to the volume is as delicious as a trip to Florida. Who would not be a poet, the reader asks, among palmettos and bananas, and within reach of Aztec remains and picturesque Mexico? The enlarging figures of our national census are, after all, less interesting than the steady introduction into our literature of new words and symbols drawn from Southern and Western travel and from the renewed exploration of Creole life and Spanish empire.

Still another Southern volume, 'Poems and Essays,' by Charles W. Hubner (New York: Brown & Derby), has a preface dated at Atlanta, Ga, but has no local coloring and might have been written anywhere. It is painstaking and devout, but not poetic, and might rather be classed among religious works. The prose part of it is fragmentary and rather sensible than striking.

From South we turn to West, for our supply of verse. According to the author of 'Maurine, and Other Poems,' by Ella Wheeler (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.), it is clearly to the West alone that we are to look for poetry, henceforward:

"Not to the crowded East,
Where, in a well-worn grove,
Like the harnessed wheel of a great machine,
The trammelled mind must move—
Where Thought must follow the fashion of Thought,
Or be counted vulgar and set at nought;

"But to the mighty West,
That chosen realm of God,
Where Nature reaches her hands to men,
And Freedom walks abroad—
Where mind is King and fashion is nought:
There shall the New World look for thought."
(P. 163.)

But we must honestly say that when we look for thought in this lady's volume we find that fashion is "king" instead of being "nought." She cannot tolerate a hero or a heroine with plain English names; the most commonplace youth must be named Roy Montaine or Vivian Dangerfield; and the most trivial maiden must be Helen Trevor or Maurine La Pelle. Why not be simple? Why not take the life of every day, East or West, and make it poetic? In a city of half a million inhabitants, like Chicago, there must surely be good enough names in the directory. It is useless to talk about the Mighty West, and then have nothing to show for it but such broad prairies of insipidity as the following stanzas:

"We always were meeting some way after that.
You hung up my hat,
And got it again when I finished my call.
Sixteen and *so* sweet!
Oh, those cute little feet!
Shall I ever forget how they tripped down the hall?

"Shall I ever forget the first kiss by the door,
Or the vows murmured o'er,
Or the rage and surprise of Maude-Belle? Well-a-day!
How swiftly time flows!
And who would suppose
That a *bee* could have carried me so far away?"
(P. 219.)

But this utter refusal to find poetry in the life of every day is not limited by any meridian of longitude. The author of 'Arsiesis, and Other Poems' (N. Y.: Putnam), who is anonymous, except for the mystic letters "Sx" in the middle of the title-page, asks the natural question:

"Why is't that poets of the modern time
Seek in the graveyard of the buried Past
Fit subjects for their rhyme?
Is it that topics in the day they live
Are all unworthy of a poet's thought,
That they no record give?" (P. 109.)

But the author answers his question by printing a poem, long and not especially interesting, with

the scene laid in Egypt, and by making the interlocutors in the longest minor poem bear the names of Orvaldo and Alicia. There is food for reflection also in the author's standard of blank-verse, which is no worse than that of many volumes that come to us, but shows almost anywhere, by a cross-section, as it were, how remote is its construction from anything that suggests a flowing or continuous rhythm, or anything indeed but a series of syllables chopped into regular lengths. Take, for instance, the following (p. 73):

"A lovely night, a quiet night and still, not
E'en the faintest suspicion of a sound to
Render less the silence. All is calm; calm
As the conscience of a maiden pure, too
Young by far to know of any sin.
. . . How far beneath the moon this
Pretty mountain dell—a volume bound in
Silver and in green—like unto lands which
Have creation in the poet's mind, where," etc., etc.

In each of these lines the reader seems to come with a bump against the final syllable, as against a gate-post. Yet the author has poetic thought and sensibility, and in the easy, slipshod measure of the main poem he goes on well enough, and is sometimes melodious. Blank verse is as inevitably the test of a man's poetic ear as is a dress-suit of his capacity to look like a gentleman.

A good foil to the remoteness and vagueness of the volumes just mentioned may be found in the thin volume called 'Lora, a Romance in Verse,' by Paul Pastnor (Philadelphia: Potter & Co.). Here is a frank and honest theme, taken near home, and founded on the actual adventures of some young hunters in the upper regions of Vermont. It is a good example of the advantage gained by young poets when remaining on familiar ground and extracting poetry from that. The incidents are sometimes melodramatic, the pentameter measure sometimes halts; but the reader finds no difficulty in getting through it, and this is after all the first and most essential test of a poem. The main story is simple and wholesome, though the end is somewhat abrupt; the plot turns upon the charm exercised over the young farmers and hunters by a young French maiden, daughter of a well-to-do farmer on the Canada border; and there is something in the general situation which reminds one of Clough's delightful 'Bothie of Tober-na-Vuolich' and sometimes of Goethe's 'Hermann and Dorothea,' yet without suggesting imitation. The local coloring, at any rate, is wholly cis-Atlantic. Here, for instance, is the farmer driving his cattle:

"Meanwhile, through the smooth, tempered air there
came burdensome sounds:
The crush of loose, toil-heavy feet in the road-bed of
gravel;
The bowing and swaying together of huge, weary
creatures;
The creaking and rattling yoke; the sighs of submission;
The meek, muttered groans of the oxen; the swish of
the ox-whip;
And now and anon the guidance, in tones of moroseness,
And the slow, labored step of the farmer, desiring his
rest." (P. 10.)

Nothing can be more genuine than this; and scarcely less so is this picture of the exhausted sportsmen at their supper, surrounded by the picturesque French-Canadian children, but too busy to lift their eyes from their food:

"Meanwhile the children drew round, flocking out of
the shadows:
Beautiful children they were, and of lineage taintless.
Pure blood of France coursed their veins like a river of
sunshine:
Liquid-eyed girls, with cheeks red as the grass-hidden
berry;
Dark, princely boys, like young noblemen playing
the peasant.
Now the door opens, and Lora, the eldest and fairest,
Enters and stands with the children. How charming
her picture
In the dim light, half surrounded by gipsy-brown
faces:
'Supper is ready,' she said in a voice soft and modest;
'Follow me, please.' Whereupon the young men rose
and followed
Her eagerly into the low, dusky space of the kitchen.
There were huge dishes that steamed with a wholesome
provision;
Over the table their cloud and aroma were floating,
Sweeter than spice-laden breezes, or breath of deep
gardens,
Unto the sportsmen. They, when they had taken their
places,
Spake not a word, nor looked up, but ate deeply, in
silence,
As on a slope fresh and fragrant, and kissed by the
morning,
Browses an ox with his dew-dripping face in the
clover." (P. 17.)

With all its crudeness, this book shows a keenness of observation and a felicity of epithet which give signs of promise for the future. We would especially commend it to young writers like George Macdonald Mair, the author of 'The Bride of Bar-Cocab' (N. Y.: C. Wesley Jones), who, with a poetic temperament and painstaking execution, has failed because his task was hopeless. The most experienced artist would probably fail in the attempt to extract materials for an attractive poem out of the books of the Maccabees and Numbers xxiv., 17; and a beginner needs especially to make his first experiment on a subject near home, even if it is only a yoke of oxen.

Mrs. Anne C. L. Botta has long held a creditable place in our literature, and the volume of her poems (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons) seems rather like a reprint than a new addition. There is in it no indication of any recent theme, and poems addressed to "Fredrika Bremer" and to "Byron amid the ruins of Carthage" speak the voice of a generation ago, suggesting what may be called the Mrs. Sigourney period of American poetry. It was a clear, simple, reasonable period, when æsthetes were not, and all that was asked of any one was to give a plain tale in a quiet way. Two poems in this volume, "The Ideal," and "The Ideal Found," tell of profounder experience, and have a good deal of emotional power.

The volume of Mrs. Harriet Prescott Spofford's poetry (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) suggests a little of that disappointment which has been inspired by her whole literary career. She is surpassed by no one among her country-women in some of the best gifts of authorship—in imagination, in wealth of language, in ear for an effective phrase—and yet, through some want of a sense of intellectual perspective, or through some defect in the focus of her genius, she has failed to take, as a prose writer, the place which seemed waiting for her to fill it. Her first story in the *Atlantic Monthly*, "In a Cellar," awakened expectations which she has never fulfilled; and now her volume of poems also brings some sense of incompleteness. She has at several times done what few women in America have accomplished: she has produced lyrics; a remarkable fact for one whose most obvious fault lies in exuberance. Twenty years ago, when criticising this lady's first novel, 'Sir Rohan's Ghost,' Lowell pronounced the ballad "In the Summer Even" an absolutely perfect thing, and then went on to nullify his own criticism by retouching it. He did not, however, improve it, but he altered the first line, no doubt unconsciously, to "In a summer twilight"—as good an instance as ever occurred, perhaps, of the very uncertain value of the very best criticism. As Mrs. Spofford has really never surpassed this little strain, it may be well to quote the whole of it, with careful avoidance of all attempts to make it better:

"In the summer even,
While yet the dew was hoar,
I went plucking purple pansies,
Till my love should come to shore.
The fishing lights their dances
Were keeping out at sea;
And, Come, I sung, my true love!
Come, hasten home to me!

"But the sea, it fell a-moaning
And the white gulls rocked thereon;
And the young moon dropped from heaven,
And the lights hid one by one.
All silently their glances
Slipped down the cruel sea,
And, Wait! cried the night and wind and storm—
Wait, till I come to thee." (P. 119.)

There are later poems, as "A Four-o'Clock," "Boat-Song," "Magdalen," and others, which have kept up the succession of these verses, exhibiting that sort of accidental perfection which is, after all, the true test of song. It is a pity that the inevitable necessities of a thick volume have required the addition of many that were not conceived in an hour so happy. This being the case, we are all the more surprised, and rather sorry, that Mrs. Spofford has not reprinted her longest poem, "Pomegranate Flowers," published many years ago in the *Atlantic*, a production which had indeed her characteristic overabundance, but gave the promise of her power.

On the principle—so consoling to many a post-prandial orator who has been nearly forgotten by the head of the feast—of keeping the best wine to the last, we must close with expressing the heartiest enjoyment of a little volume entitled 'Love Poems and Sonnets,' by Owen Innsley (Boston: Williams). The prompt reception everywhere accorded to these modest strains is a most refreshing fact; it shows how sincere and spontaneous a thing is the public taste, after all, and how little it needs preliminary puffing and manipulation. It shows, too, that a young author may gain a certain advantage by letting thought accumulate and execution mature, and then giving a whole volume of fresh work, instead of first testing and perhaps palling the public taste through the magazines. "Owen Innsley" is now well understood to be the *nom de plume* of Miss Lucia W. Jennison, of Boston. Her father has long held a high place among the musical amateurs of that city; her uncle, Mr. Levi Thaxter, is well known through his sympathetic and studious readings of Browning's poems; and she is niece by marriage of Celia Thaxter, as well as of that gifted and wayward child of genius, the late John Weiss. She has thus had around her from childhood an unusual atmosphere of artistic cultivation, and has also had peculiar opportunities of travel and study in Europe. These things we mention, not by way of gossip, but to illustrate the advantages given by inheritance and training as to all that concerns artistic form; although doubtless, when natural genius is wanting, all the rest goes for naught. At any rate, the result here is that we have a volume full of deep passion, high imagination, and accurate expression, marked, moreover, by a quality of clearness which certainly does not suggest a disciple of Browning and of Weiss. It is this last trait, above all, which has helped the book to its ready popularity; and the verses in French, German, and Italian, even if viewed only as *tours de force*, have no doubt added something to the reputation the authoress seems destined so easily to win. We can think of no first volume by an American poet since 'Verses by H. H.,' which suggested so much promise, and it is only when the new writer attempts—incautiously and perhaps unconsciously—a theme like "Burnt Ships," or "The Zone of Calms," which Mrs. Jackson had handled before her, that we feel the greater strength of touch of the elder poet over the younger. The revelation of the sex of the author adds yet more to the interest, and makes the book a curious psychological study. Many women have written to many other women what might pass for love-poems, but never, within our knowledge, in a strain so close to the emotion of a high-minded man as here; and yet the note is touched with such delicacy that we experience no repugnance at the feminine origin—less than sometimes comes over us, for instance, in reading Shakspere's sonnets. It seems hard to believe that any but a man wrote the following strong lines:

BONDAGE.

"'And this is freedom!' cried the serf; 'at last
I tread free soil, the free air blows on me';
And, wild to learn the sweets of liberty
With eager hope his bosom bounded fast.
But not for nought had the long years amassed
Habit of slavery; among the free
He still was servile, and, disheartened, he
Crept back to the old bondage of the past.

Long did I bear a hard and heavy chain
Wreathed with amaranth and asphodel,
But though the flower-wreaths stole the weary pain,
I cast it off and fled, but 'twas in vain:
For when once more I passed by where it fell,
I took it up and bound it on again." (P. 89.)

It must be confessed, however, that this volume will probably incur nothing but contempt from the admirers of Whitman and Wilde, for with all its strength and passion it must seem to them basely and despicably pure.

SIR CHRISTOPHER WREN.

Sir Christopher Wren: His Family and His Times, with Original Letters and a Discourse on Architecture hitherto unpublished. 1585–1723. By Lucy Phillimore. With two illustrations. New York: Harper & Bros. [Franklin Square Library.]

THE unwary book-buyer will surely be ensnared by the title of this book. Instead of the orderly account which he might expect of the distinguished builder's private and professional life, with something pertinent of the gossip of his times and his family, he will get a strange medley of sometimes wildly unreasonable statements, for the presentation of many of which the book's title and its avowed design furnish but the shadow of an apology. The preface says that the author intends her work as "a contribution toward that full and worthy biography of the great architect which may yet, she trusts, be written before London is finally robbed of the churches with which Wren's genius endowed her"; and the succeeding pages certainly offer a multitude of alleged facts and dogmatic generalizations which are evidently designed to "contribute" to something, albeit we cannot see that a large part of them bear upon the "full and worthy biography" of Sir Christopher. More than a third of the book is mainly devoted to a rather pathetic and unmistakably partisan biography of Bishop Matthew Wren, Sir Christopher's uncle, and abounds, as does the whole book, in direct and implied denunciations of every act which derogated from the authority and dignity of the Crown and "the Church" in that memorable seventeenth century in which so many germs of political and religious liberty broke painfully through the soil.

The writer's temper toward some of the controversies of that time is clear from her outspoken discussion of Bishop Wren's administration of the diocese of Norwich, and of his impeachment, of the downfall of Strafford, Laud, and Charles I., and of the Restoration and the reinstatement of Episcopacy, and from such words as these: "The consequences of" Bishop Abbot's promotion to the primacy over the head of "the saintly" Bishop Andrewes "were disastrous indeed. Had Andrewes succeeded Bancroft, and had Laud succeeded Andrewes, 'the Church had been settled on so sure a foundation that it had not easily been shaken.'" "The difficulties of his [Laud's] task had been doubled by the lax, un-Catholic rule of his predecessor." "The issue of that iniquitous trial [Strafford's], perhaps as great a perversion of justice as England had ever then known." "His [Laud's] murder was an immense triumph to all the sectarians." "When we look back to the years of the Rebellion, their darkness is lightened for us by the knowledge that the Restoration came at last." "This return [of Charles II.] was a promise of deliverance for the Church, and an end to that difficulty of preserving the Apostolic Succession which had so nearly proved a fatal one." Notwithstanding this narrow and antiquated blindness to the true value of those momentous struggles, the author's remarks upon questions of general history might be pardoned if they were in any way necessitated by her conception of Sir Christopher's career; but they are not. They throw no light upon his character, his opinions, his work, or his fame. They are lugged in by the ears, at an utter loss of dignity and good taste.

Passing now to that part of the book which keeps within the legitimate limits of its subject, we find the main events of Sir Christopher's life set forth in a clear and entertaining manner. The author objects to Mr. Elmes's memoir (London, 1823) as dry and somewhat inaccurate, and there is no doubt that she has produced a more spirited narrative and one more trustworthy in minor details. Nevertheless she has failed in presenting a vivid picture of Sir Christopher or of his works. His numerous scientific discoveries and speculations are referred to, it is true, in connection with pleasing descriptions of the beginnings of the Royal Society. His architectural works are enumerated with careful regard to chronological exactitude, with many interesting antiquarian notes, with frequent apostrophes to their beauty and their supposed excellence of construction, and with frequent laments over their destruction at the Philistine hands of modern progress. But there is no attempt to trace the inner development of Wren's genius, or to bring him into relation with the history of thought or of art except a few such references as those to Fergusson's 'Modern Architecture,' where, we suppose, the inquisitive reader is expected to look up all such things. In a word, for a satisfactory idea of the significance of Wren's career, we must still consult the despised memoir of Mr. Elmes, or Britton and Pugin's 'Public Buildings of London,' or Longman's 'St. Paul's,' or Dr. Sprat's 'History,' or Dean Milman's 'Annals,' or go back to the fountain-head, the 'Parentalia' of Sir Christopher's son Christopher.

The probable interest of a critical study of Wren's life may be inferred from a rapid glance at its prominent features. Wren was a civil-engineer before he was an architect, and an astronomer, mathematician, physicist, and anatomist before that. He became the Gresham professor of Astronomy at twenty-four, an Oxford professor of the same science at twenty-eight, and he made his début as an architect at thirty. He was the son of a well-known and versatile clergyman, from whom he inherited much of his talent. From early youth he attracted attention by his precocity in physical and mathematical studies. He held many prominent positions, and was one of the best-known men of his times outside of political circles. Throughout his life he displayed a fidelity and patience in the discharge of trusts, a persistency in overcoming difficulties, and a cool common-sense in all his social, civil, and professional relations that rendered him an invaluable public official. To these qualities as a scientist and a man, rather than to his force as an artist, he owed his popularity and his independence during four successive reigns. He kept out of political and ecclesiastical quarrels, and devoted himself to the unselfish performance of duties. He was indefatigable, honest, prudent, shrewd. He was encouraged and broadened by a greater or less acquaintance with men like Evelyn, Bernini, Hooke, Flamsteed, Halley, Newton, and Pascal.

The accident of the great fire of 1666 first tested his architectural ability, and was the occasion of his greatest successes and greatest failures; for it brought upon him, as Surveyor-General, the task of rebuilding St. Paul's and the many parochial churches of the city, a work of grand opportunities, but too extensive for one man. The list of buildings erected or repaired by him between 1663 and 1723 embraces no less than 60 churches and cathedrals, 35 guild-halls, 8 colleges, 4 palaces, more than 20 civic buildings, hospitals, and theatres, besides many private houses. His labor upon St. Paul's extends over the long period of thirty-five years, and the vicissitudes of that undertaking have been often discussed. In all his works Wren's mechanical overshadows his artistic talent, although if he had had a thorough professional training, such as Inigo Jones had, he would probably have ranked among the foremost of architects. As it is, he often developed his favorite classical motives with conspicuous originality and good taste; and no one can deny that he was a consummately skilful and learned *builder*. The dome of St. Paul's, the interiors of St. Stephen's, Walbrook, and of St. James's, Westminster, and the spires of Bow Church and of St. Bride's have substantial and permanent value to the student.

In spite of these fine opportunities in the breadth and dignity of her theme, and in spite of her patience and care in consulting authorities, her unusual access to information, and her evident ability as a writer, we are forced to say that our author has not given us the critical study of Wren that is needed, nor "contributed" much to it. The reader lays down the book with no adequate conception of Wren's power as a thinker or of his style as an architect, and with a very distorted view of the times in which he lived. The lover of gossipy, unphilosophical history will find the work entertaining and fresh; the historical student will find it only a provocation to controversy; while the architect may read it in the assurance that it will do him professionally neither harm nor good.

Home Decoration. By Janet E. Ruutz-Rees.—*Home Amusements.* By M. E. W. S. [Appletons' Home Books.] New York: D. Appleton & Co.

THE plan of the "Home Books" seems to be to leave nothing untouched, even at the risk of some overlapping or repetition. The home has been built and furnished, the garden and grounds laid out, hints for domestic arrangements and for cookery supplied, and the family instructed in the "amenities." It is now to be "decorated," so far as it may be done by the needles or the brushes of the presumptively feminine side of the house.

The first of the above-named books will pave the way for the specific instruction-books rather than supplant them; for it is neither very full nor very definite. The same may be said of the drawings, which suggest enough perhaps to the expert, but for beginners are inadequate. The descriptions are pretty, even if sometimes a little overdone. For instance, we should hardly have made so much of the piano-cover, No. 64, as the author does: "Two little birds in an apple-tree bough are pouring out floods of melody, while a rabbit, entranced, pauses in his delight and erects his ears to their utmost limit in his desire to catch the strain in its entirety. This design, worked upon crimson or deep-blue satin in outline-work, the blossoms only in raised French knot, would be simply charming." Painting is only hinted at, and but four pages are devoted to wood-carving. It is possible that the other eleven-twelfths of the book represent fairly the proportion which should be given to embroidery in house decoration while the present craze for it lasts. But since the author's aim is evidently to awaken a taste for it in circles not yet reached, it is well to warn the uninitiated of the perishable nature of much of such work. These decorations need constant renewal to prevent shabbiness, exposed as they must be to coal-dust, etc., through our long winters. The book gallantly follows the lead of its

superiors in insisting upon "artistic" feeling, purity of design, and the like; but we fail to see wherein the ornamentation of curtains with patterns made out of brass rings or white buttons is any more artistic than the now much-scorned shell or leather-work of twenty years ago.

The subject of 'Home Amusements' deserves more careful treatment than it has received from "M. E. W. S.," who gives a catalogue of names, not a treatise on the subject; for very few games are more than mentioned. The premise of the book is that all amusements are home amusements, and that nearly everything else may be made into an amusement; so that it begins in the attic with theatricals, and ends in the kitchen with clear-starching. *En passant*, it includes the "Archery Club," which could never be strictly a home affair, and lawn-tennis, which can but rarely be so; while it excludes, of all things the most fit for the parlor fireside, chess, in this cavalier fashion: "As for chess, the devotee of this heavy, remorseless game has no further need of our help or sympathy. We can offer no suggestions except that he may be left undisturbed." There are some sprightly pages on such subjects as fans, tapestry, and garden-parties, but they are not improved by an extravagance like this: "The old tapestry, done by hand when there were no Gobelins, had a meaning and a use. So has the modern tapestry done by hand. It is cheap, it is individual, it is original; but for the Gobelins, that favorite luxury of kings, we fail to see an excuse." Or, "Favors for the German now often cost $5,000 for one fashionable sale." The whole of the concluding chapter is written in a similar vein, to the effect that the modern young lady is vastly better off than her grandmother, who was shut up "within four dreary walls," with no "Kensington stitch," no painting, "artistic, sincere." "There were quiet dinners, and very many 'Germans,' but they were conducted inexpensively, at the hotels almost universally."

We need quote no more to show the writer's entire ignorance of social life fifty years ago. As to the dress, is not she the most envied girl of her set who is radiant in her grandmother's brocade? As for needle-work, how many baby's caps and socks are carefully worn once by each succeeding child, for the sake of the great-grandmother's stitches? and what more precious than the embroidered vest which grandfather wore on his wedding-day? It would not take much research to prove that in proportion to the wealth of the community and the possibilities of travel and intercourse, they had and did in the thirties quite as much as, if not more than, we. In the chapter on theatricals more might have been said about them as a resource for children, of course limiting them solely to a home amusement. The French have made great use of them for this purpose, and there are numerous plays, for girls and boys, or for either sex apart, that are as beautiful as they are simple. "Les Sabots de Noël" and "Le Déjeuner de l'Empereur" are each a little idyl; while "Le Laquais de Madame," a fitting pendent for "Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme," is an actual study in history, and yet not at all beyond bright girls. The need is growing for occupation that is a little more than amusing, in the long summers now spent in rather remote country-houses, and a French play for the children will entertain both old and young.

The Journal of Hellenic Studies. Vol. II. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1881.

The second issue of this work is perhaps hardly equal in interest to its predecessor. Certainly no article of the same literary excellence as Prof. Jebb's monograph on Delos in vol. i. enlivens the somewhat dull average of most of the new papers. The editors have, we think, done wisely to issue the work in two yearly parts; for attempts such as this is to popularize subjects so remote from every-day interest as excavations in Greece and Asia Minor, with the results they yield in fragmentary inscriptions and mutilated works of art, need artificial help merely to live; and readers who put down a complete volume of 400 pages with a shrug, will sometimes brace themselves to the task of mastering 200 without tedium.

The only purely literary article in the present series is Mr. Tozer's on Byzantine satire. Anna Comnena, in a passage of the 'Alexiad,' speaking of a conspiracy among the courtiers against her father Alexius Comnenus, says they wrote scurrilous pamphlets (φάμουσα) and flung them into the Emperor's tent. A good many such Byzantine satires of various dates exist in manuscript—not less than twelve in the National Library of Paris alone. Two of them, 'Timarion's Sufferings' and 'The Sojourn of Mazaris in Hades,' have been published, the first by Hase, the latter by Boissonade. 'Timarion' was written in the first half of the twelfth century; 'Mazaris' in the beginning of the fifteenth. The subject of both is the same—an imaginary visit to the infernal regions. The author imitated is Lucian, whose writings were much studied under the Byzantine Emperors, and who has introduced this topic—life in the under-world—in four of his works, the 'Dialogues of the Dead,' the 'Cataplus,' the 'De Luctu,' and the 'Vera Historia.' The work, however, which is most directly imitated in 'Timarion,' the 'Necyomantia,' though ordinarily ascribed to Lucian, is now generally believed to be by an imitator. Abstracts of both 'Timarion' and 'Mazaris' are given by Mr. Tozer, as interesting as such highly shadowy creations usually are. There is some fancy in both, and a good deal of real humor in 'Mazaris'; but, speaking generally, the classical model is too palpable. The remarks on the Greek in which these satires are written are, however, of much value, and written with Mr. Tozer's usual care.

Next to this in importance is Prof. Jebb's 'Homeric and Hellenic Ilium,' in which, after premising the ground-fact ascertained by Dr. Schliemann that Hissarlik was inhabited at a prehistoric period, and *might* therefore be the site of the Homeric Ilium, he contributes to the controversy a review of the passages in ancient authors in which (1) the belief of these writers as to the site of Homeric Ilium is stated; (2) the history of the Greek city known in historical times as Ilium is traced. Whatever Dr. Schliemann's researches will eventually be considered to prove, there can be no doubt as to the importance of such an historical review of ancient testimony as Prof. Jebb here gives us; and this will atone for the comparative absence of literary finish which this paper presents as contrasted with that on Delos in the first volume.

Those who are interested in excavations will read with pleasure Dr. Schliemann's 'Explorations of the Bœotian Orchemenos.' Two previous attempts have been made to excavate the Treasury of Minyas, early in the century, by the artists in Lord Elgin's employ, and in 1862 by Gadakes, demarch of Skripu. Dr. Schliemann excavated systematically *from above*, and ascribes his success mainly to doing so. He used crowbars, pickaxes, shovels, and broad hoes, and employed from 100 to 121 laborers, one-half of them women. Pausanias describes the Treasury as a round stone building, rising into an obtuse point. Of this K. O. Müller believed a large marble slab to be the single surviving remnant; it was reserved for Dr. Schliemann to uncover it sufficiently to ascertain its measurement and to be able to describe it in detail. It is smaller by three feet and some inches than the Treasury of Atreus at Mycenæ (which is 50 feet in diameter), and contains, besides, a thalamos, on its east side, approached by a corridor. The ceiling of this thalamos has a splendid ornamentation, a sculptured border of small squares, followed by a border of large rosettes. Throughout the whole length of the thalamos are rows of fine spirals interwoven with palm-leaves, between each pair of which a long bud shoots forth. We look for an illustration of this rare discovery with interest.

Far inferior in result to these explorations are Mr. W. M. Ramsay's contributions to the history of Southern Aeolis. The "finds" cannot be pronounced important, or in any way considerable. Their chief interest is in the new light they throw on the geography of Cume and the towns near it—Temnos, Myrina, Larissa, Ægææ, and Neon Teichos. Coming to inscriptions, one of the principal departments to which the Journal is devoted, we are pleased to find articles by such eminent men in this line as Mr. C. T. Newton, Mr. E. L. Hicks, and M. Domenico Comparetti. M. Comparetti's article on two inscriptions from Olympia challenges special attention, partly by the ingenuity with which it treats two very obscure epigraphic remains, partly by its freedom of treatment. Mr. E. S. Roberts continues his account of the Dodonæan inscriptions recently given to the world by M. Karapanos. His former notice of these inscriptions has elicited a letter from Dr. Wordsworth, Bishop of Lincoln, who shows, with pardonable pride, that fifty years ago, at a time when the site of Dodona was still a problem, his divination had fixed on the right spot.

Among the papers devoted to art may be mentioned Mr. A. S. Murray's, on Perspective as applied in Early Greek art; Mr. C. Smith's, on a kylix containing the exploits of Theseus, and on vase-representations of actors with bird-masks; and Mr. Waldstein's continuation of his article on Pythagoras of Rhegion and the Early Athlete statues. None of these can compare in fulness with Mr. Sidney Colvin's learned diatribe on the Centaur, in the first volume of the Journal. The only other article which calls for special mention is Mr. Percy Gardner's interesting paper on Boat-races among the Greeks. Mr. Verrall's continuation "On some Ionic Elements in Attic Tragedy" is as unconvincing in its conclusions as it is vigorous in style.

America. A History. I. The United States. II. Dominion of Canada. III. South America, etc. By Robert Mackenzie. London and New York: T. Nelson & Sons. 1882. 8vo, pp. 564.

Mr. Mackenzie's 'America' is well planned to meet the needs of those Englishmen who wish a compendious history of all the American States; and it will not be unacceptable to Americans who desire to know something of the history of the other nations of North and South America. For the latter class it would be well worth while to reprint parts 2 and 3 by themselves; but even for these, again, part 1 contains a very good history of their own country, and all the more valuable as being from an English point of view. The book is to be commended in every way—in temper and spirit, in accuracy and fulness of knowledge, in graphic and interesting narrative. The first part, on the United States, contains 308 pages, rather more than half the work. A postscript of six pages (p. 303) gives the administration of General Garfield; and from a foot-note on this page we regret to learn that the author died after completing the work. Perhaps it would have been hard to illustrate with suitable maps a history which covers so much

territory; but if there had been such a map, it would probably not have been said (p. 117) that "Burgoyne marched deep into the New England States."

An Elementary Treatise on Electricity. By James Clerk Maxwell, M. A. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1881.

THE announcement of the appearance of this treatise has excited the interest of all students of electricity; for the author had shown in his little book on 'Heat' that he could write a most suggestive work on the elements of a scientific subject. The present work, however, is disappointing, if the student looks for new matter; for, with the exception of a few paragraphs upon electrical distribution, and portions of chapter x., which treats of electrical entrophy, he will find nothing which is not contained in the larger treatise on 'Electricity and Magnetism,' by the same author. The editor of the 'Elementary Treatise' informs the public that the friends of Maxwell, finding the manuscript in an unfinished state, resolved to print it with such additions from vol. i. of the larger work as would make it cover the ground of the latter. Its chief *raison d'être*, therefore, appears to be in the fact that the non-mathematical portions of vol. i. of the larger work have been separated from the analytical portions, in order to make the former more accessible to the general reader.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Black, W. The Four Macnicols. New York: Harper & Brothers.
Bowne, B. P. Metaphysics: a Study in First Principles. New York: Harper & Brothers.
Browning, O. Introduction to the History of Educational Theories. New York: Harper & Bros.
Buchanan, R. God and the Man. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Child, L. Maria. Isaac T. Hopper: a True Life. A new edition. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Crosby, W. O. Common Minerals and Rocks. No. xii. of Guides for Science-Teaching. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.
Daudet, A. Numa Roumestan. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Delbrück, B. Introduction to the Study of Language. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Düntzer, H. Lessing's Leben. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Emerson, L. O. The Male-Voice Choir. Boston: Oliver Ditson & Co. 50 cents.
Emmerton, J. A. Materials toward a Genealogy of the Emmerton Family. Salem.
Fisher, O. Physics of the Earth's Crust. London: Macmillan & Co.
Fowle, T. W. The Poor Law. London: Macmillan & Co. $1.
Gibbon, C. A Heart's Problem. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 10 cents.
Griswold, W. M. Manual of Misused Words. 2d ed. Bangor, Me.: Q. P. Index. 25 cents.
Holland, J. G. Every-day Topics. First and Second Series. 2 vols. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Hoppin, J. M. Homiletics. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $3 50.
Johnston, A. History of American Politics. New and enlarged ed. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Kant, I. Zum ewigen Frieden. Leipzig: Philipp Reclam, jr.
Ladd, G. T. The Principles of Church Polity. Southworth Lectures at Andover. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.
Masson, G. The Huguenots. London and New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.
Methodist Year-Book for 1882. New York: Phillips & Hunt. 10 cents.
New Testament in Greek, as revised by Westcott and Hort. With Introduction and Appendix. New York: Harper & Bros.
Preble, Rear-Admiral G. H. History of the Flag of the U. S. A. 3d ed. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $7 50.
Q. P. Index Annual for 1881: *International, Popular Science, Century, Harper's, Lippincott's, Atlantic, Nation, Living Age, Eclectic.* Bangor, Me.: Q. P. Index. $1.
Reading Diary of Modern Fiction. New York: F. Leypoldt.
Rolfe, W. J. Shakespeare's Comedy of Measure for Measure. New York: Harper & Bros.
Ruge, A. Geschichte unsrer Zeit, von den Freiheitskriegen bis zum Ausbruche des deutsch-französischen Krieges. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Simon, E. A. F. Historical Epochs, with System of Mnemonics. New York: Taintor Brothers, Merrill & Co. 50 cents.
Smith, H. B. Lectures on Apologetics. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.
Stacke, L. Deutsche Geschichte. Part 6 and last. New York: L. W. Schmidt.
Stallo, J. B. The Concepts and Theories of Modern Physics. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $1 75.
Story's Commentaries on the Law of Agency. Ninth edition. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Taylor, D. T. The Reign of Christ on Earth. Boston: Scriptural Tract Depository. $1 25.
Taylor, J. R. Macon Moore, the Southern Detective. New York: J. S. Ogilvie & Co. 25 cents.
Taylor, C. F. Sensation and Pain. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Tender and True: Poems of Love. Boston: George H. Ellis. $1.
Thatcher, E. Digest of Statutes, Rules, and Decisions relative to the Jurisdiction and Practice of the U. S. Supreme Court. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Thorold, Bishop A. W. The Gospel of Christ. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1 25.
Vincent, J. H. No. 35 of Chautauqua Text-Books: Outlines of General History. New York: Phillips & Hunt.
Walpole, S. The Electorate and the Legislature. London: Macmillan & Co. $1.
Westcott, Canon B. F. The Revelation of the Risen Lord. London and Cambridge: Macmillan & Co. $1 75.
Whedon's Commentary on the Old Testament. Vol. v. Psalms. By F. G. Hibbard. New York: Phillips & Hunt $2 25.
Willard, A. J. Examination of the Law of Personal Rights. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $2 50.
Wislicenus, J. Adolph Strecker's Organic Chemistry. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $5.
Woolsey, T. D. Divorce and Divorce Legislation in the United States. Second revised edition. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.
Winsor, J. Memorial History of Boston. Vol. iv. and last. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.

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JANUARY 1, 1882.

Amount of Net Cash Assets, January 1, 1881 ..... $41,344,120 85

REVENUE ACCOUNT.

Premiums	$8,438,684 07	
Less deferred premiums Jan. 1, 1881	387,972 13	—$8,050,711 94
Interest and rents (including realized gains on real estate sold)	2,789,821 70	
Less interest accrued Jan. 1, 1881	357,167 37	— 2,432,654 33 —$10,483,366 27
		$51,827,487 12

DISBURSEMENT ACCOUNT.

Losses by death, including Reversionary additions to same	$2,013,203 32	
Endowments matured and discounted, including Reversionary additions to same	564,924 96	
Annuities, dividends, and returned premiums on cancelled policies	2,513,691 94	
Total paid Policyholders	$5,091,820 22	
Taxes and re-insurances	224,772 24	
Commissions, brokerages, agency expenses, and physicians' fees	1,001,027 59	
Office and law expenses, salaries, advertising, printing, etc	379,860 21	— $6,697,480 26
		$45,130,006 86

ASSETS.

Cash in bank, on hand, and in transit (since received)	$1,271,588 41	
Invested in United States, N. Y. City, and other stocks (market value, $19,315,306 20)	17,216,531 42	
Real estate	4,486,506 62	
Bonds and mortgages, first lien on real estate (buildings thereon insured for $16,940,000, and the policies assigned to the Company as additional collateral security)	18,215,030 73	
Temporary loans (secured by stocks, market value, $2,883,577 50)	2,376,000 00	
* Loans on existing policies, reserve held by the Company on these policies amounts to $2,879,000)	545,227 34	
* Quarterly and semi-annual premiums on existing policies, due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1882	452,161 00	
* Premiums on existing policies in course of transmission and collection (estimated reserve on these policies, $300,000 liabilities)	227,032 97	
Agents' balances	48,673 57	
Accrued interest on investments Jan. 1, 1882	291,254 80	—$45,130,006 86
Excess of market value of securities over cost		$2,098,774 78

* *A detailed schedule of these items will accompany the usual annual report filed with the Insurance Department of the State of New York.*

John Robson 268 Box 335 6282

CASH ASSETS, Jan. 1, 1882 ..... $47,228,781 64

APPROPRIATED AS FOLLOWS:

Adjusted losses, due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1882	$361,544 70
Reported losses, awaiting proof, etc	187,439 98
Matured endowments, due and unpaid (claims not presented)	50,252 67
Annuities, due and unpaid (uncalled for)	2,965 35
Reserved for re-insurance on existing policies; participating insurance at 4 per cent. Carlisle net premium; non-participating at 5 per cent. Carlisle net premium	39,716,408 63
Reserved for contingent liabilities to Tontine Dividend Fund, over and above a 4 per cent. reserve on existing policies of that class	2,054,244 03
Reserved for premiums paid in advance	28,889 67
	$42,401,745 03
Divisible Surplus at 4 per cent	4,827,036 61
Estimated Surplus by the New York State Standard at 4½ per cent, over	10,000,000 00

From the undivided surplus of $4,827,036 the Board of Trustees has declared a Reversionary dividend to participating policies in proportion to their contribution to surplus, available on settlement of next annual premium.

During the year 9,941 policies have been issued, insuring $32,374,281.

Number of Policies in force	Jan. 1, 1878, 45,605. Jan. 1, 1879, 45,005. Jan. 1, 1880, 45,705. Jan. 1, 1881, 48,548. Jan. 1, 1882, 53,927.	Amount at risk.	Jan. 1, 1878, $127,901,887. Jan. 1, 1879, 125,232,144. Jan. 1, 1880, 127,417,763. Jan. 1, 1881, 135,726,916. Jan. 1, 1882, 151,760,824.
Death-claims paid.	1877, $1,638,128. 1878, 1,687,676. 1879, 1,569,854. 1880, 1,731,721. 1881, 2,013,203.	Income from Interest.	1877, $1,867,457. 1878, 1,948,665. 1879, 2,033,650. 1880, 2,317,889. 1881, 2,432,654.
Divisible Surplus at 4 per cent.	Jan. 1, 1878, $2,664,144. Jan. 1, 1879, 2,811,436. Jan. 1, 1880, 3,120,371. Jan. 1, 1881, 4,295,096. Jan. 1, 1882, 4,827,036.		

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 23, 1882.

The Week.

EARLY in the week there were further exports of gold to Europe, to the amount of $1,328,157, which brings the total specie exports since January 1 up to $7,080,177, or much the largest in the corresponding time of any year since 1875, when $13,467,000 were sent out between the 1st of January and the middle of February. About the middle of the week the rates for foreign exchange fell below the gold-exporting point, and so continued, although at the close the market for foreign exchange was firmer. The fall in these rates was due, first, to the fact that the foreign money markets had become easier, the Bank of England and the Bank of France having steadily gained specie; and, second, to the collapse of the "bull speculation" in breadstuffs, provisions, and cotton, which enabled larger exports of these commodities, and therefore increased the supply of commercial bills. As the week closed, however, the speculation in breadstuffs and provisions at Chicago appeared to be gathering strength again, and threatened to clog the export movement. The New York banks lost about $3,000,000 of their surplus reserve last week, which left them with only a little over $1,000,000 above twenty-five per cent. of their liabilities. The Treasury is steadily drawing into its vaults money from the banks (its receipts last week exceeded its disbursements by nearly $3,500,000), and no order has yet been issued to prepay without rebate any part of the $40,000,000 of bonds included in the 107th and 108th calls. At the Stock Exchange United States bonds declined ⅛@⅜; Southern State bonds first advanced 1@4 per cent. for Tennessees and then fell 1@6 per cent. In the stock market, prices generally declined, and there were several stocks which fell heavily. The chief of these was Louisville and Nashville, which sold early in the week as high as 90⅜, and late in the week as low as 67½. Memphis and Charleston fell 19½ points, Wabash preferred 12, the common 7¼, Denver and Rio Grande 9⅝, Chattanooga 8, Canada Southern 6½, Kansas and Texas 6, and Michigan Central 5¾. There was no general panic, and no failures; and the breaking down alluded to appeared to be the closing up of the liquidation which has been going on since last June. General mercantile business continues large in volume and satisfactory as to profits. Collections were never more promptly made.

The immediate result of the break in the wheat market has been to force speculators in that commodity to sell Stock Exchange securities in order to sustain themselves as holders of grain. There never has been a time when these two branches of speculation were so closely dovetailed together. There are large brokers' houses in New York, originally confined to dealings in stocks, where grain and stocks are handled in about equal proportions, while some have added cotton also to their other lines of business. When these diverse branches of trade are brought together under the same roof and in the same broker's office, it is a sure sign that the buyers and sellers of stocks and grain are in many instances the same persons, and that any shock received on one side will be immediately felt on the other side. Such has been the case in this instance. Nevertheless, the reasoning which led the public to look for relief in the stock market from the long depression consequent upon the railroad war, the change of Administration, the collapse in Paris, and the rise in the foreign exchanges, was founded upon sound premises. The grain speculation was the standing menace to all other kinds of business. It not only clogged the channels of commerce, but it imposed artificial burdens upon all productive industry. It was a private bread tax which rich and poor alike were compelled to pay. The first requisite of renewed activity in trade was to force this barrier. It seems to have been broken down, but if not wholly demolished it has been much shattered. Perhaps another convulsion will be needed to clear away the débris. If we have more grain and provisions on hand than is needed for home consumption between now and next harvest, the surplus will infallibly go abroad, and prices will infallibly go down to the point at which foreigners are willing to buy it. The speculators have miscalculated the amount of grain in the country, and are now paying for their error.

Secretary Folger's reply to the Senate Committee on Finance, regarding the bill now pending to prevent the over-certification of bank checks, implies that he has serious doubts as to the expediency of such legislation, although as a lawyer he holds that existing laws ought to be either enforced or repealed. There is a statute in force which prohibits over-certification; but as there is no penalty attached to it, and as it is opposed to business interests as understood by prudent and conservative bankers, it has remained a dead letter. It is proposed by Senator Beck's bill to provide such penalties for over-certification as will actually deter bankers from the practice. If the bill passes, and has the intended effect, the result will be the establishment of a stock clearing house on the plan of the "settlement days" of the London and Continental Exchanges. The rule in New York requires that all purchases of stocks and bonds made to-day shall be paid for in cash before 2:15 P. M. to-morrow. If anybody fails to pay, his stock is bought in or sold out "under the rule" before three o'clock. In this way every day's business is swept out of the way before the next day's business begins. There are no leavings or tailings to be looked after, nor any anxious thoughts to arise regarding a future "settlement day." As compared with the system prevailing in the foreign Bourses, ours is decidedly the safer and more conservative, and we should look upon any legislation or movement having the tendency to abolish the cash payment and to substitute deferred payments, or the payment of differences, with great distrust. So far as the proposed legislation seeks to check stock speculation, it will prove a failure. The requirement of cash payment is itself the best possible check upon reckless speculation, for the money market is its daily controlling force. Under the clearing system, cash is not required to nearly so great an extent. Consequently, the proposed bill, instead of putting an additional curb upon stock gambling, will remove the most efficient one which now holds it in check.

The conference between high naval officers and the House Committee on Naval Affairs at the office of the Secretary of the Navy last week, on the best manner of restoring our navy, was very interesting, but leaves us somewhat in the dark as to the kind of navy which such men as Admiral Porter and Admiral Rodgers think we ought to have. Admiral Porter alleged that in two instances of recent occurrence the construction of "fast and powerful vessels intended to prey on an enemy's commerce" had averted war. The first instance was when "trouble was threatened by France and England" during the rebellion, and the other was when "Great Britain was on the eve of war with Russia," in 1877. In both these cases the construction of fast cruisers had, according to Admiral Porter, imposed peace on England. At the same time, both he and Admiral John Rodgers asked for big ironclads, and approved of Mr. Harris's plan of building three large ironclads and three torpedo-boats for the protection of harbors. Admiral Raymond Rodgers, however, went back to the first cruiser idea, and said that "magnified, greatly improved *Alabamas*" would "greatly impress every property-holder in England with a sense of the great danger of making war on this country." Now, if it is *Alabamas* which would strike so much terror into foreign enemies, terror so great as to prevent them from thinking of war at all, it would seem as if it was much more important to have them in readiness than the large ironclads, or at all events as if we needed a little fleet of them besides the ironclads. We may add that we think the picture which Admirals Porter and Rodgers draw of the bellicose attitude of the "English property-holder" is simply a survival of an old naval tradition. That personage is occupied, and likely to be occupied for many a year to come, with other ideas than that of making war on the United States. If he is our principal European enemy, we shall not need much of a navy to fill his breast with the deepest sense of the brotherhood of man and the horrors of war.

The common-sense view of the matter seems to be that the building of an ironclad fleet is too expensive a luxury to be indulged in by a nation that is not in constant apprehension of

warlike complications. It is expensive, not only because the first outlay is very great, but also because when the ironclads are two or three years old they are apt to be useless. There is a constant race going on between defensive armor and artillery. To-day an armor is constructed which no projectile as yet in use will pierce. To-morrow a gun is made that will shoot an iron bolt right through it. Then still stronger armor is made, and immediately afterward a gun still more powerful. It is with ironclad ships now as it was, after the invention of gunpowder and the introduction of firearms, with coats of mail and other defensiye contrivances of warriors. As firearms came into more general use and became more perfect, breast plates and shields were abandoned altogether, care was taken to make the soldier more agile and light as to arms and accoutrements, and rapid manœuvring became the correspondingly important feature of military tactics. If the development of naval warfare lies in the same direction, the heavy ironclads will in no very distant future be abandoned; and the policy of nations which are not obliged to provide for immediate warlike necessities is evidently to build unarmored but very swift vessels, with a few heavy guns, which in a conflict make up for the lack of defensive strength by rapidity of movement, and which are best adapted to the business of sweeping an adversary's commercial marine from the seas. This is really what the naval officers in the conference mean, but it does not form part of the committee's report.

The objections to General Logan's bill to put General Grant on the retired list only grow in force as time goes on. The strongest argument in its favor two years ago was that he was at that time poor, or was supposed to be poor, or poorer than a man who has rendered the country such distinguished service ought to be. Since then this argument has been knocked to pieces. He has accepted a quarter of a million of dollars as a gift from wealthy capitalists, and has been engaged in railroad enterprises, from which it is fair to presume he has issued with more or less profit. He is living, too—and there is, under the circumstances, no indelicacy in mentioning the fact—in apparent affluence, and has just paid one thousand dollars for a year's occupancy of a pew in a fashionable church. In fact, he is anything but a warworn veteran in reduced circumstances. If it be said that, no matter how well off he is, the country owes it to itself to reward him substantially, the answer is that it has done so. It gave him at the close of the war a permanent and highly paid office of great dignity. He threw it up of his own accord. It then made him President for as many terms as any President had ever received, and for one term he received double the salary ever paid to any of his predecessors. If it owes him something still in money, it must be on grounds which will cover the case of every other man who has served the state with distinction in any field, whether as inventor, or statesman, or thinker. If this be true, it is absurd to use the retired list of the army as the means of rewarding him. The best plan is to bestow a pension on him without disguise, on the simple ground that he has deserved well of his country; but if we do so, it ought to be by a general act, under which all distinguished Americans who think they deserve well of their country may file their claims to an annuity. There was one other argument in favor of the Logan bill, of which we at one time thought well—namely, that if General Grant were put on the retired list, he would go out of politics, and thus relieve the minds of a vast number of his truest friends and admirers. But it appears to be now certain that the more money he has the fonder of politics he grows, and that we shall probably in every canvass hear him on the stump.

The House of Representatives on Thursday adopted an amendment to the Apportionment Bill fixing the membership of the House at 325. With this number only three States have any smaller representation than before—Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont each losing one member. South Carolina gains two and Texas five, and the entire delegations from these States voted for the bill, as did also several Democrats from Louisiana and Maryland, States which are unaffected by the reapportionment. The new bill will add thirty-two members to the House. It provides that in the States to which additional members are assigned these members shall be elected at large, unless the State itself provides otherwise, and likewise that where the whole number is decreased the entire number shall be elected at large, unless the State creates a district system by law. The result was a disagreeable surprise to the Democrats, and at one time there was such an excitement over the bill that the clerk could not call the roll, while the Speaker disclaimed all responsibility for the moblike behavior of the House. Every Democrat of any prominence had a "favorite number," the adoption of which he thought would be calculated to have the happiest effect on the numerical future of the country; but the Republicans, knowing what bitter passions mathematical disputes of this kind are apt to arouse in the calmest breasts, wisely sank their private individual differences in a caucus-number for the sake of harmony, and accordingly triumphed over their opponents. We are sorry to see it stated that the chief consideration among them was "the probable political division of the electoral vote." This can only be among those who are accustomed to take low, partisan views of great mathematical questions, and not among the real scientists of the party.

Mrs. Julia Ward Howe has published a letter, with regard to the social treatment of Oscar Wilde, that has attracted a good deal of attention in Massachusetts. Colonel T. W. Higginson, it seems, objects to the entertainment of Mr. Wilde in private houses, and Mrs. Howe, having entertained him herself, feels called upon to make a statement of her reasons. Admitting, she says, that Mr. Wilde is a bad young man, still "to cut off even an offending member of society from its best influences and most humanizing resources is scarcely Christian in any sense." Women, she says, are not merely "the guardians of the public purity," but they are also "the proper representatives of tender hope and divine compassion." Consequently, "if, as alleged, the poison found in the ancient classics is seen to linger too deeply in his veins, I should not prescribe for his case the coarse, jeering, and intemperate scolding so easily administered through the public prints, but a cordial and kindly intercourse with that which is soundest, sweetest, and purest in our own society." This is a new view of the relation which society ought to adopt toward the æsthete; and that it should exist at all, accounts in a measure for the increasing seriousness of the discussion about him in New England. The suggestion that the author of "Charmides" may be made pure and good by cordial and kindly intercourse with the ladies of Boston, will probably make the young man and his manager weep for joy.

The accounts which have been coming in of late from the smaller colleges and the "safe" country colleges do not seem to support the confidence of parents in the manners and morals of these institutions. It is only three weeks since a large body of Princeton students were indicted for riotous behavior in the streets of Trenton, and pleaded guilty. Cornell has just had to suspend a large body of students for kidnapping freshmen. At Lafayette College (Penn.), some of the undergraduates have just been arrested and fined for riotous conduct and resisting the police in a public hall. At Williston College (Mass.), the two upper classes have mutinied because the Faculty refused to reinstate three students who were suspended for hazing. Six of the ringleaders have been expelled. On Wednesday week there was a riot in the streets of New Haven, caused by a fight between two bodies of students, and it had to be suppressed by the police. This arose out of an attempt of the sophomores to prevent the freshmen from carrying "bangers," or canes. In fact, the origin of all these rows is so silly as to show either that the young men are not fit to leave home and be released from parental authority, or that the college rule is of a kind to maintain the childish spirit without having the power to keep it within proper bounds. We commend the subject to the consideration of those who are deploring the attempt to convert the American college into a university.

Lord Granville's despatches to Mr. West are mainly occupied with a reply to Mr. Blaine's argument that the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty ought to be modified, because it has been the cause of so much misunderstanding and irritation between the United States and England. By a mass of extracts from the correspondence which passed between the two Governments between 1856 and 1858, Mr. Blaine undertook to establish that "the vexatious and imperfect character of the treaty has been repeatedly recognized on both sides," and to explain his wish "to free it from those embarrassing features, and to leave it, as its framers intended it should be, a full and perfect settlement for all time of all possible issues between the United States and Great Britain with regard to Central America." In answer to this, Lord Granville

says in substance that the reason Mr. Blaine was able to show this was, that he did not bring his history of the dispute about the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty down far enough; that if he had continued it for two years, the correspondence would have proved that all the causes of dispute and annoyance had been removed, to the satisfaction of our Government, and that the settlement was even officially announced by it. The trouble over the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty which arose soon after its ratification had nothing to do, as one might infer from Mr. Blaine's despatches that it had, with the question of a joint guarantee. The policy of a joint guarantee was never repudiated by our Government till Mr. Blaine became Secretary of State, and Mr. Fish, as late as 1877, entered into a correspondence with the Nicaraguan Minister with a view to carrying into effect the scheme of a general maritime guarantee. The matters in dispute on which Mr. Blaine grounded his despatch to Mr. Lowell related to the interpretation of other clauses of the treaty: the question of the boundary of Belize; the transfer of the Bay Islands to Honduras, and other matters relating to the Mosquito Indians; the British protectorate of the Mosquito Coast, and the claims of British subjects. That part of the correspondence to which Mr. Blaine omitted to refer shows that the first was settled April 30, 1859, by a treaty between Great Britain and Guatemala, and the remainder by treaties with Honduras and Nicaragua, on November 21, 1859, and January 28, 1860; that copies of these three treaties were officially communicated to the United States Government, with the expression of a hope on the part of the British Government that they would finally set at rest the questions respecting the interpretation of the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, which had been the subject of so much controversy between the two countries; and finally, that in his last message to Congress Mr. Buchanan declared that the dangerous questions arising from the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty had been "amicably and honorably adjusted. The discordant constructions of the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty between the two Governments, which at different periods of the discussion bore a threatening aspect, have resulted in a final settlement entirely satisfactory to this Government."

In other words, Mr. Blaine proposed that the treaty should be modified on the express ground that there was an outstanding dispute as to its interpretation, the fact being that the misunderstanding had been declared removed by the President of the United States in a message to Congress; so that the only way in which Mr. Blaine was able to show that there was any dispute was by bringing its history down to the point where England yielded the question at issue, and closing his narrative as if nothing more had been done. It looks as if Mr. Blaine must have had some theory of his own about the true method of conducting the foreign business of the Government, based on principles hitherto unrecognized in diplomacy. Unfortunately he left the State Department just as he was beginning to show what it was and how it would work in practice, so that its exact nature will probably always remain a profound mystery. There could scarcely be a more striking commentary on his "policy" than the news that Guatemala has quietly offered a treaty to Mexico to settle their boundary dispute by conceding all that Mexico claimed.

It now appears that the "first-class American house" which M. Suarez said he "promised" Mr. Evarts, on behalf of the Crédit Industriel, should be made the American agents of the company for the sale of the Peruvian guano and nitrates, if it got hold of them, was the banking house of Morton, Bliss & Co., of this city. The object of going to a "first-class American house" was, M. Suarez reported to the president of the company (February 18, 1881), "to render the grounds for American intervention more evident, and fully justify the dominant attitude of the United States Government on the Pacific question," or, in plainer English, to create a pecuniary interest for some one which would be useful in precipitating American intervention for the benefit of the company. We have several times asked what, if anything, has been done under this promise, and the answer has been furnished by the publication, by the Boston *Advertiser*, of the contract between the Crédit Industriel and Messrs. Morton, Bliss & Co. We believe the negotiations for this contract were begun with General Noyes, but dropped when it was found he was coming home; were resumed when Mr. Morton came out, and concluded with him in August of last year. As Mr. Morton occupied, when the contract was made, the position of American Minister in Paris, a satisfactory explanation of his entering, or allowing his house to enter, into this truly remarkable agreement will be very appropriate; in fact, it may be pronounced absolutely necessary to his retention of his post. The scandal has now penetrated into the Stalwart camp.

Mr. Gladstone has explained his language about Irish Home Rule, but the explanation is not much if any clearer than the thing explained. He says now that decentralization to the utmost extent consistent with Imperial supremacy should be the policy of Parliament toward Ireland, as well as other parts of the country, and that when the Irish prepare a plan of decentralization it ought to receive due consideration, not as a step toward separation, but as a step toward improvement in the Government. The Tory and Whig press is, however, firmly of opinion that in even speaking of decentralization at all he has given encouragement to the Irish Separationists, and that it is dangerous to talk of Home Rule as even a possibility. There is no doubt that his speech will encourage the Home Rulers, and there is equally little doubt that the Home Rulers mean by decentralization a good deal more than Mr. Gladstone means. But it is also to be remembered that every concession made to the Irish has when first mentioned been denounced by the English press, on the ground that it would lead to some greater and less desirable concession. Catholic Emancipation was long fiercely resisted, not because it was in itself a bad thing, but because it would lead to the overthrow of Protestantism. Some Home Rule will have to come, and it cannot come without full discussion of all Home Rule. No discussion of human affairs can, in our time, be treated as dangerous.

Mr. Gladstone has struck one of his somewhat sensational blows in moving in the Commons that it is inexpedient to inquire into the working of the Land Act in Ireland. This is in reality a vote of censure on the Lords, who have lately carried a resolution to inquire into the working of the Land Act by a large majority against the Government; and it was received as such with loud Liberal cheers in the Commons. The matter is likely to excite a good deal of interest, because it touches on one of the anomalies of the British Constitution which every year becomes more embarrassing. A Tory Ministry always has a majority in both Houses, because the majority in the Lords remains permanently Tory, while a Liberal Ministry has only a majority in the Commons. This state of things is only made tolerable to Liberals by the majority in the Lords remaining very quiet and discreet when the Liberals are in office. If they became obstreperous and obstructive it would be intolerable. Their proposal to inquire into the working of the Land Act is, however, a direct and rather audacious attempt to impede the operation of the law, and bring it into discredit, and would only be justifiable if the Liberals had been beaten and driven out of power, or the Opposition in the Commons was able to carry a similar resolution Mr. Gladstone means now, however, to bring the strength of the Tories in the Lords into sharp contrast with their strength in the Commons, and thus administer a rebuke which it is to be hoped they will heed.

General Skobeleff's outburst has at least given a more distinct outline to the somewhat threatening situation which the Austrian troubles in Dalmatia and Herzegovina are creating in southeastern Europe The revolt has become, like most of the late revolts in that region, rather obscure in its progress and origin. The Austrians are pouring a large army into the provinces for its suppression—so large that the Servians and Russians and Turks begin to say that the insurrection has been encouraged, if not set on foot, for the purpose of furnishing an excuse for expansion in the direction of Salonica, which is now impending. In the meantime, all the neighboring Slavs, as in 1876, are beginning to sympathize or make common cause with the Dalmatians and Herzegovinians. The Prince of Montenegro is trying to stay neutral, but it is becoming more and more doubtful whether he can control his subjects. The Servians, too, are agitated just as they were in 1876 over the Bulgarian outrages, and General Skobeleff's denunciation of the Germans will certainly not have a pacifying effect. It has caused great annoyance at Berlin, and will undoubtedly have either to be formally repudiated, or countenanced, at St. Petersburg. In the latter case, we should perhaps enter on the last stage of the Eastern Question. But it is proper to add that it now begins to be ascribed to too much champagne.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

More correspondence in relation to Chili and Peru has been sent to Congress; among others, letters which passed between Mr. Blaine and Mr. Morton, United States Minister at Paris. From these letters it appears that, in August last, President Grévy had an informal talk with Mr. Morton in regard to the desirability of a mutual understanding between France and the United States in regard to some policy which might be adopted "to secure an early return of order and stability in the affairs of Chili and Peru." President Grévy also said that "another attempt at mediation on the part of foreign governments, and especially that of the United States," might have satisfactory results. Mr. Morton communicated this informal talk to Mr. Blaine, who thereupon wrote a despatch to Mr. Morton, in which he called President Grévy's proposed mediation "a concerted effort by France, Great Britain, and the United States," and objected to it. To this M. Grévy replied that he accorded entirely with the position taken by the United States in the matter.

On Friday, in response to a resolution adopted in the House, the President transmitted to Congress a letter from the Secretary of State, accompanied by a mass of documents, concerning the correspondence with the State Department in regard to the "Peruvian Company." Mr. Frelinghuysen states that only one of the eight missing letters of the correspondence with the State Department has been found.

On Wednesday the Senate discussed Mr. Edmunds's Anti-Polygamy Bill without being able to reach a vote. On Thursday, however, it was passed. The bill disfranchises and incapacitates for holding office all persons guilty of polygamy.

A resolution was presented to the House of Representatives on Saturday from the Legislature of Utah, which is principally composed of Mormons. The resolution recites that there are now pending, in the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States, bills having in view the disfranchisement of certain citizens of Utah and the appointment of a committee irresponsible to the people, but empowered to control the affairs of the Territory, and asks Congress, "in the name of the Declaration of Rights and the grand provisions of the Constitution, to pause, reflect, and investigate before responding to a wild, unreasoning pressure of public opinion wrought up by a misguided and misinformed religious influence"; and praying Congress not to resort to extreme measures, but to appoint a Commission to go to Utah and investigate the affairs of that Territory, with power to send for persons and papers.

On Monday Senator Logan called up his bill restoring General Grant to the army and retiring him with the pay of General, and a lively debate ensued.

On Tuesday, much to the surprise of every one, the Senate laid the Ingalls resolution respecting the Arrears of Pensions Bill on the table by a vote of 26 to 23.

The Apportionment Bill was amended in the House on Thursday, and in its final shape provides that there shall be 325 Representatives apportioned according to the old method. On Friday the bill was perfected and passed.

On Monday Mr. Cox's bill to promote the efficiency of the Life-Saving Service was passed by the House under a suspension of the rules. It provides for the establishment of thirty additional life-saving stations and six houses of refuge. On the same day the bill reported from the Committee on Foreign Affairs, to restore the Japanese indemnity fund, was passed. This bill provides that about $235,000 of the fund shall be given to the officers and crew of the United States ship *Wyoming* and to the officers and crew of the steamer *Takiang*. The remainder, amounting to about $1,500,000, is to be returned to Japan.

A bill was passed by the House on Thursday granting a pension of $5,000 a year to the widow of President Garfield.

Senator Miller, of New York, presented to the Senate, on Friday, a memorial from the Union League Club, of New York, in favor of the bill introduced by Mr. Blair to aid in the support and establishment of common schools.

The Senators and Representatives in Congress from New Jersey have addressed a letter to the President asking him to review the findings in the Fitz-John Porter case.

A bill has been introduced in the House to compel the Kansas Pacific Railroad to pay the whole cost of surveying, selecting, and conveying certain lands in the State of Kansas, amounting to more than 3,000,000 acres, which have hitherto been exempted from taxation under two decisions of the Supreme Court, which held that though the land had been granted to the road, it was still the property of the United States until patents for it had been issued therefor. In this way the company has been evading taxation on this large amount of land, which was granted it for purposes of construction.

The President has formally accepted the resignation of Ward Hunt as Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court, and will soon nominate his successor.

The House Committee on Pensions recently called for a list of officers of the Internal Revenue Bureau and the Department of Justice who have been killed or wounded in the execution of the revenue laws. The reply shows that in the last five years twenty-eight persons have been killed and sixty-four wounded in the struggle against illicit distilling.

The House Committee on Coinage, Weights and Measures have under consideration the subject of additional mint facilities, and bills are now pending before them which provide for the creation of mints at four or five different places.

It is said that the report of the Senate committee which has been investigating the Treasury contingent expenses will exonerate Senator Sherman and Major Power, chief clerk of the Treasury Department, from all the charges which have been made against them. The censure of the report will fall upon ex-Custodian Pitney and those around him, most of whom have been removed by Secretary Folger, who based his action on the testimony taken before the committee.

It is announced that the Grand Jury at Washington has presented for indictment, by a vote which was practically unanimous, Brady, the Dorsey brothers, Miner, Peck, Vaile, and others of the more prominent Star-route swindlers. This is looked upon as a great success for the prosecution. It is probable that the trials will be begun in April.

The failure of the prosecution in the Nebraska Star-route cases is said to have been due to the fact that the Postmaster of Deadwood, who had made a full confession, had fled, and the only other important Government witness refused to testify.

The Civil-Service Board of the New York Custom-house has announced the result of the recent examination of applicants for appointment. Nineteen of the eighty-five applicants for clerkships, fifty-five out of the one hundred and eighteen applicants for inspectorships, and forty-nine out of the eighty-seven applicants for night inspectorships passed the examination. There are no vacancies at present for one hundred and twenty-two of these successful candidates.

The Director of the Mint has decided that as soon as a coin is mutilated it ceases to be a coin, and is simply bullion, and that no patching or filling up of the holes can make it good.

Governor Cameron, of Virginia, has made a brilliant naval expedition during the week against certain piratical oystermen who have for some years caused great annoyance in the tide-water counties of the State by their bold depredations. They sailed in squadrons of from fifteen to twenty vessels, dredging the streams of the State and offering armed resistance to any one who might oppose them. Governor Cameron succeeded in capturing seven boats and sixty men after a short campaign which he led in person.

On Saturday a resolution offered in the Virginia Senate, rebuking Senator Mahone for his continued absence from sessions of the United States Senate and requesting him to return to his post of duty, was indefinitely postponed by a vote of 20 to 14.

The "deadlock" in the Virginia Legislature was broken on Friday by a straightout Republican, who has hitherto voted with the Democrats, voting with the Readjusters.

The Republican State Committee of Vermont has decided to hold a State Convention at Montpelier on the 21st of June next.

There have been great floods in the West. The Ohio and Missouri and Arkansas Rivers have risen so as to put an entire stop to traffic on many railroads, while great damage has been caused in the lower parts of Cincinnati in particular; Helena, Arkansas, is quite overflowed; and vast cotton-raising tracts in Mississippi have been submerged through the breaking of the levees.

There was a great fire in the city of Haverhill, Mass., on Friday, which destroyed most of the business portion of the town. The loss is estimated at over $2,000,000.

Bishop O'Farrel, of the newly-created Roman Catholic diocese of Trenton, New Jersey, has written a pastoral letter enjoining upon the clergy and laity a strict observance of the rules of the Church respecting marriage. The requirement that the banns of marriage must be public in all cases where a special dispensation is not obtained, is to be again enforced. The banns must be published from the altar, and a dispensation will be granted only under extraordinary circumstances. The marriage of Catholics with persons of other religious faiths is almost prohibited.

Mr. Joseph E. Sheffield, well known through his benefactions to Yale College, died in New Haven on Thursday. He founded in that city the Scientific School which bears his name. He gave the building in which the School was started, twice refitted and enlarged it, and gave a fund of $130,000 for professorships, as well as a number of other funds which have made the School the best-equipped institution of its kind in this country. It is stated that he has left a large amount of money to the School by his will.

Samuel Johnson, a well-known New England clergyman, died at Andover on Sunday evening. He was the author of a considerable but unfinished work on the religions of the East.

FOREIGN.

In the House of Lords, on Friday, a motion of the Earl of Donoughmore for the appointment of a select committee to inquire into the working of the recent legislation in reference to land in Ireland was carried by a vote of 96 to 53, notwithstanding the strenuous opposition of Lord High Chancellor Selborne.

On Monday Mr. Gladstone moved a suspension of the orders of the day for the introduction of the rules of procedure. The motion was carried without a division. He then made a speech, in which he said that the Legislatures of the United States had found it expedient to adopt measures restricting discussion, and the restrictions had never been found to work badly. Sir Stafford Northcote replied to the effect that the new rules would destroy freedom of debate and of voting, and that everything that restricted freedom of debate in the House of Commons would give a

greater handle to the House of Lords in dealing freely with measures which they would say were not the outcome of free discussion. Mr. Gladstone also gave notice that on Monday next he would move that an inquiry into the working of the Land Act would be injurious to the interests of good government in Ireland. This motion, which is intended as a counter-stroke to the Earl of Donoughmore's resolution in the House of Lords, was received with prolonged cheers. The Opposition denounce it as an attempt to gag the House of Lords.

On Saturday Sir Stafford Northcote, referring to Mr. Gladstone's utterances regarding Home Rule, said they were "something between a dream and an electioneering move, which, though sufficiently characteristic of Mr. Gladstone, were exceedingly dangerous."

In the House of Commons on Wednesday, the 15th, Sir Charles Dilke, Under Secretary for Foreign Affairs, replied to various attacks on the foreign policy of the Government. He said that the Government still adhered to the European concert as a means of adjusting foreign difficulties. In regard to the Jews in Russia, he said that all precedents showed that English interference in the internal affairs of a foreign country would meet with a rebuff, and do more harm than good. On Thursday Mr. Gladstone made a speech defending the Irish policy of the Government. In regard to local government for Ireland, he declared that the supremacy of the British Parliament must be maintained, and that the country cannot give Ireland what it cannot give Scotland. He considered, however, that the decentralization of Parliament should be a cardinal rule of policy; that local institutions are a source of great strength, and that the only limit which in principle is necessary for them is adequate provision for the supremacy of the central authority.

The Catholic Bishop of Cork, in his Lenten pastoral, refers to the immense benefit conferred by the Land Act, and says the "violation of the just laws of property, individual rights, and personal safety afford a dark cover for the introduction of a system of brigandage by wild and unprincipled persons."

Mr. Gladstone has written to Mr. Bradlaugh that he is not at present prepared with any fresh proposal relative to the latter's admission to the House of Commons.

On Tuesday, in the House of Commons, Mr. Labouchere moved that a new writ be issued for the election of a successor to Mr. Bradlaugh, as the latter was disqualified by a resolution of the House. An amendment was offered to the effect that Mr. Bradlaugh was legally disqualified. Both the motion and the amendment were rejected, upon which Mr. Bradlaugh walked up to the table, produced a New Testament, and took the oath, and declared that now, having taken the oath, he would take his seat. He was not permitted to do this, however, and Mr. Gladstone finally moved an adjournment of the House until the next day, in order that the matter might be discussed more calmly. The matter has caused great excitement in the House of Commons, many members feeling that Mr. Bradlaugh's conduct can only be adequately met by his expulsion.

Mr. Chaplin, member for Mid-Lincolnshire, stated in the House of Commons on Saturday, that all the evidence before the Royal Commission tended to show that the United States had reached the acme of agricultural prosperity, and that the worst, therefore, had been seen of foreign competition.

The British Foreign Office has published consular reports on the Jewish outrages in Russia. The reports tend to extenuate the seriousness of the anti-Jewish riots. The reports of loss of life and outrages on women are generally denied, but those of the destruction of Jewish property are fully confirmed. The statement that about 100 Jews were shamefully maltreated at Warsaw, ten or twelve of whom have since died of their injuries, is also confirmed.

The Lord Mayor of London's Jewish relief fund has reached £50,000.

The Russian press has expressed the warmest gratitude to the English Ministry for the tone it has adopted in replying to questions in Parliament regarding Russian affairs.

General Ignatieff, the Russian Minister of the Interior, has informed a Jewish rabbi that the Government would neither encourage nor oppose the emigration of the Jews.

Archbishop Macaire, the Metropolitan of Moscow, who is an influential personage in the Russian political world, addressed a letter to the Czar urging him to quit his seclusion, which he said suggested poltroonery and was injurious to the national tradition, and would lead to disunion between the Emperor and the people, who would finally accustom themselves to dispense with their sovereign. The Czar was irritated by the letter, and sent for the Procurator-General of the Holy Synod, of whom he inquired if he could dismiss the Metropolitan. The reply was that he could, with the sanction of the Holy Synod.

The Russian General Skobeleff, receiving some Servian students recently, delivered a speech which has called forth much comment, He said that Russia had hitherto been held in check by the influence of Germany, and that the sword was the only means the Russians had of ridding themselves of this incubus. He said that a struggle between the Slavs and the Teutons was inevitable; that it would be long, sanguinary, and terrible, but that the Slavs would triumph. The German and Austrian press have expressed great indignation at this speech. In an interview with a representative of the *Voltaire* newspaper in Paris, General Skobeleff is reported to have refused to disclaim "one jot or tittle" of the anti-German sentiments which he had expressed. He added that he believed the only way of keeping the balance of power in Europe was for the Slavs to unite with France against their common enemy, Germany. In another interview General Skobeleff said that he had made his recent speech solely as a private individual. Additional significance is attributed to the General's remarks from the fact that he is reputed to be high in the Czar's favor, and also because, as one of the Vienna newspapers expressed it, "thousands of Russians hold the same view."

A despatch from Berlin on Monday says that the Emperor William has expressed the deepest indignation and sorrow at General Skobeleff's remarks, adding that if such wanton provocation continued, he should be obliged to resort to energetic measures. It is, however, understood from semi-official sources, that the German Government intends to ignore the speech for the present. The St. Petersburg *Official Messenger* published an article on Monday denying that the policy of the Government was in any way determined by the utterances of a private individual.

Russia, in her negotiations with the Vatican, is said to demand, as the price of peace and liberty for the Catholic Church in Poland, that the Church shall not pretend to be called national, and that the Pontiff shall use religious sentiment to foster Slavism.

The Pope has addressed a letter to the Italian Bishops, commanding them, in view of the dangers surrounding the Church, to increase their activity, to encourage Catholic societies among the laity, to develop the Catholic press, and to advocate boldly the temporal independence of the Pope.

At a meeting of the Spanish Council of Ministers on Thursday, King Alfonso was informed that the proposed pilgrimage to Rome might be considered at an end.

At a banquet given at Madrid by the Cuban Senators and Deputies on the occasion of the Government sanctioning the construction of the Cuban Central Railway, the Minister of the Colonies, replying to a toast, said that the Cuban representatives should propose reforms assimilating the administration of Cuba to that of the other Spanish provinces.

A despatch from Vienna states that General Jovanovich has issued a general order to the effect that the extent of the Herzegovinian insurrection makes it necessary that the troops should wait for reinforcements and an improvement in the weather.

A despatch from Ragusa, dated the 21st, announces that the Herzegovinians, after a few days' siege, have captured a fort commanding a defile of the upper Drina, between Fotcha and Gorazda, which was followed by the whole population of the upper Drina joining the insurgents. This is the insurgents' account of the affair. The Austrians have been representing the rebels as very much demoralized of late.

The Servian Skuptschina has passed the commercial treaty with the United States.

The British and French Consuls-General in Egypt still maintain that the voting of the budget by the Notables is contrary to international obligations, and have declared the present state of affairs a nullification of Control.

The London *Daily News* says that all the Powers have agreed that it is the peculiar right of England and France to deal with the joint control of Egypt and with the navigation of the Suez Canal, without the intervention of Turkey.

The Egyptian Ministry have decided upon the total abolition of slavery, and in view of the execution of this decision, Kader Pasha has been appointed Governor of Soudan, which is the headquarters of the slave-trade, and a special department for that province will be created at Cairo. Detailed instructions relative to the slave-trade and slavery are being prepared.

The Sultan of Turkey was invested with the decoration of the Order of the Black Eagle by a special German embassy on Saturday.

An agreement, from a diplomatic point of view, is reported to have been completely established between France and Tunis, and a "foreign legion," to act independently of the French, is to be constituted to occupy various places by way of a guarantee.

General Forgemol has gone to Algeria with special instructions from the French Government to act in accordance with his own judgment. The return of the troops from Tunis has been postponed.

In the matter of the Anglo-French commercial treaty, England has for several months been persisting in the demand for the reduction of the duties on woollens and cottons fifty and twenty per cent., respectively, below those fixed in 1860, in return for a reduction of England's wine duties by one-half. The French Cabinet Council, however, have decided that it will be impossible to accede to this demand.

MM. Bontoux and Feder, of the Union Générale, have been released on 160,000 francs and 62,500 francs bail respectively. The amount of the bail shows that no criminal charge was made against them in connection with the failure.

A despatch from Paris on Monday announced the death of Mme. Céleste, who was one of the leading actresses and danseuses of the last generation. Her last appearance on the stage was in London in 1874.

The steamship *Bahama*, of the Quebec Steamship Company, was lost in latitude 12 degrees 30 minutes north and longitude 72 degrees 15 minutes west on Friday, the 10th. The British steamship *Glenmorag* picked up eleven members of the crew and two passengers, but it is feared that the captain, two second-class passengers, and seventeen members of the crew have been lost.

TUESDAY, February 21, 1882.

SHIPHERD.

THE career of Shipherd, who figures so prominently in the Peruvian correspondence which has just been laid before Congress, seems to have been that of an adventurer of the lowest order, running from place to place to escape his own character, engaging in one speculation after another, some positively disreputable, all a little shady, and "bursting up" with a sort of periodicity. There are thousands like him in the United States. They are found in considerable numbers in every through passenger train and on board every European steamer. They rarely engage in any industry that can rely for success on its own merits. Their schemes have almost always to be bolstered up by some species of pretence, or intrigue, or jugglery, by bribing somebody, or by some form of hypocrisy. If religion seems likely to help them, they become religious; if newspapers, they try to toady or corrupt editors or reporters; if politics, they become fierce party men, and try to place their stock where it will do most good.

Shipherd appears to be one of these men, but with a more powerful imagination than they usually have. He seems to have sincerely believed that he could drag the United States into a protectorate of Peru, as against Chili, and that under that he could carry out a gigantic nitrate and guano speculation. He began corresponding with General Hurlbut, the Minister to Peru, in June, 1881, and he wrote to him at intervals till December, telling him wonderful stories of the aid he was to have in his undertaking. It was not till December 17, however, that General Hurlbut declined all further communication with him, although he had received a month previously a peremptory order of Secretary Blaine, dated October 29, directing him not to use "the influence of his position in aid of any financial or speculating association."

There are four letters of Shipherd's on file in the Department of State, copies of which have been presented to Congress, but the only answer to him is the Hurlbut letter of December 17 above mentioned, while eight letters are said to be missing, and Mr. Frelinghuysen reports that all search for them has been fruitless. It seems very improbable, however, that Shipherd went on writing the kind of letters he did, discussing his plans at length, multiplying suggestions as to what the policy of the Government in the Peruvian trouble should be, and making a gallant stand for the honor of the flag in the hope that he should eventually have it wave over his guano beds, without getting any response. The following observations on the arrest of Calderon, made in a letter of November 15, 1881, to General Hurlbut, have a positively grotesque air, especially when we find that Mr. Blaine, writing instructions to Mr. Trescott a fortnight later (December 1), takes substantially the same view. Said the patriotic and resolute Shipherd (November 15):

"Senator Blair writes me that Hurlbut telegraphs that the Chilians have captured Calderon and carried him to Chili. The Senator adds that there may be trouble now. Have General Grant do his duty. American influence in America is at an end if Chili can slap our face as flatly as this. We have heard also by cable of Montero's acceptance. We appreciate the gravity of the new phase and the new problem which you must now face. The letters I enclose with this were already written when Senator Blair's letter came to hand, and I will not change them. The need for a protectorate is but increased by all that has happened, and I doubt not Chili will continue to force the issue. Our people hope she will. What we want is, our Government to the fore and that all the winds that blow may fill our sails.

"I replied to the Senator: 'I totally agree with you as to Chili. She must unconditionally return Calderon to execute liberty, or must all take partners for the dance. I trust Mr. Blaine will plant his flag and his guns right there, and he will, won't he? I shall consult General Grant today, and he and I may go to Washington on Thursday. We shall do what lies in our power to second all the vigor you have used on the main issue.'"

Said the Secretary of State (December 2):

"The President does not now insist on the inference which this action would warrant. He hopes that there is some explanation which will relieve him from the painful impression that it was taken in resentful reply to the continued recognition of the Calderon Government by the United States. If, unfortunately, he should be mistaken and such a motive be avowed, your duty will be a brief one. You will say to the Chilian Government that the President considers such a proceeding as an intentional, unwarranted offence, and that you will communicate such an avowal to the Government of the United States, with the assurance that it will be regarded by Government as an act of such unfriendly import as to require the immediate suspension of all diplomatic intercourse."

That such a man as Shipherd should have received countenance or recognition enough from any officer of the Government to enable him to get his correspondence even filed in the State Department, when its proper destination was the pigeon-holes of a New York police station, is of itself a little scandalous.

Shipherd's published works are voluminous in extent, and embrace a large part of the history of the Peruvian Company, but the precise points intended to be covered by that corporation in its dealings with American and European governments have not been made altogether clear in the correspondence recently furnished by the Department of State. The *Evening Post* has supplied the deficiency by reprinting in full a document promulgated by Shipherd some time since, entitled "Suggestions of Points to be Included in an Agreement between the Government of Peru and the Peruvian Company." It should be premised that the foundation of the Peruvian Company is a claim of one Alexandre Cochet (deceased), that in the year 1840 he "discovered guano"; that by virtue of a decree of the republic of Peru, dated February 13, 1833, he was entitled to one-third of all the guano in the country, and that in some way not distinctly specified the claim of Cochet became vested in the Peruvian Company, or Shipherd. It is worth mention that Minister Hurlbut, in a despatch to the State Department, under date of November 2, 1881, denies that Cochet discovered guano, denies that Peru ever recognized his claim, and denies that his rights, whatever they were, descended "to his illegitimate son under whom these parties claim"—"these parties" referring to Shipherd and his alleged company.

The points to be included in an agreement between the Peruvian Company and the Government of Peru provide in substance that the Company shall "take over" the assets of Peru and administer them upon certain clearly defined principles, first paying to itself $900,000,000 and interest thereon at six per cent. from January 1, 1881, as liquidated damages, together with one-third of all the guano remaining in Peru, and afterward settling all other valid claims against Peru, including those of Chili, by buying the same in with its own scrip and redeeming the scrip out of the proceeds of the estate—the company to be exempt from taxation while the liquidation is in progress, and to be recognized and treated as "the lord of the soil." This comprehensive adjustment is embodied in twenty-three stipulations, to be made on the part of the Government of Peru.

The company, on the other hand, stipulates that it will make no other demand upon Peru for payment so long as the net revenue derived from the property shall suffice to pay the interest annually accruing upon its claim of $900,000,000; that it will set apart a sinking fund to meet the other valid claims against Peru, such sinking fund to consist of one-half of the annual net revenue of the company in excess of thirty millions of dollars; that it will maintain toward the Government of Peru "an attitude of sincere friendship and good will"; that it will observe "a strict neutrality toward all political parties and interests, domestic and foreign," and that whenever its own interests shall require the expression of a preference in politics, "such expression shall be made in the company's name, upon competent authorization, frankly and kindly"; that it will submit to arbitration all claims which it may hereafter acquire by purchase against Peru, which have not as yet been recognized by the Government as valid; and finally, that "each party shall maintain a resident representative near the Executive of the other, duly accredited to such Executive, and that the ordinary intercourse of the parties shall be maintained through these representatives according to diplomatic usage." The assets to be administered upon in this wise are all the guano and nitrate deposits which were within the territory of Peru on the 1st of January, 1881. This description of the property was obviously important in view of the fact that it subsequently fell into the hands of the Chilians. In order to secure faithful compliance with all the stipulations, it is provided that the company may maintain such armed force as may be necessary for the protection of its interests, "including detachments from the land and naval forces of the United States of America, and of any other government whose citizens are shareholders of the company."

In comparison with Shipherd's the wildest schemes of Wilkins Micawber, Mulberry Sellers, and the Tichborne claimant dwindle into insignificance. If any dramatist or novelist of the present day had drawn a picture even faintly resembling Shipherd, he would have been justly derided for extravagance of fancy and unbridled imagination. An unknown adventurer hires an office in New York, prints a lot of documents setting forth a project to annex a foreign country to a private corporation founded by himself, enters into correspondence with a Minister Plenipotentiary, and indirectly with the Secretary of State, gets a Senator of the United States to act as attorney for his alleged company, and an ex-Secretary of the Treasury to draw papers for him, produces a commotion in Congress,

and gets himself talked about as an important personage on three continents. The maximum of noise, and confusion, and brass, with the minimum of capital, is Mr. Shipherd's undoubted achievement as a party to the Peruvian complication. The reader may well be pardoned if he suspects that there must be some fire under so much smoke. Yet, so far as appears, nobody of any prominence lent any countenance to Shipherd's scheme, except possibly Senator Blair of New Hampshire, and his share in it is still a matter of doubt, as his side of the story has not been heard. Secretary Blaine at an early stage of the proceedings expressed doubts of Shipherd's sanity, and even Hurlbut came finally to take that view of him. The fact appears to be that all sorts of buzzards were gathering together over the supposed carcass of Peru—some from France, some from America, some in high places and some in low. Shipherd was only one of them, and his distinction consists in being the most preposterous of the lot. He has, perhaps, been useful in some degree by throwing an air of ridicule over all the other schemes for plundering Peru under pretence of rescuing her by foreign intervention from the grasp of Chili.

THE NEW ANTI-POLYGAMY LEGISLATION.

The Anti-Polygamy Bill reported by Mr. Edmunds from the Judiciary Committee—the first of a series, he says—has passed the Senate. It reënacts the existing statute against polygamy, or cohabitation with more than one woman, and the disqualification for jury duty, in all prosecutions for polygamy or unlawful cohabitation, of all polygamists or persons holding polygamous opinions. The new provisions legitimize the offspring of polygamous marriages, and create a registry or returning-board of five, who are authorized to do every duty relating to the registration of voters, the receiving or rejection of votes, and the canvassing and returning of the same, and who will execute the eighth section of the act excluding from office and from the franchise all polygamists, bigamists, and persons cohabiting with more than one woman.

It was the creation of this board, to inflict what is undoubtedly a punishment, that called forth most of the opposition which the bill met with in the Senate. It was contended that the board would have no right to disqualify a man for office and for the franchise, for polygamy, unless he had been convicted of the offence by a jury, and that in finding him guilty of it, and affixing a penalty to it, the board would be usurping the functions of a judge and jury, and therefore acting unconstitutionally. Mr. Edmunds made two defences to this. One was that the disqualification was not a punishment—that it was simply recognition of a man's status, such as takes place when, under State laws all over the country, the votes of paupers, and lunatics, and women are refused by the election officers. But the distinction between the man who is disfranchised for polygamy and the man who is disfranchised because he is a pauper or a lunatic or a foreigner, is too broad to be got over in this way. The pauper or lunatic or foreigner has his vote refused because he is incompetent, and for very much the same reason that the cashiership of a bank would be refused to a man otherwise fit who could not give a proper bond. The polygamist has his vote refused because he has wilfully done something which the law condemns, and to refuse a vote under such circumstances is clearly to inflict a penalty. It is like dismissing the bank cashier from his situation because he drinks.

It must also be admitted that an examination by a returning-board into the question not only whether a man is a Mormon polygamist—that is, lives openly in what he believes to be lawful marriage with more than one woman—but whether any man of any persuasion cohabits with more than one woman, will be attended with considerable inconvenience. Under the act any man, whether Mormon or not, may have his right to registration challenged before the board, on the ground that his domestic life is scandalous to the extent of living with two women; and should he deny it, the board will be compelled to undertake an investigation which may sometimes be amusing, but will always be scandalous and indecent. Nevertheless, if irregular sexual relations are to be made a ground of disqualification for office or for the franchise, this inquiry must be conducted by some one, and it is doubtful whether it would be proper to take up the time of the courts with it, and whether a returning-board is not as good an instrument as could be invented for the purpose. It is not possible to attack Mormonism with very delicate weapons. If the "peculiar institution" of the Territory is to be suppressed, it can only be done by a good deal of dirty work and by some rough-and-ready methods. There is no legal machinery in existence which can profitably be entrusted with the duty of finding out how many women a man cohabits with, when he is surrounded by neighbors who think the more he lives with the luckier he is.

The most complete defence of the powers of the returning-board is Mr. Edmunds's second one, that Congress has in the District of Columbia and in the Territories the power to deal with the franchise in any manner it pleases: to give it to every man and woman, or to take it away altogether, or to confine it to the red-haired men, or attach any condition it chooses to its exercise. It has in the District of Columbia abolished it altogether. It can in Utah confine it to monogamists, bachelors, or widowers, and make all applicants for it prove their qualification before any officer it chooses to appoint, by any sort of proof it chooses to designate. On this ground Mr. Edmunds easily overthrew his antagonists. Any one may say that his methods are not nice, as a matter of taste, or not wise, as a matter of expediency; but it is idle to contend that they are not constitutional. The question which will probably interest the public most is whether they will prove effective. This bill alone will certainly not accomplish its object, and Mr. Edmunds admitted as much. But it remains to be seen what other measures the Committee has in store.

AGNOSTIC WORSHIP.

The Reverend George C. Miln, whose conversion to agnosticism has led to his withdrawal from the Unitarian pulpit in Chicago, has made a statement of his religious position. It is not a new story. On the contrary, the mental process through which he has passed is one the nature of which is more or less familiar to all active and inquiring minds at the present day. Mr. Miln began a few years since the study of Herbert Spencer and what he calls "the English school of materialistic philosophy," and gradually, under the influence of this school, came to regard the articles of the Christian faith, and finally those of all religion, as mere unverifiable theories about matters of which we know, and can know, according to the canons of human reasoning, nothing whatever, and the truth of which we can consequently neither affirm nor deny.

He remained in his pulpit for some time holding these views and conducting services under Christian forms, apparently on the theory that agnosticism was only a broader kind of Unitarianism; and at first a large part of his congregation seem to have agreed with him, for when he made up his mind that he could stay no longer, a committee of the church waited upon him and asked him to withdraw his resignation. But finally his new teachings excited so much dissatisfaction among the congregation that they decided by a large majority to dispense with his services altogether. Mr. Miln has therefore formally resigned, and thrown up his connection with the Christian Church. He says that he has not decided whether to establish an independent congregation in Chicago, similar to Dr. Adler's Society for Ethical Culture in this city, to practise law, or to go upon the stage.

The failure of his attempt to establish an agnostic pulpit is valuable as a practical proof of the impossibility of perpetuating the observance of religious forms and ceremonies in connection with an abandonment of all religious belief. English and American agnostics have all along been fond of insisting that, while dogmatic belief as to the supernatural is proved by modern science to be an absurdity, still religious emotion and aspiration have such deep foundations in the human heart that the disappearance of religious dogma will have no effect on them, and that they will be directed to new objects through new channels. According to Mr. Miln, while it is impossible to predict in detail what the future of the Church will be, it is easy to perceive "the general tendency." It is toward "the substitution of a basis of impartial and natural ethics for the basis of supernaturalism in which the Church has rested." "Human sympathy will take the place of dogma, and, with the speculative beliefs thrown aside, it will have more time for practical philanthropy, and will become the great educational and formative force of society."

Now, practically, the difficulty with the establishment of any such church consists in the fact that what mankind in general regards as the object of religion, the object for which it builds churches, and pays ministers, and

assembles in congregations every Sunday, is simply the worship of God; and that worship without having a God to worship seems to ninety-nine people out of a hundred exactly as it did to Mr. Miln's parishioners—a contradiction in terms. The experiment could hardly have had a fairer field than a Unitarian pulpit, for in the Unitarian Church dogma is already reduced to a minimum, and the ritual is very much under the control of the minister and the congregation. But what would the agnostic substitute for a Christian ritual? A week ago Mr. Miln opened his service with the following "prayer":

"We turn our feet from the common path of life into the seclusion of this sacred hour, made sacred to us by our own intentions. At least for a little while we bid farewell to the fret and worry of our daily life, to the burdens which we in silence carry, and to the trivial pleasures which do so much to dissipate our fine energies and purposes. We come here to find rest, to find light, to gain strength for the duties which are before us. We come here that by the planting of holy purposes we may grow stronger and nobler in all the ways of life. May the stillness of this moment breathe a sweet serenity into every heart. Looking backward, may we learn to regard with scorn all that has been unworthy of us—all pettiness, all littleness, all counselling with ignoble and time-serving motives. Looking forward, may our aspirations reach after the highest ideals for ourselves and for our fellows. May we be above despair, above hopelessness. May we look into the future with calmness and determination, prepared for its duties and for whatever of conflict may await us. And may our intercommunication lift us into a realm where we shall be emancipated from suspicion and misinterpretation of each other. We do not forget the poor. They are always with us. May men help the poor, the blind, the sick, and those who are beaten down by the trampling of many feet in all the ways of life. O that our hearts may at least be full of sympathy and our hands always full of help for such! And may we look with yearning eyes for the coming of that day in which there shall be no pain, no crying, nor weariness of heart! Amen."

This is nothing more than a series of bald statements of facts, or else ejaculations. It would no doubt be possible to go through the entire litany of the church and parody all its services in this way. But there is nothing in the nature of worship in such emotional expressions. We might as well call "Oh, how tired I am!" or "Oh, how I wish it would stop raining!" prayers. The publicity of ejaculation makes no difference. Real prayers are prayers, whether they are offered up in church or in solitude.

The fact is—and neither religious people nor agnostics ought to shrink from recognizing it—that while on the one hand the number of agnostics in the world is constantly increasing, on the other all attempts to build up an agnostic church are futile. It is only in England and the United States that this is not generally admitted by thinking men. There are plenty of agnostics in Germany, France, and Italy; but a Frenchman, German, or Italian who reaches this condition of mind does not go about discussing with his friends the possibility of building up a new ecclesiastical organization, on the basis of a common agreement that there is no rational foundation for any supernatural belief; nor collect subscriptions for the purpose of "hiring a hall" in which to worship without worshipping any one in particular. He simply conforms his behavior to his conclusions, and ceases to talk or to think about matters of which he believes himself to know nothing. It is a strong proof of the deep hold which religion has on our race, that Englishmen and Americans will do almost anything rather than this.

THE FALL OF GAMBETTA, AND ENGLISH OPINION.

LONDON, February 3, 1882.

"THERE *was* a Palmerston." This, it is said, was Mr. Disraeli's comment on the Foreign Secretary's expulsion from the Whig Cabinet of 1851-2. This sarcasm is now remembered solely as a proof that its author was at times as blind a prophet as the stupidest squire among his followers. Yet Lord Beaconsfield was no mean judge of men and of events. He had studied deeply the personal side of public life. He thoroughly understood the character of his opponents, and the Parliamentary world in which he and they moved. That such a critic should mistake the opening of a long career of almost unbroken success for a final fall from power, is no serious impeachment on Lord Beaconsfield's sagacity. Human foresight is at best but a complimentary name for human shortsightedness. But now, when all the able editors are in effect repeating, "There *was* a Gambetta," it is well to remember that ordinary Englishmen can hardly possess with regard to the affairs of a foreign country an amount of foresight and insight assuredly not possessed by one of the most subtle and best-informed of English statesmen with regard to that class of English affairs which it was his special business and pride to understand. Whether the common judgment of Englishmen in respect of Gambetta's fall may ultimately turn out to be correct, I assuredly will not undertake to predict. What I do confidently assert is that two opinions in respect of French politics are at the present moment prevalent and, so to speak, accredited in English society; and that while each of them contains a certain element of truth, each is open to criticism, and may prove one of those half, or even quarter, truths which are for all practical purposes equivalent to errors.

"There *was* a Gambetta." This is the first and the all but universal conviction of English critics. The man who was two months ago the leading statesman in France has (it is believed) ceased to be a power in French politics; he is "completely played out." Should he ever return to power, which is doubtful, he will be, not the Léon Gambetta of the Government of Defence; not the Gambetta who resisted and defeated the "Government of Combat"; not the Gambetta whose word or whose nod has till recently made and unmade Ministries; but a Gambetta whose position and influence will be certainly not greater, and will perhaps be less, than the position and influence of the dozen or so of unknown and forgotten premiers who have, every two or three months since the foundation of the French Republic, attained office without obtaining power, and have departed from office without leaving any permanent memorial of their existence. There is, it must be confessed, considerable prima-facie reason for holding the opinion which I have attempted to describe. Gambetta has had his chance, and for some reason or other has not been able to use it. "The great Ministry" has turned out, as President Grévy is said to have predicted it would, a "great disappointment." In truth, the expected great Ministry never in reality existed, and the little Ministry headed by the great Minister failed from the very first to satisfy the hopes of the nation. What is much worse than this, it cannot be disputed that the character and the prestige of the great Minister himself have been seriously damaged. A good deal of allowance must be made for the reckless malignity of French political warfare. No sensible person would care to condemn even a pickpocket simply on account of the accusations or slanders circulated by Rochefort and men of his kidney. A professional libeller cannot obtain credence even if he chances to tell the truth. Still, it is difficult not to believe that Gambetta was somehow or other connected with the nasty intrigues which cluster round the monstrous blunder of the expedition to Tunis. Foreign observers are driven to the conclusion that if, as is probably the case, he was not himself in any way tainted by corruption, he yet showed cynical leniency toward agents less clean-handed than himself. Indeed, the most patent feature of his short ministerial career has been the display of a kind of cynical insolence, which, however, has occasionally been the temporary fault of statesmen not really wanting in self-control and patriotism.

In any case, Gambetta has betrayed an inability to hold his own with the present Assembly. Whichever be in fault, this is for him a serious matter. What France needs is a Minister who can control the French Parliament and act with it. Gambetta was thought able to accomplish this. It is now known that he is even less competent to lead the existing Republican majority than any one of his predecessors. His career ended in a personal quarrel with the Deputies. Admit, for the sake of argument, that his opponents acted badly; admit even that his friends betrayed him; the fact still remains that he was not able to exert that kind of influence by which great Parliamentary leaders —Pitt, Palmerston, Gladstone, Cavour—have somehow kept themselves at the head of partisans many of whom were not thoroughly loyal to their leader. Others have failed before Gambetta, but his prestige depended on the belief that he possessed the secret of success. Failure is a serious calamity for a man credited beforehand with victory. The worst feature in Gambetta's prospects is that he is no longer the "coming man." He is rather the man who has come, has been seen, and has not conquered. The difference between the two is immense, and fidelity to fallen greatness is not the special virtue of Frenchmen. This, and a great deal more of the same sort, may be said about the seriousness and even the fatal nature of Gambetta's fall. A bad fall, however, is not the same thing as a fatal accident; and there are one or two considerations which suggest the idea that Gambetta may at last, and possibly at no very distant time, be again as truly the chief man in France as he was up to the moment when he took office. These reasons are twofold. They are supplied partly by the known character of the man himself, they are supplied in part by the very circumstances of his fall.

Gambetta is a politician of bold, his foes say of reckless, ambition. He has before this committed immense blunders, but his mistakes, great as they might be, have not been more remarkable than his power of recovering from them. His talent for management, for diplomacy or intrigue, is admired or blamed according to the point of view from which it is regarded; but no one disputes that he has great capacity for the management of mankind. To suppose that such a man will, because he has been hard hit, throw up the cards, is a simple absurdity. The one thing which is certain is, that Gambetta has neither the vices nor the virtues which induce a statesman to retire from the stage of public life. That he means, and will attempt, to play a leading part in French politics, may be taken for granted. Critics who think that this attempt is sure to fail, must base their belief not on Gambetta's character so much as on the circumstances of his fall. Yet, if these circumstances

be carefully considered, they will be found to favor the conclusion that Gambetta, if he has suffered severe losses, is not as yet politically a bankrupt. He would, of course, have been in a far better position if his short administration had been a success. This is a truism hardly worth stating, were it not often confounded with the very dubious proposition that the circumstances of his expulsion from office are such as specially to damage his influence in France. The truth appears to be that, owing either to adroitness on his part, or to want of skill on the part of his opponents, he has, though defeated, been enabled to effect his retreat from office on terms which may prove very favorable to his return to power. He is, it is alleged, unable to govern with effect unless armed with something like dictatorial authority. If so, a year or two of office would, under the present state of affairs, have thoroughly worn out his prestige. To carry on the work of administration respectably while hourly thwarted by a majority who nominally support but really oppose their leader, is an achievement almost beyond the capacity of the most skilful parliamentary tactician whom England has at any time produced. The task is one utterly unsuited to the genius of Gambetta. It is a considerable point in his favor that he has escaped the ordeal which has again and again undermined the reputation of some of the most popular and strongest Ministries in England. The body of reforms which he proposed to introduce were, it is said, ill-conceived. If so, he has gained a good deal by not being forced to pass or attempt to pass through the French Parliament a series of definite measures each of which, whether good or bad, would have excited a great deal of criticism and hostility. It were easy to point to cabinets which have been ruined in the effort to embody in specific laws the general principles on which they and their supporters were in theory agreed. But Gambetta's great advantage is, that it may well appear to the mass of Frenchmen that, as regards the points on which he was defeated, he was far more in the right than the Assembly, and that his overthrow was due to the treachery of supporters who, in driving him from office, were really attempting to disobey the constituents whom they represented.

Whether Gambetta's interpretation, for instance, of the Constitution was the right one, is a matter on which only an eminent French constitutional lawyer could pronounce an opinion worth having; but it is perfectly clear that Gambetta's view was in conformity with good sense. No one who does not wish for a revolution can believe it to be well that France should be unable to change a single constitutional law without opening the question whether the Constitution shall not be changed from top to bottom. It were simply madness for any one to occupy a house on the terms that he should not be allowed to put in a window without exposing himself to the risk of having the house pulled down and rebuilt. It is quite an open question whether, on general grounds, the mode of voting advocated by Gambetta is preferable to the existing electoral machinery; but it appears to be quite clear that the Republican electors have no objection to the *scrutin de liste*, that most of the Deputies were practically pledged to it, and that they would have accepted it had it not been, first, for the fear that under the new system many of them might lose their own seats, and, secondly, for the desire to drive Gambetta from office. Yet, assuredly, whenever the popularity of the Parliamentary majority (if such popularity exist) begins to wane, the motives which induced members to vote against the Government will not be favorably viewed by the electors. A representative almost condemns himself when he shows a fear of meeting a larger constituency. A member who has been elected as the supporter of a well-known statesman is apt to find it hard to make farmers or artisans understand why he at once turned out of office the very leader of whom he had avowed himself a devoted follower. Gambetta's own fall will, moreover, to his admirers, seem to afford strong corroborative evidence in favor of his scheme of electoral reform. He had always alleged that the present system of election made it impossible for any Minister to obtain that permanent and loyal support from a compact body of Deputies on which the success of parliamentary government depends. He and his friends will undoubtedly assert that he fell a victim to the very spirit of parochialism and faction with which it was his special mission to contend.

If, indeed, everything goes well, Gambetta's complaints of the treatment he has received may, whether just or not, have little effect with the great public. But there is, unfortunately, every reason to anticipate that things will not go well. France is in the midst of a financial crisis; there are difficulties in Tunis, difficulties in Egypt, dangers everywhere. Unless Gambetta be a patriot of very rare purity, he will not strengthen the hands of the present or of any future Ministry. The chances are that one weak Cabinet will succeed another, and the Assembly become more and more split up into factions who can agree in nothing but hostility to any government which happens for the moment to be in office. If, as is too likely, times grow dark, and the Chamber becomes, as chambers are too apt to do in France, contemptible, it is at least probable—I should be inclined to say it is certain—that the eyes of ordinary Republican electors will turn toward the one leader whose name is known to every peasant in France. If events should take this course, Gambetta's opportunity will have arrived. It will be vain for his opponents to allege that he has shown himself incapable. The reply, whether at bottom satisfactory or not, is obvious: "He failed," it will be said, "because Parliamentary factions would not allow him to succeed; the men elected to follow him proved his foes; he must return to power supplied with a party who will loyally carry out his policy, and not disappoint the wishes of the nation."

Gambetta's fall is a blessing to France, as it saves her from the peril involved in the system of personal government. This is the second opinion propounded by English critics, and naturally commends itself to optimists convinced of Gambetta's "ruin." That this should be the view of English critics who remember the endless evils caused to France by the personal government of Louis Napoleon, is intelligible enough; but observers who so easily convince themselves that France gains by the fall of her most eminent statesman make two assumptions, neither of which can be accepted without considerable hesitation. They assume, in the first place, that every kind of rule which can be embraced under the vague term "personal government" is necessarily injurious to France. The expression, however, includes two totally different things—viz., the rule of men such as Cromwell, Napoleon I., and Napoleon III., who were strictly despotic rulers (because, whether they governed ill or well, they could not be removed from power without a revolution); and also the rule of men such as Walpole, Chatham, Pitt, Gladstone, Cavour, and Thiers, who were not despotic rulers at all, and could be said to exercise a system of personal government only because they had, from different circumstances, the power of making their individual will strongly felt in the conduct of national affairs. Now, personal government, when it means despotism, is, unless liberal principles be entirely false, always and everywhere in the long run an evil. In France it is even a greater evil than in other countries. But that kind of personal government which means the predominating sway of one individual's influence may or may not be an evil; and many of the best observers have long held that the best chance of founding permanently a system of representative government in France is, to combine bona-fide representation of the national will in Parliament with such a predominant influence on the part of some leading statesman as may prevent, for a time at least, parliamentary government changing into the very different thing—government by Parliament. One great peril in the path of French progress is the danger that the Chambers should become contemptible. A Parliament is never so respectable as when it is firmly guided by some one statesman of eminence. The overthrow of Gambetta increases for the moment the power of the Chambers. Whether it will increase their dignity or influence is a matter at least open to question. The overthrow of Gambetta may have been rendered necessary by his own defects; that it was necessary to drive him from office does not show that the check given to personal government was a blessing.

The optimists who hold everything for the best assume, in the second place, that Gambetta's fall necessarily decreases the danger of personal government. This appears rather an odd conclusion on the part of men who, very possibly with reason, hold, to use the expressions of an English journalist, that "there is much of imperialism not only in his temper, but also in his political ideas. In resisting Bonapartism Gambetta seems to have imbibed something of its spirit." If this be so, the natural result of Gambetta's retirement from the Government will, it may be suspected, be a still further development of the worst sides of his political character. The benches of the Opposition are not a good school of public morals. Gambetta the statesman is likely to become Gambetta the agitator and the intriguer. Whatever his defects as a Parliamentary leader, no one can doubt his capacity as a leader of opposition. Sooner or later he will assuredly become the avowed and powerful opponent of the statesmen who have driven him from office. There will be a Gambettist party and a Gambettist programme. The country will be cursed with one more faction, and the inevitable demand of that faction will be the restoration to office of the man who can with plausibility assert that he represents the will of the country more truly than the Parliamentary factions which, as he will allege, effected his ruin by means of an unnatural coalition. Gambetta against the Assembly will, indeed, mean something like personal government pitted against government by Parliament. In such a conflict France may lose much; she can gain nothing. Optimists have a talent for discerning what is called a blessing in disguise. In this case I confess the disguise is too complete for my eyes to discern the blessing. That the most eminent of Republicans should be unable to guide the destinies of the Republic may be the result of his own faults or follies; but it is difficult to believe that it is other than a grave misfortune to the French commonwealth.

A. V. Dicey.

JUDICIAL CHANGES IN ENGLAND.

London, January 26.

An unusually large number of changes have taken place recently in our judicial bench. Besides three Lord Justices of Appeal, all eminent men, and one of them, Lord Justice James, a judge of quite remarkable quickness and pene-

tration, several of the ordinary justices and vice-chancellors have died or resigned, and been replaced by barristers comparatively unknown to the general public. There is some reason to fear that the office of an ordinary judge of the High Court of Justice is no longer so attractive as it once was to the profession. Its emoluments are still fixed at £5,000 a year (less than $25,000), although the cost of living in England, and the style which people of position are expected to maintain, have greatly risen during the last decade or two. In more than one instance counsel in large practice have refused ordinary judgeships, a course which no one would have taken thirty or forty years ago unless he felt sure of getting within his grasp a great prize like the Chancellorship. Every new appointment is therefore watched with a certain feeling of uneasiness, men doubting whether we ought not to raise the salary or take some other step to enhance the dignity of the office; and a corresponding satisfaction is felt when a thoroughly good man finds his way to the bench. It need hardly be said that it is an axiom in this country that the judges must be at least the equals in ability and knowledge of the best counsel who practise before them.

No appointment has been made for a long time that has given so much pleasure both to the legal profession and to the public as that of Sir John Holker to be a Justice of the Court of Appeal. There are circumstances about it which may make it interesting to American readers, for it is the appointment by a Liberal Government not only of a political opponent, but of one who had been Attorney-General of the last Conservative Government.

The English system of selecting judges, like most things in England, has been somewhat vague and fluctuating, neither distinctly political nor wholly non-political. The Government of the day, to whom the right of appointment belongs (the Lord Chancellor, as head of the judicial system, having usually a special responsibility in the matter), naturally tend to look first among their own supporters for a capable man. Other things being equal, a barrister who had rendered services to his party in Parliament, or who had even fought an unsuccessful election with spirit, would be likely to be preferred. He would not, however, be held to have any positive claim to a place, and any inferiority in professional ability, or any slur, however slight, on his professional reputation, would be considered to disqualify him. The Prime Minister or the Lord Chancellor would then proceed to search among the more eminent practising counsel for the person best qualified, and would scarcely inquire which belonged to his own, which to the opposite party. It often happens that a leading lawyer is a lawyer and nothing more—has no pronounced political views which have attached him to either party; and this would, of course, not stand in his way. Such is the usual course. But it sometimes happens, and it happened not unfrequently under Lord Beaconsfield, who always sought to strengthen party ties, that men were chosen whose party loyalty was their chief claim to promotion, although they could not be declared unfit. And it has rarely happened that an opponent half so conspicuous as Sir John Holker has been promoted even by a Liberal Government, in which party feeling goes for less than among Conservatives. His career has been a remarkable one. It began in Manchester, where he practised as a local counsel for some ten years, gradually winning his way from small beginnings to a large share of business on the Northern Circuit. Then he migrated to London, and, becoming a Queen's Counsel, rose rapidly to the leading place on the Northern Circuit, and was elected member of the House for Preston, a staunchly Conservative town. Very shortly afterward, when Lord Beaconsfield came into power in 1874, he was appointed Solicitor-General. He had taken scarcely any part in politics, and was known even by sight to comparatively few people in the House of Commons: but the Tory party had at the moment few good lawyers in Parliament, and chose him rather from hope than from gratitude.

Two years after, he became Attorney-General, and therefore the chief legal adviser and advocate of his party in the lower house of Legislature—a position which usually makes a man, if it does not find him, a violent partisan. A partisan in a certain sense he has certainly been. In speaking on matters of general politics, no one has assailed the Liberal Opposition and, since 1880, Mr. Gladstone's Government, with more vehemence on the platform. He seemed to think that it belonged to his position as a counsel retained for his party, to use strong language to the jury. But in the House of Commons the natural fairness and clearness of his judgment came out, and came out more strongly the longer he remained there, and the higher his influence rose. There was a breadth of view and an underlying honesty about him which won the regard of his opponents. Latterly he came to be as much respected, and perhaps even better liked, by Liberals than by Conservatives. Mr. Gladstone in particular, though he several times dealt severely with the arguments advanced by Sir John Holker, did not conceal the high opinion he had formed of his abilities and his character, an opinion formed solely from his observation of him in public, for it may be doubted whether they ever exchanged a word in private. This high opinion has now found its fit expression in his appointment to a very high judicial place, an act creditable not only to the present Government, but to English public sentiment, for this bestowal of honor and emolument on an active antagonist has not provoked the least discontent among the lawyers of the Liberal party, who upon a "spoils system" would have had good reason to complain.

Sir John Holker is not a learned lawyer. The race of learned lawyers has almost disappeared from England since the death of Mr. Justice Willes. Neither was he a brilliant speaker. Eloquence is now rarely heard in English courts: a plain, direct, matter-of-fact style of speaking is in favor, which diverts even those few who might make themselves forensic orators from any cultivation of rhetoric. But he is a man with the characteristically English gift of strong and penetrating sense raised to an exceedingly high point. His legal opinions enjoyed a great reputation, because he went straight to the point, never beguiled by subtleties nor indulging himself with crotchets. Though he did not seem to carry in his mind a great mass of cases, he always knew, as if by a sort of instinct, what the courts would pronounce the law to be. A tendency to a somewhat too logical and rigid carrying out of legal principles, which might have been charged as a fault on him, was corrected in practice by a strong love of substantial justice. As an advocate he was remarkable for two merits in particular: his rare power of dealing with a complicated mass of facts, selecting from them those which proved to be really material, and presenting them in a concise and lucid way; and the great judgment with which he conducted a cross-examination. Where ordinary advocates would have gone on worrying a hostile or browbeating a timid witness, he was content to ask a few questions, usually in a quiet and apparently careless tone, yet one which never failed to fix the attention of the jury on a vital point. His own kindliness of nature made him sometimes spare a witness even to the extent of seeming to endanger his case; but the jury usually saw how the land lay, and he never committed the fault, so common in our courts, of putting the sympathies of the audience with a witness by unfair treatment.

The same tact and insight were observable in his speeches. He was short, plain, direct, never seeking an opportunity for display. Casual observers thought him sleepy or listless, till they perceived after a while how much shrewdness, how much knowledge of character, how much covert humor shone through his seemingly negligent manner. And when the occasion required it, no one could become, suddenly, yet with no effort, more forcible, more crushing. It is long since any one has mounted the English bench who gives greater promise of excellence as a judge, for he was seen to possess, even as an advocate, those qualities in which judicial eminence consists.

As the meeting of Parliament approaches, the tension, so to speak, of the political atmosphere increases daily. The latest sign of it is the extraordinary, and indeed unreasonable, amount of interest with which the election for the North Riding of Yorkshire has been watched by both parties. In times of excitement these by-elections, as we call them, are regarded as an indication of the temper of the nation, and as foreshadowing the results of the next general election. Very often they are nothing of the kind, depending on circumstances special to the locality, or on the respective personal merits of the candidate. In this instance the conditions were sufficiently fair and typical, but the result proves little, for although a Conservative candidate was elected in the place of a former Conservative member, the majority was so small, compared with the size of the constituency, that all one can say is that the two parties are about equally strong. The Conservatives have succeeded, but it is by the exercise of the influence of the great landlords as much as by any popularity of their own programme. The Liberals have been disappointed in their hope of carrying a Conservative position, but it was a hope which they had no grounds for indulging. Such significance as the election has, lies in the evidence it gives of the extent to which the English tenant farmers are organizing themselves as a separate party, instead of blindly following the lead of their landlords. The Liberal candidate stood rather as a tenant farmer than as a Liberal; the Conservative candidate was obliged in the course of his campaign to promise to support many planks in the platform of the tenant farmers which the Conservative party has hitherto opposed. Any awakening toward independence of this important class is a wholesome sign, whatever results on the balance of political power it may ultimately have. Y.

BISMARCK IN A RAGE.

BERLIN, February 6, 1882.

THE first short session of the fifth Reichstag, which was closed last week, has disappointed the hopes or fears of those who, from the day of its opening, had either expected or apprehended its dissolution. There were a great many excited debates, many incriminations and recriminations, but the animosity of parties and Government representatives did not go beyond bitter words, and the practical results of the session were rather small. With the exception of the defeat of the proposed creation of the "Volkswirthschaftsrath" the Government carried all its bills. The budget did not meet with any serious objections; the incorporation of Hamburg into the Zollverein was passed by a two-thirds

majority; some consular conventions, as for instance with Greece, and the act for the navigation of the Danube met with the approval of the House. On the other hand, the negative results of the session are more important. The Chancellor did not dare to introduce any of his so-called great reforms. The tobacco monopoly was prudently withheld; not only was the insurance of workingmen against old age and accidents kept back, but nothing was done to carry it out in the shape in which it was adopted last summer by a majority of the Reichstag. Bismarck himself admitted that this kind of insurance could not be made by the Government; that in place of a bureaucratically organized institution private companies must take the risk, and that he wished to base such companies on coöperative associations; but he has not yet given a nearer definition of his meaning.

It would, however, be rash to infer from this smooth outward appearance a state of good feeling and general peace. The legislative results of the last session are only due to the fact that all the Government plans which, during the last elections, dominated the campaign, have been postponed. In every debate which embraced the general political field, the sharpest differences were manifested, as was to be expected from the last elections. It is therefore impossible to predict how at the next session an agreement will be reached between the present Reichstag and the Government, if Bismarck does not in the meantime once more change his views and choose to modify or abandon his pet plans. In my opinion, however, he will not do so. He is in a fighting spirit, and resentful to the utmost degree. He groans under what he considers a defeat, and is not too weary to take up the cudgels again as soon as a favorable opportunity offers itself.

If it be true that the character of a man can best be judged when he is in anger, I must say that the Chancellor in the session of January 24th did not appear much to his advantage as a sober statesman. I was present at that tumultuous parliamentary scene. Deputy Haenel, an able expounder of public law and a gentleman in every respect, had attacked the royal rescript of January 4th, chiefly directed against the participation of civil officers in elections, and had blamed the Ministers for shielding themselves against attack by the royal authority. There was not the least personal offence in these words; they did not imply the least doubt of the personal courage of a Minister, and they were considered perfectly in place by all who listened to them. Bismarck answered immediately. If he had really been wounded as deeply by the above remarks as he afterward feigned to have been, he would at once have refuted the objectionable criticisms of Mr. Haenel. But instead of doing so he began a quiet and easy discussion on constitutional questions, made some good witty remarks, told some stories about his relations with the Emperor, and then suddenly began to work himself into a passion and, by a queer process of reasoning, attacked Mr. Haenel for having called him a coward. And now a most riotous scene took place. Rage repressed for half an hour, and then suddenly bursting forth, without any evident reason, is certainly a psychological curiosity. Saying that he was above the reproach of cowardice, the Chancellor left his seat, stepped forward to the tribune, and in the course of his excited remarks advanced toward the Left side of the house, in front of that part of it which is occupied by the party of Progress. Some of its members replied that no such reproach had been made by any of them. Mr. Haenel repeatedly corrected Bismarck's mistake. "You ought to be ashamed of yourselves," sharply retorted the latter; "I would rather never see you again." (Great noise, laughter, and murmurs on the Left; vociferous cheers and cries of "Bravo!" on the Right.)

The Chancellor now became still more excited; the replies and repartees from within the House made him lose all control over himself. He evidently mistook what was intended as a correction for a new offence. The clang of voices, the shrill tones of attack and defence, in short, the general confusion, for a moment dissolved the order of the House. "Who is there," Bismarck exclaimed, with rolling eyes and with a browbeating air, "who dares to call me a coward?" "You are mistaken," was once more the answer of half a dozen members; "nobody has done so." Nevertheless, the Chancellor still continued in his excitement, "Let him step forward and let him give his name." No answer came; the House was quiet again. It seemed as if Bismarck had finally perceived his mistake. Slowly he returned to his seat and muttered between his teeth, "Thank your God that you have not done so." If the surprise created by this scene had been great, it was increased when the Chancellor, as if nothing had happened, coolly and briliantly took up again the defence of the royal rescript, explaining the terms used in it, in relation to the civil officers, in the most liberal way. When the next following speech of Deputy Von Treitschke drove more than one-half of the members from the hall into the lobby, the criticism of what they had heard and seen manifested itself in dumb amazement.

The general uneasiness and suspense under which the Reichstag has been closed will be transferred to the lower house of the Prussian Landtag, which was convened before the adjournment of the German Parliament, and will sit for the next three months. There are two very important measures pending before it—namely, the coming to terms with Rome, and the purchase of the rest of the private railroads by the Government. As to the first, I consider any hope of an ultimate settlement as quite hopeless. The so-called distressed condition of the Roman Catholic Church in Prussia has been reduced, during the past few years, to a comparatively small number of parishes which have no priests, partly because the bishops refused, and still refuse, to give notice of their candidates and appointees to the Government, partly because there is a lack of persons competent to perform the ministerial offices. To do away with this state of things the Government has occupied a position which contradicts itself, and about which that man can only be deceived who *will* be deceived. While these shortcomings, it argues, have not been caused by the Administration, it nevertheless feels a moral and political obligation to remove them. But if the Prussian Government be entirely innocent of this distress, it is therefore the clergy who must be blamed for it, not only by their actions in the past, but by their present conduct, too, which daily repeats itself. Now this mild spirit and these conciliatory efforts to efface the faults and guilt of others can only be realized when the guilty party tries to repair the consequences of its acts, or at least does not continue them. The Government, however, in declaring itself under moral obligations to repair the wrong which a third party has committed, and is daily committing, exposes itself to unlimited pressure and exaggerated demands on the part of the very men whom it is trying to relieve. In my opinion it is the Roman clergy before all who have first to prove their repentance, and next are in duty bound to remove the present distress of their faithful adherents. They, therefore, ought to do everything in their power to secure for them the consolations of their religion, and even to make sacrifices to that end. The Prussian Government has never saddled the Roman Catholics with duties with which they cannot comply. If it nevertheless wishes to meet the Roman See half way, and expects that the latter will cheerfully coöperate with its benevolent aims, it proves that it does not fully appreciate the character of the papal policy, with which it ought to have become more intimately acquainted since Niebuhr's negotiations. Or has Rome ever respected the laws of a heretic power when it found a means of opposing and defeating them, or has it ever found itself bound by its own treaties when it could avail itself of a loophole? Herr von Schloezer, who is now in Rome, may be a very able diplomatist, but in this case all his arts and dexterity will not help him much, for the premises are wrong on which he must act. A diplomatist whose master has thrown away his best cards, cannot beat an adversary who still holds the trumps in his hands. Herr von Schloezer is on "a fool's errand." I pity him personally, but I despise a policy which has richly deserved a humiliating defeat, and which will finally be buried in shame and disgrace.

Of our present railroad policy I shall give you an analysis as soon as the bills laid before the Landtag have been carried. Their passage admits of no doubt. The result of the measure will be the exclusive ownership of all Prussian railroads by the Government, and consequently a most powerful, if not formidable, state monopoly. † † †

Correspondence.

A STRANGE MATHEMATICAL COINCIDENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just found another instance of the well-known facility with which two great minds, working on the same subject, produce ideas which are similar and similarly expressed.

Mr. George Bruce Halsted (whose work on 'Mensuration' was recently reviewed by the *Nation*) is the author of an article in the *Journal of Speculative Philosophy* for October, 1878, on the "Statement and Reduction of Syllogism." After giving a table of the six possible combinations of premises, he says:

"And of these there are only two which give rise to a conclusion or relation between the extreme terms.

"As regards the negative case this is at once seen to be so—thus, $x\,y=0$, $z\,y=0$ (no x's are y's, no z's are y's), leads to no conclusion in regard to the positive terms, x, z.

"As regards the positive cases the conclusions may be easily proved to be valid by general symbolical reasoning. Thus, whatever Y may be, we know $Y = Yx + Y\bar{x}$; but in case 2, since $XY = 0$. $\therefore$. $Y = Y\bar{x}$. But also we are given $ZY > 0$; therefore, substituting, we have $ZY\bar{X} > 0$. $\therefore$. $Z\bar{X} > 0$.

"Again, $XZ = XZ\bar{y} + XZy$ always; but in 4 a factor of XZy, namely, $X\bar{y}$, is equal to nought; and a factor of $XZ\bar{y}$, namely, $Z\bar{y}$, is equal to nought; therefore, $XZ = 0 + 0 = 0$.

"The logical signification of each step is obvious."

In a "Note on the Calculus of Logic" in the *Quarterly Journal of Pure and Applied Mathematics* for 1871, Professor Cayley, after giving the same table, says:

"And of these there are (as shown by the third column) only two which give rise to a conclusion (or relation between the extreme terms). As regards the negative cases, this is at once seen to be so—thus, $X\,Y = 0$, $Z\,Y = 0$ (no X's are Y's, no Z's are Y's) leads to no conclusion in regard to X, Z. As regards the positive cases, it is also at once seen that the conclusions do follow; but we may obtain the conclusions by symbolical reasoning—thus:

(2) $Y = YX + YX', = YX';$

therefore, $ZY = ZYX'$, not $= 0$;
therefore, ZX' not $= 0$.

(4) $X'Z = XZY + XZY'$,

where on the right-hand side each term (the first as containing XY, the second as containing ZX') is $= 0$; that is, $XZ = 0$; where the logical signification of each step is obvious."

It may be mentioned that X' and $\overline{X}$ are different notations for not-X.

This remarkable coincidence might be taken by the competent critic as a "sign of a Cambridge residence" on the part of Mr. Halsted, from which he had derived "inestimable benefits," were it not for the express remark—"and such is the nature of the reduction of syllogism which we now present."—Respectfully, H.

BALTIMORE, MD.

Notes.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & Co. publish immediately Senator Geo. F. Hoar's eulogy upon President Garfield, and will be the American publishers of Lansdell's 'Through Siberia.'

A. C. Armstrong & Son publish next month a new and cheapened library edition of Napier's 'History of the War in the Peninsula.'

Fifty years ago any schoolboy could have named the "Lynn Bard." Now, though it is but a little more than twenty years since he died, Alonzo Lewis is almost unremembered and unknown outside of New England. Mr. Lewis was a journalist and the historian of his native town, and had an early and honorable share in the organization of the anti-slavery movement in Massachusetts. Mr. Ion Lewis, of Lynn, is reprinting his father's poems in a subscription volume, adding some not found in earlier collections.

Macmillan & Co.'s popular edition of their successful novels is continued in Kingsley's 'Hypatia' and 'Westward Ho!' The binding, in simple blue cloth, befits any library, and the print of these volumes is clear and pleasant to the eye, except that the plates of the 'Hypatia' begin to show wear. With these qualities it seems as if cheapness in price (at a dollar a volume) could no further go. The series already includes, besides the above, 'Hogan, M.P.'; and 'John Inglesant' is to be added directly.

The Century Co., like the Messrs. Harper, have resolved to destroy the early plates of their magazine. November, 1881, is the limit of this devastation.

The Messrs. Putnam's reprint, by arrangement, of Prof. Henry Morley's 'English Literature in the Reign of Victoria,' is a somewhat larger and more open volume than No. 2,000 of the Tauchnitz edition. The autographic facsimiles are retained.

Miss Sarah Brook's 'French History for English Children,' already reviewed in these columns, has been put in a condensed and handier form by Harper & Bros., who have added to the nine maps a number of illustrations, including Chapu's beautiful statue of Joan of Arc, which serves as a frontispiece. Mr. George Cary Eggleston has revised and edited this work, which, it should be repeated, is not for the youngest children.

The original 'Great Artists' series of Sampson Low & Co. (New York: Scribner & Welford), having reached its full number of twenty-four volumes, and the demand for these popular little biographies not being satisfied, a second series is now begun with 'Murillo' and 'Meissonier.' The former is written by Ellen M. Minor, and is based upon Stromer's 'Murillo, Leben und Werke.' It contains about sixty pages of pleasantly and carefully written text, ten engravings, and an excellent list of Murillo's principal works with their present whereabouts. The 'Meissonier' is collated by John W. Mollett, largely from criticisms and notes in recent journals, and naturally provides a convenient summary of rather inaccessible matter. It frankly confesses itself at the outset to be premature and unsatisfactory, and while refraining as much as possible from active participation in the debate about Meissonier's merits, it expects to "contribute a few tumbrils of ammunition to either side" in the attempt to arrange together the few known facts of the painter's life and the best criticisms upon his work. The task is executed with enthusiasm and considerable brilliancy of style. The price of the new series is one shilling less than that of the old.

The Boston Public Library's Bulletin for January contains a valuable list of indexes to periodical literature in all departments of science. It is worth knowing that this library has a card index, embracing more than 40,000 titles, to its Congressional documents, of which the collection is believed to be unrivalled. We also learn from the Bulletin that by recent purchases at Amsterdam there have been acquired "a considerable number of historical views, portraits, and caricatures of the time of the Revolution, most of which, it is believed, are wholly unknown in this country." Finally, notice is given that Mr. Hubbard's list of objectionable works in circulation has led to their temporary withdrawal for examination. This is proper and honorable in the trustees; but the restoration, be it more or less extensive, will have the effect of a sanction which the original purchase and circulation did not imply.

In the January *Portfolio* is the first of a series of papers, which is to be illustrated by twelve etchings by M. Brunet-Debaines, on the Ruined Abbeys of Yorkshire; also the beginning of a short series on Ornament, by H. H. Statham. Frederick Wedmore writes of William Müller and his Sketches, especially of those made in the East, and now bequeathed to the British Museum by Mr. John Henderson. Various works attributed to Hans Holbein the Younger afford Mr. F. G. Stephens occasion for a thoughtful essay, in which he concludes, on technical grounds, that certain paintings at Basle should be ascribed to an unknown painter of that city instead of to Holbein. The continuation of these studies in the February number discusses the famous *Passion*.

Under the auspices of the Society of Decorative Art, Mr. F. D. Millet, whose share in the costuming of the Harvard "Œdipus" will not be forgotten, will give four lectures on Roman Costume at the Union League Theatre on February 28, and March 7, 14, 21. The subjects will be, respectively, Dress of Men, Military and Gladiatorial Costume, Dress of Women, and Etruscan Costume. Those who desire may use sketch and note-books.

—The salient article in the *Century* for March is Mr. Richard Grant White's "Opera in New York," the first of a series whose tendency clearly appears to be to assert the metropolitan hegemony of this city even in matters musical, and especially, perhaps, over Boston. Mr. White, before he begins to be entertaining, lingers over a debatable proposition about the average New Yorker's memory, without, however, anywhere precisely fixing the range of his own in the matter in hand. He had Aaron Burr pointed out to him by his father as a lad, and this implies a date prior to 1836; but just where the line should be drawn between the traditions he heard from his elders or has gathered from books and newspapers, and his personal reminiscences, is left uncertain. This is, however, of small consequence to the reader who wishes to be amused, and is not disposed to stop and question some rather positive generalities about the relative worth of artists of a past generation. Mr. White has enlisted in his behalf a great number of rare prints from the portfolios of our dramatic collectors, and for their sake at least we might wish to see these papers eventually collected and reissued in book form. The most substantial feature of the contents is Dr. James Bryce's masterly sketch of Lord Beaconsfield's career, analysis of his character, and attempt to explain his extraordinary success in a worldly sense. The writer's confessed bias against him has not prevented a close approach to the aim of this paper—to look on Beaconsfield and to sum him up as the historian may, and probably will, some day do. Mr. Bryce's freshness and fluency (for the sketch reads like unpremeditated oratory) will surprise those who could not have believed it possible to say anything new about the subject. Nor is it his least merit that his incidental remarks are often models of felicitous characterization. "That minister," he says of Lord Palmerston, "had, in his later years, settled down into a sort of practical Toryism, and both parties acquiesced in his rule." "He [Disraeli] felt himself no Englishman, and watched English life and politics as a student of natural history might watch the habits of bees or ants." The Tory protectionist remnant after Peel's desertion "were broad-acred squires, of solid character but slender capacity. Through this heavy atmosphere Mr. Disraeli rose like a balloon." But the whole of Mr. Bryce's sixteen pages deserve to be read and re-read.

— New to us in the March *Harper's*, and very well told, is the story of the religious imposture of James Jesse Strang, an outgrowth of Mormonism, suppressed by violence in 1856. The seat of Strang's kingdom was Beaver Island, at the northern extremity of Lake Michigan, and his career forms a most curious chapter in the history of American superstitions. Mr. W. H. Bishop's concluding paper on Mexico seems to us the best of the three, and Mr. Ruskin might pause in his attacks on the nineteenth century if he should read on p. 541 of "the very different sentiment with which it is customary to surround a manufactory in this country [Mexico] from that prevailing with us" or in England. Besides the grist and paper mills of the Cervantes family, which are combined, as an architect might say, in one general "motive" with the house and chapel, and of which the water-power is used to embellish the grounds, there is also the cotton factory at Orizaba, with "a fine architectural gateway, and a statue of Manuel Escandon, the founder, in the court"; and "in the sugar haciendas, which, with their tall chimneys, all have the look of factories, this union of the domestic and refined with the practical is universal." Professor Newcomb describes very lucidly the constituent parts of a telescope, to the practical end that the reader may manufacture a modest one for himself, if so disposed; and also describes the capacity of a small glass for discerning celestial objects, and for materially furthering scientific discovery by sweeping the heavens for comets or watching the phases of the planets and nebulæ. The paper is of course illustrated. The antiquarianism of the number is contained in Mr. John Austin Stevens's "Old New York Coffee-houses," which, after all the entertainment which both writer and reader derive from them, seem little memorable. "The New French Minister of Public Instruction" is already an anachronism, but at least we are shown M. Paul Bert's strong and certainly not pious physiognomy, and there is no harm in recalling his exposure, in the French Chamber three years ago, of Jesuit morality of

the present day, as exemplified in John Peter Gury's 'Compendium Theologiæ Moralis' and 'Casus Conscientiæ.' The worst features of these works had to be suppressed by the writer of the sketch before us. Miss Elizabeth Stuart Phelps makes some guarded extracts from the latest letters she received in a correspondence with George Eliot; Professor Luigi Monti suggests pictorially and by means of classical citations a connection between the *cock-horse* of the nursery rhyme and a fabulous monster figured on an Etruscan vase, and identified with the Greek "hippolectryon, or horse-cock"; and there is much other readable matter of the quality and variety usual in this magazine.

— *Lippincott's* March number has a second paper on the Gulf Coast by Mr. Barton D. Jones; and an account of the burning of Columbia, by S. H. M. Byers, a Union prisoner. He ridicules the idea that the cotton was fired by the Union forces, and, as he was an eye-witness, his testimony is of some value, though his means of observation were limited. The magazines have, by the way, made very little as yet of the magazine material which might be collected among the survivors of the Southern prisons. What with Libby, Belle Isle, Americus, Andersonville, and the Texas and South Carolina prisons, and the extraordinary escapes that were made in some instances from them, one would say that much might still be made out of Southern prison life in the way of reminiscences. The accounts written during the war and immediately after it were in great measure controversial in character, and turned on the question of the cruelties practised on prisoners in the South. But apart from this, there were many other features of it very different from prison life as it is ordinarily understood, though of course it needs a somewhat rare descriptive faculty to bring them out vividly. Mr. Theodore Child gives a rather curious account of "Washington on the French Stage," his latest appearance being last year in "Le Patriote," a dramatization of Cooper's 'The Spy.' It is difficult to understand the very considerable theatrical popularity which Washington has enjoyed in France, but the anachronisms and blunders with which the French Washingtonian drama abounds, really help to explain it. An audience which knows so little of this country or its history as to tolerate a representation of Yorktown as a feudal fortress with Gothic towers and dungeons, is just the audience to enjoy a melodramatic "Sir George Vashinton" as its besieger.

—The *Atlantic* contains an interesting sketch, by H. A. Huntington, of the life and plays of a once popular dramatist, whose name is now hardly recollected by the theatre-going public—Farquhar, the author of the "Beaux' Stratagem," and "Love and a Bottle." Farquhar died at the age of twenty-nine, after a life of constant struggle with poverty, but to the last he faced adversity with a smile, fighting the wolf at his door, and, as Mr. Huntington says, "shielding to the last, with his worn body, the wife and children behind him." His final comedy was at the height of its success at the Haymarket when he died. His plays, like all comedies, reflect the manners of his time, and our manners are different, better, purer, more refined; but in one respect we are worse off than our ancestors of two centuries ago —that we have lost much of that vitality and spontaneity of action which made their comedies, like the life they painted, seem so much more real and vivid than ours. Edith M. Thomas, in some verses called "Syrinx," deals with an old subject in what can hardly be called a new way. The deep regret expressed by so many modern poets over the disappearance of Pan from the world is often tempered to their minds by the fact that his disappearance furnishes a "timely topic" for the muse. A sigh over his non-existence is as handsome a tribute to classical sentiment as a poet or poetess can pay, and classicism is itself so very nearly "clean gone" out of modern poetry, that even the most Christian reader cannot but feel grateful to Pan for what he still does in his downfall to keep alive the memory of it. "Hymns and Hymn-Tinkers," by A. P. Hitchcock, gives some extraordinary specimens of the hymn-tinker's work. Nobody has suffered more at his hands than Wesley, whose beautiful hymns have had for the tinker a fatal fascination. Punishment in another world of a lasting character will surely overtake the author of the following lines:

> "Other refuge have I none.
> *Lo, I, helpless, hang* on thee;
> Leave, *oh!* leave me not alone,
> *Lest I basely shrink and flee.*"

What Wesley wrote was:

> "Other refuge have I none.
> Hangs my helpless soul on thee;
> Leave, ah, leave me not alone,
> Still support and comfort me."

Mr. N. H. Eggleston gives an account of the Hoosac Tunnel which is more readable than such accounts are apt to be, and enables the unprofessional reader to understand some of the triumphs of engineering skill which the tunnel represents. Most people imagine this to consist simply in the excavation, and have probably wondered why so much noise should be made about blasting and boring through a mountain, even if this be five miles thick. The reader of Mr. Eggleston's article will, however, discover that there was more in the excavation of the Hoosac Tunnel than this. To the Massachusetts taxpayer the most startling and singular fact in connection with the tunnel always was the manner in which the cost increased as the work went on. The final expense was, it seems, fourteen times the original estimates.

— The *North American* for March contains an article by Senator Edmunds on the Guiteau trial, in which he reaches a conclusion which few lawyers will probably be disposed to question—that much of the scandal which its conduct caused would have been avoided had Judge Cox made vigorous use of his undoubted power to keep the audience in order. If, after a reasonable warning, the Court had made one or two examples of spectators guilty of disorderly or indecorous behavior, by punishing them for a contempt of court, "all demonstrations on the part of the audience would doubtless have ceased, and the public would have been taught the valuable lesson that courts of justice are not theatres, where the acting is to be applauded or condemned as it may strike the various tempers of the beholders." He had also the power, which is sometimes resorted to in criminal trials, of clearing the court-room, and in most cases a warning that this will be done has an admirable effect on a too demonstrative audience. Since the verdict Guiteau has been entirely cut off from all communication with the public, and this, whether it results from orders of the Court, the District Attorney, or the Marshal, proves that the ribald and blasphemous appeals to the public issued during the trial through the press were entirely unnecessary. With regard to punishing the prisoner himself for contempt, Mr. Edmunds thinks that the prohibition of "cruel and unusual punishments" limits that to fine and imprisonment, and suggests that if the trial were to be delayed while the accused was being imprisoned, most guilty persons on trial would deliberately create a disturbance in court in order to prevent the trial from going on, while the objection to going on with the trial in his absence is his constitutional right to be present. Mr. Edmunds holds that this right cannot be waived by the prisoner's misconduct, any more than he can waive jury trial, or the finding of an indictment. The argument against removing him from the court-room we have not seen so forcibly put before. Fining a prisoner like Guiteau would of course be an empty form, and imprisonment, it may be added, is nugatory for a reason not mentioned by Mr. Edmunds—that he is in the jailer's hands already. Judge Edward A. Thomas has an article on trial by jury, in which he "claims" that "a court composed of one or three judges will arrive at a proper decision more frequently, more speedily, and with less expense to litigants and taxpayers, than a court will which is compelled to call in a jury to aid in its decisions." There is no question about the speed and economy, and possibly the decision would be more just in most cases; but there is another consideration which advocates of the abolition of juries frequently overlook—that the judicial machinery provided for the settlement of disputes must be satisfactory to litigants. In large classes of cases—suits, for instance, against corporations, and criminal cases—the popular character of the jury is what the litigant relies on; and though it may not furnish an ideally perfect mode of trial, its bias in favor of popular rights and life and liberty and against the supposed tyranny and avarice of corporate bodies, or the severity of judges, reconciles him to litigation as he finds it. In suits against coporations, plaintiffs can always dispense with jury trial, if they wish to do so, now, and the corporations are never likely to object to their doing so. Mr. Neal Dow contributes an article on prohibitory legislation, at the conclusion of which he makes the surprising statement that the persistence of the liquor traffic in the large cities is "due entirely to some defects in the law as it now stands, which we know perfectly, and which will be corrected by and by," after which "the last vestige of this great evil will be summarily swept away."

—The folio 'Comprehensive Atlas and Geography—Modern, Historical, Classical, and Physical,' of which the Messrs. Putnam are the American publishers, only carries out on a large scale and with the necessary changes in the maps the plan of their 'Library Atlas' published in 1875. The descriptive letter-press, then as now, is the work of Drs. James Bryce, W. F. Collier, and Leonhard Schmitz, except that there is now added an Introduction to Physical Geography, by Dr. Bryce, which in a measure overlaps the same author's Descriptive Modern Geography, and indeed appears to be of even date with it, for the results of Stanley's exploration of the Congo are ignored. This is made the more striking by the fact that the map of Africa has been brought up to date in this and other respects, although, in Map I., we still wholly miss the Congo among the rivers of the earth whose lengths are compared. One must say, therefore, that either the foreign publishers should have altered the text conformably to the plates, or should have confessed the date of the former, which nowhere appears. In general, it is to be observed of this atlas that it will supply all ordinary family needs, and meet the requirements of general historical and political study. From its origin, it is naturally fuller in respect to the British Empire than to all other political divisions; so that in Africa, for example, besides Egypt, there are enlarged maps only of Cape Colony and Natal, and one could get no special help from it for military operations in Tunis and Algeria. The United States are repeated in some detail, with a whimsical division which emphasizes the merit of Mr. Gannett's recently-proposed scheme. A group of the Lake States is given which omits Ohio, with its large watershed lakeward, and includes Indiana and Illinois, which are almost wholly in the Mississippi basin. There are special railway maps of certain European

States, but as a rule railroads are unrepresented, except that we notice the yet mythical Canadian Pacific put down in Manitoba and the Northwest Territory. In semi-civilized countries of unstable government, like Afghanistan, boundaries are occasionally indicated too positively; on the other hand, Bosnia is perhaps justly represented without remark as belonging on one map to Austria, on another to Turkey. A question which suggests itself in the case of an American edition is, whether the United States have a history. We find among the historical series, Europe in 1815 and Europe in 1871. Would there not be something instructive in showing the United States at the same dates—*i. e.*, after the wars of 1812 and of the Rebellion? The index of names greatly enhances the convenience and utility of this atlas.

—It is not often that the *Nation* feels called upon to review the circulars of the patent-medicine men. From Ayer's Cherry Pectoral down through Schenck's Pulmonic Balsam and Van Buskirk's Sozodont we have left them quite to their own devices. Neither art, literature, nor science had any interests involved, and our duty to our readers as well as our own inclinations prompted and justified this line of conduct, in which we took a blithe and careless pleasure; we confess it without shame. But these days of childlike freedom are now past. A recent circular-advertisement of the Hop Bitters compels us, out of a sense of our obligations to the march of intellect on this continent, to chronicle its appearance, and to detail and examine its facts and inferences. We can still leave to the *Pharmaceutical Review* the discussion of the astounding claims for Hop Bitters as a steady drink for man and beast; and most of the illustrations (woodcuts) which accompany the circular we turn over, without a sense of regret, to the editors of the *Century*, who, it is rumored, have founded a new school of American wood-engraving and may therefore be supposed to know something about them. The literature and the art of the advertisement we are well rid of; but we feel we have a duty to perform toward its science.

—Two full-page cuts give views of the exterior and the interior of the Warner Observatory. We know this, because the side of the exterior which is turned toward us, bears in large letters its name. What may be on the other side is a question which reminds us of our prevailing ignorance of the earth's satellite. In the latter case we have no *a priori* knowledge. Here we may guess that the reverse inscription refers to absolutely safe remedies. The interior view has for legend: "Interior. Warner. Observatory. Rochester. N. Y.," and below it we read:

"The Warner Observatory is of Lockport white sandstone, and, excluding the $13,000 telescope, cost $60,000. It is the most noteworthy building in Rochester. The Telescope is twenty-two feet long, sixteen-inch aperture, and weighs with mountings two tons. It is the finest instrument in the United States."

In spite of all this legend, we are prepared to maintain that the telescope above mentioned is not in the United States at all; and we base our bold statement on well-established rules of criticism, and on the astronomical fact that the elevation of the north pole above the horizon is equal to the latitude of the place. We have measured the elevation of the pole of this instrument from the drawing, and we find it to be 53°. Hence it is inevitably somewhere in Canada, since our northern boundary nowhere surpasses 49°. Moreover, the cut represents, line for line (except in its errors), the 26-inch equatorial of the Naval Observatory at Washington even to a pair of opera glasses which were standing on a box when the photograph (from which this was partly copied) was taken. One material change has been made, however, and this is to give the telescope an aperture of forty inches, so that our previous guess about Canada appears to be confirmed, since there is certainly no forty-inch telescope in the United States. Add to this the fact that the comet of 1811 is represented as in sight through the opening of the dome, and we think we have made out our case, especially when we say that the Warner telescope has not yet left the hands of the makers; that the dome even is not finished. Clearly the *Nation* had a duty here, and this duty is now performed. It was unfortunately necessary to show the proprietor of the safe remedies that he was laboring under an hallucination. His telescope is not the finest in the United States. He does not own the Naval Observatory. Rochester is not in Canada. Confident of having corrected notions which a too credulous public might imbibe, we may leave this disagreeable task; we knew the remedy and we felt bound to administer it. It is positively safe, and will probably be of no effect.

—The *Inter-Ocean* of Chicago takes exception to our predictions in regard to the loss of supremacy which that city must in a few years undergo as the great centre of lumber distribution of the United States. Without denying the accuracy of the estimates of standing pine in Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, made by the experts in the employ of the Census Office, or of the returns of pine lumber manufactured in those States, our Chicago contemporary asserts that because Professor Sargent's maps show that large areas in Wisconsin and in the northern peninsula of Michigan are still occupied with pine forests, and because we made no allowance for the growth of young trees in districts from which the heavy timber has been removed, Chicago must, for many years to come, remain the great lumber market of the world. Its assertions are, we believe, based upon imperfect information in regard to the actual condition of the pine forests of these States; and we refer the *Inter-Ocean* to the Bulletins themselves for light upon the first point raised in its objection to the accuracy of our prediction. While the maps show that the areas in the northern peninsula and in Wisconsin on which pine is still standing exceed the areas from which pine has been removed, Professor Sargent takes occasion to explain this apparent anomaly by a statement of the fact that the northern pine forest, which now alone remains, carries few and small trees to the acre, and that it is everywhere interspersed with innumerable lakes, swamps, and barrens. Estimates, then, must be based upon the actual condition of the forest in different regions, and not upon comparative areas, cut and uncut, without reference to the nature of their formation or tree-covering. Nor can the growth of young trees be counted on to any great extent in considering the future of Chicago as a lumber market. As we have already pointed out, such trees as in these States escape the axe fall a prey to the fires which are allowed to lick up what the logger finds too small for his market. In the virgin forest, where fires are less numerous than in the rear of the logging camps, the annual increase in the size of individual trees is often considerable, but the best woodsmen are unanimous in their belief that in the States in question the increase is more than offset by death from old age, or destruction by the escape of hunters' camp-fires into the forest, or by tornadoes, which are of frequent occurrence and great extent in these northern forests. Chicago holds her sceptre of pine in a feeble grasp. It must fall from her hand entirely unless she devote her energies to preserving and protecting the scattered remnants of the noble forests to which she owes so much of her prosperity.

—Evidences of the steady improvement in educational matters in Japan come to us in the form of the 'Calendar of the Departments of Law, Science, and Literature' of the University of Tokio. This, in the same patriotic spirit which draws the central meridian of the earth's longitude through the Mikado's castle, is dated 2540-41 J. E. (from the foundation of the Japanese Empire), or A. D. 1880-'81. With it are two monographs by professors of the University, which we may notice hereafter. The Tokio Daigaku (Great Learning, or University) being the head of the educational system of the empire, its health and vigor are diffused and felt in all the provinces and lower schools. It is the slow evolution through a century and a half of the application of the native mind to foreign sciences. The Yedo scholar, Arai Hakuseki, by inquiry of the Hollanders at Nagasaki, and the Government inquisition (against Christian heretics, especially the Italian priest, John Sidotti) led to the introduction of Western learning into Japan. Hakuseki published an account of what he learned, which was translated, about 1865, by the Rev. S. R. Brown, an American scholar. An astronomical observatory and translation office were subsequently established, which, after Perry's visit in 1854, led to the recognition of the Dutch and English languages as part of the curriculum in the old Confucian College, and finally to the Kai-sei-jo (Place of Civilization) school, and the despatch of students to Europe. The institution in its present form may be safely said to have been founded by the Rev. Guido F. Verbeck, whom the Mikado's Government, on its accession to power in Tokio, called from Nagasaki to be its president, and to organize a national educational system. Mr. Verbeck, who is an American gentleman, though of Dutch origin, had, at Nagasaki, instructed in Dutch or English most of the younger leaders of the Revolution of 1868, and perhaps a full half of those who formed the embassy of 1878. From 1868 to 1876, the polyglot and ever-changing experiment was conducted in the three languages, English, German, and French; but from that year, 1876, English was made the sole basis of culture, while other tongues were employed only as special studies. Gradually, the places of the twenty-five or thirty professors from abroad were filled by native graduates of Rutgers, Cornell, Oxford, Cambridge, and London, thus greatly diminishing the expense. Twelve foreign instructors are still employed.

—The Daigaku issues its stout annual calendar bilingually, in English and Japanese, and is written and printed by natives. The three departments are law, science, and literature, the courses in which require each four years to complete. In science there are six courses—viz., Mathematics, Physics, Astronomy, Biology, Engineering, Geology, Mining, and Metallurgy. Literature has two courses—(1) Philosophy, Political Philosophy, and Political Economy; and (2) Japanese and Chinese Literature. For preparatory instruction in the languages and rudiments of education, the Yobimon, a well-organized academy, exists in the old Kai-sei-jo buildings. The summary shows that ninety-two students have been graduated, fifteen of whom were sent to Europe and America, while two hundred and eight undergraduates remain. The president is H. Kato, the accomplished tutor of the Mikado, and the author of a brochure on political economy which is reckoned as a modern classic, and is usually studied by missionaries and others as an example of the best contemporaneous Japanese style. The vice-president is I. Hattori (Rutgers, '75), who may be remembered by his contributions

to *St. Nicholas*. Other instructors are Toyama (who wrote in the *Tribune* on Thiers and the Chinaman—"The Giant and the Dwarf"); Nakamura, the translator of Mill on 'Liberty,' 'Self-Help,' and the three most important documents of American history from 1776 to 1800; Matsui, Yatabe, Mitsukuri, and others less well known. The "boys" prepared by the American teachers in Japan, at Fukui, Shidzuoka, and other places, appear now to be giving a good account of themselves. The curriculum seems to be fully up to that of a first-class American college, when it is remembered that the working language is foreign. The mere mention of the equipment of apparatus, museums, library, and reading-rooms, is enough to make an ex-instructor envious, when the progress of a decade is compared with the chaos of the beginning. Among text-books American authors are well represented, and the various scientific monographs on Japan by foreign writers, from Thunberg to Rein, are utilized. Ultimately, the courses will be all in Japanese, with, however, the retention of European languages as means of culture, and the consequent degradation of Chinese from its former supremacy to the level of Western tongues. We are glad to see that the classic native literature is critically studied. It is only by the cultivation of their own long-neglected language that the Japanese scholars can ever hope to possess a vehicle by which the thought of the world can be given to the masses of their countrymen. The seed is living yet, though held for ages in their dead classics, which for six centuries have been wrapped and mummied in the swathings of Chinese characters. It is to the rising school of native journalists and writers who bravely put their thoughts in pure Japanese, discarding the pedantic and mongrel Chinese words and phrases, that we are to look for future progress along the right lines.

—Schubert's unfinished Symphony in B minor opened the fourth concert of the Brooklyn Philharmonic Society. It is one of those works which adherents of both the old and the new order of things in music admire; the former because of its sweetness of melody and symmetry of form, the latter on account of the novelty and originality of its modulations, its harmonic depth, its exquisite instrumentation and incessant flow of fresh ideas. The fact that the symphony is unfinished is to be regretted, but does not greatly lessen the enjoyment of the movements that exist, for the reason that musical impressions are consecutive in time only, and not coexistent in space; wherefore the missing movements are not felt as mutilations, like missing limbs of a statue or an unfinished picture, but simply as happiness cut short—something like the feeling of regret we all experience on finishing a novel whose characters have interested us, and whose life-experiences have been brought to an arbitrary close by the will and plan of the author. After the symphony had been played in the usual refined manner of the Philharmonic Society, Miss Cary sang the aria "O, pardon me," from Bach's Passion Music, and subsequently Beethoven's "In questa tomba" from "Fidelio." Miss Cary's artistic style and impressive voice are too well known to call for comment. The two arias were separated by the introduction to the third act of Cherubini's "Medea," and after a brief intermission came the second part of the concert, which was devoted entirely to Liszt's symphony to Dante's "Divina Commedia." The impression given by this work at a first hearing is apt to be somewhat confused. Those who look for a regular symphony will miss the usual division into contrasted movements, the periodic structure, and the various orthodox devices of thematic treatment. The principle adopted here, as Wagner so clearly explains in his essay on Liszt's symphonic poems, is not that of change, or alternation of quiet and slow with quick and gay movements (all based on the original dance form, even in the most elaborate symphony); it is the principle of development of a poetic idea in a natural, methodical manner. Although music without form is simply impossible, there are nevertheless critics who pronounce Liszt's music formless and chaotic, the reason for this being simply that they cannot find in it their favorite dance-form, and, being too lazy to study the new form of development, find it more convenient to dispose of the matter by using the word "formless." The people, however, being less hampered by considerations of form, at once recognize the originality of Liszt's motives, which are often so strikingly characteristic and definite in conception that Wagner declares that he often had to exclaim after the first sixteen bars, "Sufficient, I have it all!" In saying this he doubtless had in mind, among others, the recurring motive expressing the words "All hope abandon, ye who enter here," in the Dante Symphony. But, although we are among the admirers of the Dante Symphony, we frankly admit that we do not admire it so much as some of Liszt's shorter works, as for instance the fourteenth Hungarian Rhapsody and the Battle of the Huns. But it is a sufficiently original and impressive work to retain a place of honor on our concert programmes for years to come.

THE MENDELSSOHNS.

The Mendelssohn Family (1729–1847). From Letters and Journals. By Sebastian Hensel. Translated by Karl Klingemann. With a Notice by Geo. Grove. New York: Harper & Bros. 1882.

THE voluminous work by Sebastian Hensel on the Mendelssohn family, which appeared in Germany about a year ago, met with such a favorable reception that a second edition was soon in demand. Of this second edition the present is a translation. It differs from the first chiefly by the omission of numerous passages which were found to be of no interest to the general reader. The book has doubtless lost nothing by this treatment, and the only thing to be regretted now is that the process of reduction was not carried on still further; for it cannot be denied that any one not a member of the Mendelssohn family will still find a great part of these two volumes of 340 and 359 pages rather dry and somniferous reading. Eight portraits are given from drawings by Wilhelm Hensel, and the first volume has also a short introductory note by Mr. George Grove. Mr. Grove's excellent article on Mendelssohn in his 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians' was in preparation about the same time as Hensel's work, so that each was enabled through advance-sheets to profit by the labors of the other.

The sources from which Herr Hensel drew his narrative were chiefly a rich collection of letters, his mother's journals, and personal recollections. Most of the material is new, including several scores of letters by Felix Mendelssohn; and whenever anything is inserted that had already appeared in print, it is only to prevent a break in the narrative. The interest, of course, centres in Felix; but the *raison d'être* of the book seems to be rather to show that some other members of the family are also worthy of consideration. The narrative begins with Moses Mendelssohn, the philosopher and author of the modern 'Phædo,' the transmission of whose genius to his grandson Felix affords one of the most interesting cases of atavism, comparable to that of the Darwins. The thirty pages devoted to Moses Mendelssohn give a clear view of those qualities of character and intellect which made him so widely esteemed; and they also show that, however much the Berlin Jews of the present day may suffer from the petty persecutions of the Christians, there has been a decided improvement in their lot within the last hundred or hundred and fifty years. In the middle of the last century residence was in many German towns absolutely forbidden them, and in others they were crowded into certain quarters of the city. Under Frederic William I., we are told, they were obliged to buy the wild boars killed by the royal hunting parties; and under Frederic the Great every Jew was obliged to purchase, when he got married, a certain amount of china from the royal manufactory in Berlin—not according to his own choice, but whatever the manager of the factory wanted to get rid of as otherwise unsalable. Moses Mendelssohn thus came in possession of twenty life-size china apes, some of which have been preserved in the family to the present day.

Moses Mendelssohn had three sons and three daughters, to whom two separate chapters are devoted. His second son was Abraham Mendelssohn. Abraham, as revealed through his letters, was an honest, sensible man, and a good father; but he was not brilliant. His letters to his children are like thousands that are written every day; and there is nothing in them to contradict his own sarcastic remark that formerly he was the son of his father, but now he was the father of his son. Abraham married Leah Salomon, whose brother had adopted the Christian faith and the name of Bartholdy. This name he also advised Abraham to adopt as a distinction from the other Mendelssohns; hence its origin. Abraham's children—Fanny, Felix, Rebecca, and Paul—were also brought up as Christians, secretly at first, to avoid hurting the feelings of their Jewish grandparents, especially old Madam Salomon. This old lady was very orthodox, and when her son Bartholdy abandoned his religion she disinherited him. An anecdote is told in connection with this affair which reflects credit on the character of Fanny. She was in the habit of playing for her grandmother, who was very fond of her. One day, in return for some excellent playing, she was told to choose anything she desired as a reward. Instead of asking for a new bonnet or other piece of finery, Fanny begged her to "forgive Uncle Bartholdy"; and the old lady was so touched by this unexpected request that she became reconciled to her son—"for Fanny's sake," as she wrote him.

A large number of letters written by Fanny and Rebecca to various relatives are printed, some of them being curiously suggestive of their famous brother. Yet, as Mr. Grove says, "they are entirely distinct, and each paints herself in unmistakable colors. Their journals are full of ability, and bring a number of distinguished persons in various walks of life—painters, statesmen, musicians, princes, men of business—favorably and characteristically before us." Fanny married Wilhelm Hensel, the famous painter, and thus had other opportunities besides those offered by her brother's fame for meeting distinguished people; and as she accompanied her husband on his travels in Italy and elsewhere, she could impart additional interest to her letters by descriptions of travelling experiences and the constant change of local color. The distinguished people she met did not always please her fancy. On Börne she is quite severe. Being asked why she never mentioned his stay in Berlin, she replied: "Because in all the wide, wide world nothing is to be said of him." She had seen him often, on all possible occasions, but "he has always been the same little man, hard of hearing,

and still harder of comprehending, to whom the simplest things were new and strange, who, like all the common people at Frankfort, wondered to see the Berliners walk on their hind-legs and eat with their fore-legs; wondered that the trees here were really green, and the snow really white." Heine fares no better. She writes (Berlin, March 22, 1829): "Heine is here, and I do not like him at all; he is so affected. If he would let himself go, he would, of all eccentric men, be the most amiable; or if in good earnest he would keep a tight hand over himself, gravity also would become him, for he is grave too. But he gives himself sentimental airs, is affectedly affected, talks incessantly of himself, and all the while looks at you to see whether you look at him." Rebecca's letters are equally entertaining, and there are indications that she occupied as high a place in Felix's affections as the more gifted Fanny, who wrote compositions of her own after a fashion (she played twenty-four Bach preludes by heart at thirteen), and was always consulted and taken into confidence about the early works of her brother.

But whatever interest may attach to these feminine letters, they would never have got into print had it not been for the artificial value given them by Felix's musical successes and genius; and it is the new sketches and jottings from his own pen that, after all, give these volumes the greatest value and interest. Felix's letters from London and Paris, in the first volume, are extremely amusing and clever. He had not only the gift of observation, but a faculty of literary expression extremely rare among musicians. The account of the performance of *Hamlet* by Kemble at Covent Garden (vol. i., 189, 190) may seem remarkable for a youth of twenty, but finds its explanation in the statement he elsewhere makes, that he entered a coffee-house where he picked up the *Times*, and in his "true Berlin way looked first for the theatrical news." In the street he had something else to look for, chiefly "those fat John Bulls, with their slender, beautiful two daughters hanging on their arms. Oh, those daughters!" The frequent references to "those daughters," and to lovely pairs of brown eyes, as well as his occasional naïve confessions of romantic attachments, show that Mendelssohn was a connoisseur in flirtation regarded as a fine art. A case may be cited in his own language, as it is at the same time a good illustration of his style:

"I was very happy on Saturday; and at the dinner-party to which I afterward went I became intoxicated, but only from the effect of two very wonderful brown eyes, such as the world has never yet seen, or not often. To describe or praise them is unnecessary; for if they please you, I shall be jealous *par distance*, and if they do not please you, I shall be vexed—that, however, is impossible. The lady next to me had the said brown eyes, and they are wondrously beautiful, and their name is Louise, and their owner spoke English, and retired at dessert, whereupon I immediately drank claret, as I had nothing more to see. I had to be off into the country, found no carriage, and was obliged to walk in the cool of the evening. Many musical ideas came into my mind, which I sang out loud to myself; for I went a lonely path through meadows, and met no one; the whole sky was gray, with a purple streak on the horizon, and the thick cloud of smoke behind me."

There is in almost everything Mendelssohn has written a provoking lightness and an unmitigated happiness that Schopenhauer would probably have sneered at as the result of shallow Semitic optimism. It cannot be denied that this endless gayety, like the eternal sunshine and sweetness of his compositions, becomes after a while monotonous; and we find ourselves unconsciously marking the isolated passages which make an exception to this rule. Mendelssohn's intense subjectivity prevented him from being fond of national music, even in the form given it by Beethoven. One day at Llangollen he got so much of it that he burst out: "No national music for me! Ten thousand devils take all nationality! Now I am in Wales, and, dear me! a harper sits in the hall of every reputed inn, playing incessantly so-called national melodies—that is to say, most infamous, vulgar, out-of-time trash, with a hurdy-gurdy going at the same time. . . . Scotch bagpipes, Swiss cow-horns, Welsh harps, all playing the Huntsmen's Chorus with hideously improvised variations. Then their beautiful singing in the hall! Altogether their music is beyond conception." Hensel says that Mendelssohn, whenever he was unable to express approval, preferred to be silent rather than blame; but there is at least one page in these volumes which does not tally with this assertion—the criticism of "famous Auber's famous 'Léocadie,'" in vol. i., p. 126. In this he condemns everything—the clumsy libretto, the tame music, without substance, life, and originality, and the orchestration. The last dozen lines may be quoted as an amusing finale to this sketch:

"The overture begins with a tremulando on the stringed instruments, and then the piccolo instantly begins on the roof and the bassoon in the cellar, and blow away at a melody. In the theme of the allegro the stringed instruments play the Spanish accompaniment, and the flute again drawls out a melody. *Léocadie's* first melancholy air, 'Pauvre Léocadie, il vaudrait mieux mourir,' is again appropriately accompanied by the piccolo. This little instrument serves to illustrate the fury of the brother, the pain of the lover, the joy of the peasant-girl; in short, the whole opera might be transcribed for two flutes and a Jew's harp *ad libitum*. Alas!"

METTERNICH.

Memoirs of Prince Metternich. Edited by Prince Richard Metternich. Vol. V. Translated by Gerard W. Smith. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1882. Also, as Vol. III.: Harper & Bros.

THE fifth volume of Metternich's 'Memoirs' embraces only five years of his long career, extending from April, 1830, to March, 1835—years, we may say, of adversity. His own affairs are in a very flourishing condition. He is powerful, rich, honored, feared and flattered, implicitly trusted by his sovereign, blindly adored by his young wife—the third and last. Dying at the close of the period, the Emperor Francis leaves these written counsels to his son and successor, Ferdinand: "Govern, and change nothing. . . . Repose in Prince Metternich, my truest servant and friend, that confidence which I have bestowed upon him through the course of so many years. . . . Decide no question relating to public affairs or to persons without first hearing what he has to say." And the Princess Mélanie says in her diary, from which we have considerable extracts in this volume: "I lament every day that I cannot put down in writing the things I see and hear, and which would give posterity a true conception of the heart and character of this great man." "It touches me to see the pleasure it gives him to talk with me on business, read me what he writes, give me information, and see me, over and over again, in a position to judge of the wisdom, conscientiousness, and uprightness of his policy in their fullest extent. I wish the whole world could see them, so that it might learn to know him." But Metternich is not a man to be satisfied with all this. He is too ambitious, too fanatical as a theoretical politician, too combative as a statesman, to rest content without a constant flow of success over opponents, without power to crush hostile combinations. And as a "world-statesman" he has now ceased to be successful. Austria is still tranquil, and apparently content, but in the larger field of European politics, in which he has so long been the leading figure, things are now constantly going against him, and the hostile current waxes stronger and stronger. He is on the defensive, and, though strongly entrenched, feels his position weak, the ground under him virtually undermined. He is still fully confident in himself, in his wisdom and his theories. But what avails it? The world is mad—with liberalism—and grows madder from day to day; and with madness even demigods wrestle in vain.

In April, 1830, he still hoped, but not without misgivings, that reaction was going to be victorious in France. "The King who has the *will* ought also to have the *power* to do much. Now it appears that Charles X. has the *will*." But would he choose the proper means? "M. de Polignac ventures much. It is to be hoped he will succeed; but who can answer for it?" On July 31 he expressed his delight over Polignac's manifesto of the 26th: "That such truths should be sent out into the world, and that by a Government which so long disowned them, is a great event, come what may! The month of August will be a great month! It may be said of it in any case—*Novus ab integro nascitur ordo!*" When he penned these lines, Charles X. and Polignac were already fugitives, the legitimate throne of France had been destroyed, and the "novus ordo," inaugurated even before August, meant liberalism and revolution triumphant in western Europe. Metternich fully comprehended the meaning of the change, so threatening to the existing order everywhere. Not entirely unexpected to his watchful pessimism, the blow was yet staggering. Only perfect harmony between the three great conservative powers could save the world, and Metternich exerted all his diplomatic powers to make Russia and Prussia follow closely in the wake of Austria. He made frantic efforts, like a man in despair, with a last glimmer of hope before him. "The thought I secretly cherish," he wrote to Nesselrode on September 1, "is that ancient Europe is at the beginning of the end. My determination being to perish with it, I shall know how to do my duty." A few days later the revolution broke out in Brussels. He underestimated its force, and hoped for timely concessions on the part of the King of the Netherlands and for moderation among "the enlightened portion of the Belgian nation"; and when he saw his mistake, and found that England and France were ready to act in accord in favor of Belgium, the Belgian "question" filled him "with the utmost abhorrence." One of the principal creations of the treaties of 1815 was thus broken down, and conservative Europe was unable to help; for the Polish revolution of November, 1830, followed closely on the Belgian, and Czar Nicholas's hands were tied up by it. Prussia had to guard her Polish frontiers, and even Austria needed an army corps of 60,000 for "the preservation of public health and safety in Galicia."

All this in 1830. The events of the following years, though less striking, were on the whole no less unfavorable. It is true, Metternich saw with satisfaction, in 1831, the errors committed by the Polish leaders, the strength of the armaments which Nicholas was able "to employ for the maintenance of his just rights," and, in the fall of Warsaw, "the end of the great drama which occupied the attention of Europe for . . . nine months, nourished the revolutionary spirit universally prevailing, and paralyzed any chance which existed of doing good"—that is, of curbing France and stifling her liberal propaganda. But did not the sword under which Poland bled also destroy one of the creations of

1815, and that a barrier to the insatiable ambition of the Russian neighbor? Had it not struck a heavy blow at the future of Austria? And the victory of the "just rights" of the Czar—we may charitably presume that Metternich blushed when he wrote these words—came too late for much effect on the political chessboard on which France was the great player. The "just rights" of the King of the Netherlands had in the meanwhile been irretrievably compromised. Italy was a prey to demagogism, the focus of which was Paris, and though Austrian arms had succeeded in extinguishing the first revolutionary conflagration in the Papal States and elsewhere, she was in full, though disguised, retreat before the bold and aggressive attitude of France, which in February, 1832, culminated in the occupation of Ancona by French troops—an act of open hostility to Austria's influence south of the Po.

However wicked, intrinsically absurd, and politically monstrous the whole new French régime appeared to Metternich — with its bourgeois throne surrounded by republican institutions, its impudent doctrines of non-intervention and *rayons d'influence*, and its ambiguous declarations and actions—he could hardly believe that Casimir Périer had seriously planned that atrocious *coup*. Casimir Périer died; but worse came. The French crossed the Belgian frontier, besieged Antwerp, and reduced it—liberal England applauding, and conservative Europe looking on in impotent anger. Germany itself, as the *Hambacher Fest* and other symptoms showed, was undermined and near being convulsed by the revolutionary propaganda. It had to be saved by fresh decrees of the Bundestag. Metternich led in repression, but the statesmen of Germany followed hesitatingly. He preached, taught, and inculcated resistance to liberalism and France with passionate fervor, in perfect consistency, and often with commendable boldness; but Russia was exhausted, and Prussia timid and vacillating, and thus both concert of action and material strength were wanting. In the east and west of Europe, too, everything went wrong. The work of creating independent Greece, which Metternich had so long opposed, was crowned by the election of a king, who had to be acknowledged, as was also the crowned head of revolutionary Belgium; Ibrahim Pasha, with his victorious Egyptians, shook the throne of Sultan Mahmud, and Metternich was happy to see it barely saved, and that by Russian intervention—a dangerous interference; Dom Pedro's constitutionalism triumphed, in 1833, over Dom Miguel's despotism in Portugal; and England, in 1834, united with France in forming a quadruple alliance for the defence of the liberal throne in Spain against the absolutist pretender Don Carlos, for and with whom Metternich intrigued. He saw in this alliance "a danger for the whole world, including, first and foremost, those who framed it." London appeared to him "one vast centre of general conflagration," and France a "focus for a universal conflagration." And Switzerland? "Quarantine against the Eastern plague has long been known to civilization; we shall draw a moral sanitary cordon round Switzerland, and we shall see whether the Swiss nation or Europe will be the one to suffer most from it."

Metternich was thus in these years, as a statesman, very far from happy. He had also grown old. Hence *illæ lacrimæ* which repeatedly appear on the pages of his wife's diary: "I read Clement an article from the *Revue de Paris* on the history of Charles Edward of Scotland. He told me he had induced George IV. to have a memorial set up to that Prince; and as he related the circumstance he burst into such a violent fit of weeping that it quite terrified me." "Clement read a new book aloud to me, Görres's 'Maid of Orleans.' Görres, from being an abominable Jacobin, has become one of the best men in the world. This book clearly proves it, and the tears came into Clement's eyes as he read." This latter quotation may also serve as a specimen of his young companion's faithful echoings. Here are some others: "May God . . . have pity on our old, worn-out world." "The Emperor, he added, was doubly necessary to him, because the former's uprightness and discernment always came in to influence his ideas. May God preserve them both; for, in truth, one of them, bereft of the other, cannot save the world." Elsewhere she says: "You hear the Emperor's voice mingling with his own, and in conjunction they form a godlike voice indeed, which may yet save the world." No wonder that she often enough prayed for both to "God and His Holy Mother." Mélanie was very pious indeed; but, after her Clement, she allowed herself to applaud Börne's wit, and admire a novel of Sue's, and make this unchristian entry in her diary: "Lafayette is dead—too late for the world." The following, dated Münchengrätz, September 16, 1833, is probably the most interesting, and historically the most characteristic, of her communications:

"A great review was held, at which every one was present. . . . On reaching home, Windischgrätz . . . told me the Emperor Nicholas was so delighted with Lato Wrbna's Hussar regiment, which he had seen going through some manœuvres, that it would be only proper to present him with it; but it must be done this evening. . . . I spoke about it to Clement, who at once laid it before the Emperor [Francis]. Meanwhile I waited in the Empress's room. The Grand Duchess overwhelmed me with kindness, and the Emperor Nicholas was very pleasant. He also expressed himself repeatedly in the warmest terms of praise of the Hussar regiment. Our Emperor came at nine, took him aside, and told him that he presented him with the regiment. The Emperor Nicholas fell upon his neck, embraced him like a child, and could not master his excessive joy. He sent at once to the regimental tailor's to have a uniform made for him, and gave orders that it should be ready by the morning. . . . Every one is charmed. All the Russians came to me, and the whole conversation turned on the Emperor's delight."

The volume before us is translated by another hand than that which gave us the rendering of the first four volumes. The translation is equally smooth, and equally disfigured by blunders and slips. Thus we find "Jacobites" for *Jacobins* (p. 18); "Prague" for *Praga*, a suburb of Warsaw (p. 86, and again p. 141); "Siebenbürgen" for *Transylvania* (p. 403); "clavier" for *piano* (p. 407); and even "rays" for *rayons*, immediately after "*rayons d'influence*" (p. 372).

RECENT NOVELS.

Dick Netherby. By Mrs. L. B. Walford. [Leisure-Hour Series.] New York: Henry Holt & Co.

A Happy Boy. By Björnstjerne Björnson. Translated from the Norse by Rasmus B. Anderson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Son of Belial. By Nitram Tradleg. London: Trübner & Co.

Marco Visconti. From the Italian of Tommaso Grossi. London: George Bell & Sons.

The Comet of a Season. By Justin McCarthy, M.P. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

My Wife and My Wife's Sister. [No-Name Series.] Boston: Roberts Brothers.

THE announcement of a new book by Mrs. Walford will always start a thrill of expectation in any one who remembers her simple, noble portrait of 'Mr. Smith.' If 'Dick Netherby' is disappointing, it is not because it is inferior, but only quite other. It is a plain story of the temptation, the yielding, the punishment, and the final struggle into a new life of the hero, an humble country lad. It should be in every Sunday-school library, not simply because it will do good to every one who reads it, but because it is a model of what Sunday-school books ought to be. The side-figures are drawn with that same light, accurate touch which gave us Lord Suffrenden in 'Mr. Smith,' and in 'Troublesome Daughters' Marjorie, the brightest, truest portrait of the girl of the period that has ever been painted.

'A Happy Boy' renews delightfully the impression made on the world when this generation was young by Miss Bremer's novels. Björnson's work has a stronger, steadier fibre in it than hers, without losing the tenderness, at once so delicate and so frank, which characterizes the northern idyl. As a story, nothing could be simpler—only the love of a village lad and lass, faithful against the opposition of the ambitious and angry grandfather. The placid village has in it nothing more exciting than the anxiety of the children upon the day of confirmation, and the great man is the schoolmaster; yet there is a quaint charm about it all, spite of a baldness which it seems to us cannot belong to the original. Accuracy in translation is a term which has various meanings. It is not enough that a word corresponding to the original according to the dictionary is given: it must correspond to the place where it stands. For instance, the girl writes to her lover of the verse which her disappointed suitor has sung about her—satirical, of course, and no doubt very unpleasant; but to make a girl of seventeen say, "He has made a lampoon about me," is ridiculous. The word "priest" is entirely misleading when applied to the minister of a Protestant church in Norway, yet it is used throughout. There are, moreover, several places in the book of which no sense can be made from any light afforded by the story. The songs are by another hand, and it is hardly the fault of any translator that songs will not sing themselves in a foreign tongue. Marit's good-night song is an exception, however, and very well done it is. Here are the first stanza and the last:

"Lovest thou but me,
I will e'er love thee
All my days on earth so fondly;
Short were summer's days,
Now the flower decays—
Comes again with spring, so kindly.

. . . . . .

"I my window close,
But in sweet repose
Songs from thee I hear returning;
Calling me, they smile,
And my thoughts beguile—
Must I e'er for thee be yearning?"

'A Son of Belial' is the unprepossessing title of a book purporting to be "Autobiographical Sketches." We should do it too much honor to call it an imitation of Mallock, though it is plainly inspired by some of his work. It presents a childhood of unhappy strictness, though the author confuses Evangelical and Calvinist in a way to excite suspicion of the genuineness of the story as autobiography. The history of the college career of "Tradleg" is made the opportunity for an attack upon almost everybody of mark at Oxford between 1860 and 1870. The real names are very thinly disguised, such as Prof. Jewell, of Belial, and the Rev. Robert Short, "who had some share in a Greek lexicon." The hero takes holy orders, but the liberal tendencies which at first were the reaction against the narrowness of early training, finally result in conversion to the Unitarian faith. As to the merit of the book: in the first place, it is at times as vulgar and unpleasant as a book could possibly be without anything of "impropriety" in it. In the second place, it is perfectly useless for the good of any cause, since the Anglicans might well say with congratulation, "Such are

the men who go out from us"; and no Unitarian would ever admit, "Such are the men who come to us." What disappointed ambition, what ungratified spite may have prompted the book, it is impossible to say. The man who would write it could never have been wise or kind; but at least, to use his own words of the bishop who ordained him, "He might have tried to be a gentleman—if he had only known how."

'Marco Visconti' is the sixth of the "Novelists' Library"—a selection from the more famous novels printed in the familiar form of the Bohn editors. We have almost called them classics, but hesitate to apply the word alike to 'The Betrothed' of Manzoni and to 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' Of the present book there can be no doubt of its assured position as one of the great examples of the romantic school in Italy. Yet so little is Italian now cultivated that many to whom the exquisite song of "Pellegrina Rondinella" is familiar would see it here for the first time in its original setting. Grossi was the last poet to write in the popular dialect of the Milanese. His early poems are quite unknown on this side the water, but they had made him famous before he turned to novel-writing. One poem glowing with patriotism, though circulated only in manuscript, awakened the suspicion of the Austrian police; and, perhaps to save others from trouble, he gave himself up and was imprisoned. Happier, however, than Silvio Pellico, he was released after a few days. 'Marco Visconti' is his principal work, and illustrates the fourteenth century as 'The Betrothed' does the seventeenth. The subject of one of his first poems was "Maria Visconti," another of the same family, proving how deep and abiding was his interest in the early history of his own country.

The Waverley novels make the standard by which such work is judged—often to an unjust disadvantage; for Scott's heroes, whether crusader or border chieftain, are so much nearer us in sympathy than, for instance, these leaders in the small Italian commonwealths, that we are likely to pronounce unreal that which in fact we ourselves are unable to realize. It must be admitted that Grossi in this book does, by his own conscientiousness, in frequent reference to chronicle or history, prevent us from forgetting ourselves in the story. It is the same theme so often chosen by Italians of his day, the hapless love of a maiden who is purity and sweetness incarnate. Her love is fondly returned, but for her sorrow she is the object of the great Visconti's passion. The reader is led to believe that he himself would have been merciful and honorable; but over-zealous servants mistaking, wilfully in part, his wishes, carry off Beatrice to a solitary castle, whither relief comes too late, and she dies of her terror and pain. Marco, "beside himself with rage and grief," kills outright the guilty Pelagrua, and then rushes impetuously to court death at the hands of his enemies in Milan. Few translations are so well done as this. The English is smooth and flowing, and has almost a style of its own. The verses are graceful, and perhaps give all that can be expected in translating from a musical into an unmusical tongue.

Some decided word of acknowledgment is due in these days to any writer who makes an interesting story out of other materials than those which current fiction so largely presents. In Justin McCarthy's last novel there is not even a pretence of mystery about the principal personage Montana, the Comet; for his humble birth and early misfortunes are frankly narrated in a preliminary chapter. He disappears from his home, seeks and finds fortune in America, and at the opening of the story is returning to London upon a mission.

"Of course he had more than one mission. . . . But the especial object of his visit to Europe just now was to found a great colony in the United States, where men and women might seek and find the perfect life. . . . The New Atlantis was to be a community on which all good men and women must smile benignant approval. . . . Thus, with the ages, the hopes and energies of the race would centre in the New World, which had this still newer world, an empire within an empire, enclosed within its vast domain. . . . All that was wanted for the beginning was land, money, and colonists."

"Singularly handsome" in person, in manner always "stately, grave, and sweet," his success is immediate. "His ambition had now nearly reached its crowning-point. He was the hero of a London season, the prophet of a large number of faithful followers, the leader of a great new enterprise in civilization which had not yet become troublesome, inconvenient, or disappointing, for the good reason that it had not yet even begun to move; and he was the idol of a great many admiring and attractive women." The preacher at the Church of Free Souls describes him as "one who had been warrior, explorer, pioneer, political leader, and spiritual guide, and who now had been able to lay the hand that had wielded the sabre and the pickaxe in the soft clasp of London fashion, and had bidden the West End to throb with a new and noble pulsation." Such a triumph was the dream of his life, yet it seems not to intoxicate him. He maintains a strict personal integrity. Of all the women who lavish their admiration upon him, he loves only her who never believes in him. In her despite he marries a something foolish but all-loving child to whom he is only less than a demigod. Then, conscious of threatening doubts in the ranks of his followers, both high and low, he departs for America, ostensibly to forward the plans for the new colony. A day's sail from New York he commits suicide.

The portrayal of such a character ought to make a great book, and the reader is partly puzzled, partly disappointed, at the failure. The reason may be the want both of enthusiasm and of clear conviction in the writer's own mind. Was he a deliberate impostor or only self-deluded? The author has barred himself from the plea that it is for the reader to decide, by his own disclaimer at the outset of any attempt at mystery. To call Montana "a dreamer, not a man of imagination," is to draw a distinction which needs very vivid illustration; but we are left with only chance glimpses of the man's own purposes and the side-lights of the confidence or suspicions of others. The original conception is worked out with various episodes which, however meant to throw light, are made hardly relevant to the story. Such incidents as the recognition of Montana by his father, and Montana's visit to the old man's deathbed, would, in a well-constructed plot, have some proportionate effect or would not appear at all. It is not enough to say that a man was admired or that he had a great following; some inherent reason must appear which will convince the reader against his will if need be. As the book is left, the admiration which Montana received is as little justified as his own suicide.

The *cause célèbre* has so long been considered common property for purposes of fiction that the identity of names in 'My Wife and My Wife's Sister' with those of the principal characters in 'La Peau d'un Autre,' by Boisgobey, need only prove that both authors have used, without any change in this respect, the same records of the criminal courts. The further and more essential similarity in the incidents of the two stories—the escape of the *forçat*, his assumption of another's name, his subsequent discovery and punishment—may be explained in the same way. Here the likeness ceases. So far are we from suspecting the author of 'My Wife and My Wife's Sister' of using Boisgobey's work, that we are inclined to say that if she had she would have made a better book, or none at all. This is not to commend the extravagance of the French story, which is a very ordinary affair of robbery, murder, etc., but to say that it is logical and coherent from first to last. Such virtues as the hero has are the virtues of his class and are not incompatible with his vices. On the contrary, the other book is puzzling in its incongruities and contradictions, and the evident want of conviction in the writer's own mind as to the good or evil of the character portrayed. As the patching of a sort of story, quite distinctively New England in its type, upon a true history of revolting crime, the book may be ingenious, but it lacks the first elements of reality. The early career of the hero is so sketched as to prove him a rascal ingrain, coarse and mean; but later he is supposed not only to be held in high esteem by the Court of the Restoration, but to be loved with utter devotion by the purest and sweetest of women. This last is an improbability more than gross, it is shocking. He might have played a part to win her, but he could not have concealed his true nature from a wife. It is not the want of knowledge of the world, so called, that leads to such misconception of life; it is the want of that power of observation of life without which even experience is not fruitful. The book has been characterized as "strong," but with this clew to the sources from which it was drawn, it will be plain that the strong points are all in the original version of the story. The attempt to fit it in to the recollections of a garrulous old man is something almost comic—doubtless the last thing the writer intended.

The Antietam and Fredericksburg. By Francis W. Palfrey, Brevet Brigadier-General U.S.V., etc. [Campaigns of the Civil War. Vol. V.] New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1882.

Two features are distinctly noticeable in the book which General Palfrey has here given us: first, there is a certain flavor of the time itself, which could only be recalled by an actor in it; second, there is abundant evidence of historical qualifications in the author—conscientious study of all the data available, good judgment in digesting and reconciling these data, clear and straightforward expression of well-founded opinions. The story is one of great interest, both to the generation which took part in it and to that which has grown up since the war. Its manner of treatment and its literary execution are admirable. One battle being a dismal failure, and the other little more than a half-success, the narration of them must involve any author in constant criticism. General Palfrey has not been sparing of this, but we believe his strictures are in general abundantly justified by the facts.

Of McClellan the author holds substantially the same opinion that has been expressed by General Webb and Mr. Ropes in the preceding numbers of this series:

"A growing familiarity with his history as a soldier increases the disposition to regard him with respect and gratitude, and to believe, while recognizing the limitations of his nature, that his failure to accomplish more was partly his misfortune, and not altogether his fault. . . . His capacity and energy as an organizer are universally recognized. He was an excellent strategist, and in many respects an excellent soldier. He did not use his own troops with sufficient promptness, thoroughness, and vigor to achieve great and decisive results, but he was oftener successful than unsuccessful with them, and he so conducted affairs that they never suffered heavily without inflicting heavy loss upon their adversaries."

This faint praise is the most that can be said of a man who possessed "a sort of incapacity of doing anything till an ideal completeness of preparation was reached"; who, in decisive moments, "was not equal to the occasion"; and who, "from first to last, never made his personal presence felt on a battle-field." Such a man may be very useful in certain places, but he is not a great commander of troops. The battle of Antietam is his principal claim to gratitude. He had quickly restored order and confidence in an army greatly bewildered, if not demoralized, by its experience under Pope, and he there put it into battle in such a way as nearly to gain a victory and actually to bring his enemy's invasion to an end. The opportunity for a great and overwhelming victory was, as is plainly and admirably explained in this book, thrown by fortune into his hands; but the limitations of his nature prevented him from utilizing more than half of it. It is not necessary to go into the details of the battle; the account of it here given is as clear and intelligible as any account ever can be, in view of the conflicting and vague character of the official reports.

Concerning Burnside's capacity for the command of an army, there never was much difference of opinion; yet we hardly remember to have ever seen so unrelenting a judgment passed upon him as is given in this book. The story seems almost cruel; yet his incapacity wrought cruelty a thousandfold more intense in the space of one short winter's day at Fredericksburg, and it is well to guard against a similar occurrence hereafter by letting these facts stand forth without apology. "Few men, probably, have risen so high upon so slight a foundation as he." Yet every one liked him, and "it is probably true that that man's manners made his fortune; for he remained long in the service in high places, and yet his presence was an element of weakness when he was a subordinate, and was disastrous when he held a great command." At Fredericksburg he committed the fatal mistake of dividing his army on the field, in the very face of an enemy nearly, if not quite, equal to him in numbers, and posted in a position of extraordinary strength. He had an ill-defined idea of turning the enemy's right flank and coming behind his line so as to cause his retreat. Any such flank march was doomed to hopeless failure with such antagonists as Lee and Jackson, and the more men engaged the greater the useless slaughter. Franklin, however, who commanded the troops opposed to the enemy's right, only brought about half his men into battle; and the Committee on the Conduct of the War reported that had he used all his force, Burnside's plan "would have been completely successful, and our army would have achieved a most brilliant victory." The question of Franklin's action is discussed at considerable length in this book, but not very satisfactorily; for the author thinks that "he was most unjustly blamed," and yet "he might have done something more than he did." A man in command of half an army in a great battle, who does less than everything possible, is very justly blamable. He is perhaps not wholly at fault, for Burnside must share the responsibility of the unintelligible orders which he sent him. Even had Franklin done more, it is almost certain that Burnside would have accomplished nothing but defeat and slaughter on that day. He had a vague idea of doing, in full view of the enemy in a strong position, what Lee actually did accomplish at Chancellorsville behind a screen of woods. But between a vague idea and a clear idea there is the same difference as between incapacity and genius. Whether or not we share the author's opinion that the Southern troops fought better than the Northern, we must admit that they certainly had better generals in Virginia in 1862. No comparison can properly be made between Lee, Jackson, and Longstreet, on one side, and McClellan, Burnside, and Hooker, on the other.

Massachusetts in the Woman-Suffrage Movement. By Harriet H. Robinson. Boston: Roberts Bros.

THIS work is apparently the expansion of a paper on the same subject read before a Jubilee Woman's-Rights Convention in Worcester, in October, 1880. The author has meanwhile had the benefit of the Massachusetts chapter in Mrs. Stanton's more comprehensive history, but brings her own review down to date. Mrs. Robinson came late into the cause as a worker, and does not write with either the fulness or the accuracy of a veteran, but in two particulars she testifies of her own knowledge. One is in regard to the famous *Lowell Offering*, of which she was among the contributors; the other concerns the political manœuvres of the Woman Suffragists during the past decade.

The *Offering* finds a place here by the loose construction which connects with the suffrage "movement" any exhibition of female intellectual capacity in unusual directions, and all struggles for the higher education enjoyed by men. Mrs. Robinson, indeed, cites one article from it, during the first year of its publication (1840), on "Woman's Rights," but the aim of the magazine was literary in the vein of that period. What secured attention for the *Offering* was the fact that the writers for it were mill-hands—a fact whose significance in Dickens's and Miss Martineau's mind must have been exaggerated by comparison with factory-girls in England, just as it might now be by confounding with the present class of spinners the farmers' daughters who first answered the call of industry at Lowell. The Anglo-Saxon names of the contributors enumerated by Mrs. Robinson make their performance now seem little wonderful; at the same time they remind us forcibly of the social changes which soon followed the suspension of the *Offering* in 1849. There has never been a time when the female rural population of Massachusetts was not mechanical. Hannah, redomesticated, is still to be found "at the window, binding shoes," or weaving cane-bottoms, or fashioning some other part of the fabric which is put together at the neighboring factory. Meantime she has seen the Irish Celt before whom she gave way supplanted measurably by the Canadian, and the journalistic phenomenon of the mill-town become, instead of a literary monthly, a French daily newspaper. Mrs. Robinson's whole account of the *Offering* is very interesting, and by far the fullest that we have ever met with. Of the other writers for the magazine, one, Miss Foley, has achieved at least a local reputation for sculpture, while Lucy Larcom has something more than a local reputation as a poet.

The abolitionists, it is universally allowed, paved the way for the woman's-rights movement, and furnished gratis the methods of agitation. Their example has not been followed in one essential particular—the refusal to enter into political combinations to secure their ends. Mrs. Robinson's fifth chapter describes the effect of this deviation. In 1870, the year after the founding of the *Woman's Journal*, two representative women (the editors) were for the first time admitted to the Republican State Convention, and presented a memorial for the suffrage, together with some appropriate resolutions. The latter were rejected, but the affirmative vote was large enough to inspire a hope that the Republicans would come out right, and the thought of opposition was abandoned. The next year, in fact, the Convention endorsed woman suffrage; and again in 1872, following the National Republican Convention at Philadelphia. Accordingly, in the Grant campaign of that year the women took the stump for the party, and worked vigorously for its success; but the Legislature of 1873 immediately threw out a woman-suffrage bill by a large majority.

"To close the subject of suffrage planks, or resolutions in the platform of the Republican party, it may be said that they continued to be put in and seemed to mean something until after 1875, when they became only 'glittering generalities,' and were as devoid of real meaning or intention as any that were ever passed by the old Whig party on the subject of abolition. After 1872 the suffrage resolutions passed in Republican Conventions were treated, almost invariably, with contempt by the Representatives chosen by that party to the Legislature; but this same attempt was made year after year, and all the satisfaction the Suffragists got was what some one called a 'new note of hand, of the same amount as the other, never to be paid, but still perfectly good—as a note'" (p. 78).

Odder still, after the right of women to vote for school committees had been conceded by the Legislature, in 1880 the Republican Convention unanimously voted down a resolution "endorsing the new right." This was all the more disheartening to the Suffragists because they had meantime (in 1876) been coquetting with the Prohibitionists, who kindly threw open their primaries to women, and in return had their State candidates "endorsed" and advocated on the stump by the leading Suffragists. But the majority of the nominations which the latter helped to make in caucus were repudiated in fresh caucuses from which they were excluded by their allies, and in one town a distinct woman-suffrage ticket—the first ever seen at the polls—was the result. Mrs. Robinson wisely concludes that if the question is to be settled at the ballot-box, it must be, not by trading votes with one party or the other party, but by forming a new one on the suffrage issue.

On the whole, the facts given in this history show that such a course is not necessary even if it be practicable. Since 1868 woman suffrage has been a part of the regular order of the day in the Massachusetts Legislature; in 1870 a joint special committee on the subject was permanently established; in 1871 Gov. Claflin officially favored the enfranchisement of women, and nearly every gubernatorial message since has taken the same ground; in 1879 the Senate went so far as to pass a general suffrage bill, which the House defeated, though assenting to woman suffrage in school affairs. Mrs. Robinson's chapter reviewing the result of thirty years' agitation (with six years of total suspension on account of the war) is full of suggestiveness.

The Life of Joseph Raynor Stephens, Preacher and Political Orator. By George Jacob Holyoake. London: Williams & Norgate.

ANY fair account of the time in which Stephens, the fervid anti-poor-law orator, was famous—the time when Carlyle first attracted attention by his lectures and writings on the condition of England—would be a welcome addition to the little as yet authentically put forth. In those days, outside of Parliament, the three most prominent men in English public life were perhaps Henry Hetherington, Richard Oastler, and Joseph Raynor Stephens. Hetherington's history is the history of Chartism (of which he may be called the founder), and of the fight for a free press in England (of which he was the head and front). Oastler, a generous-hearted Tory, Church-and-Queen man, also of the sturdy Cobbett sort, devoted himself to the rescue of women and children from their till then unnoticed suffering in factories. Stephens rather stood forth

as the opponent of the Poor-Law Amendment Act, that most important of the acts of the Whig party coming into power with the Reform Bill, which, admitting the middle classes, shut out the working population from the franchise. Hetherington was a political leader; the other two were not politicians at all—only men of strong feeling, stirred to indignation by the miseries surrounding them, with added indignation for the harshness with which the political economists began their rule.

Stephens's own story, however, is a very brief one. A Wesleyan minister (as was his father also), highly esteemed in his vocation, he was suspended for taking too active a part in public matters, and thereafter seems to have been without position, preaching where he could, sometimes writing also. An educated, thoughtful man, warm-hearted and eloquent, he was soon popular. He was indeed the voice of the wrath of the poor, at a time when hatred of the new poor-law was almost a sufficient password to popularity. A more than usually vehement speech, at a torch-light meeting at Hyde, on the borders of Lancashire, subjecting him to a Government prosecution, he was sentenced to eighteen months' imprisonment and to find sureties for good behavior during five years. This effectually silenced him. Of his later life there is nothing worth recording. His death occurred so late as 1879. The old, notorious agitator had long before passed out of public memory.

Mr. Holyoake did not need 236 pages to tell us no more than this; for his desultory remarks on the history and men of the period are too loose to be of any value, and the general reflections are of the same unimportance. For the rest, his book has neither order nor method, is slovenly, and altogether badly written. As a biographer, he does not bring his man before us; as historian, he writes of the "Count D'Orsay, a great leader of fashion, and companion in the revelries of George IV."; as a writer, he is slipshod, stumbling continually into phrases such as, "Mr. Stephens had the happy taste of domesticity"; "Public questions that came within the scope of his ministry" (but no account of what the ministry was); "Space would not suffice to tell in how many contests he was engaged"; and the like. But a false note is struck in the very introduction to the book, written by a nephew of Stephens, who points to John Arthur Roebuck as one of the public men with whom his uncle's "heart beat most in unison." What possibility of unison or sympathy could there have been with Roebuck, a strict Parliament-man, a thorough Benthamite, unpopular, despite his acknowledged integrity, simply because of his determined advocacy of the poor-law to which Stephens was fiercely opposed—that opposition the passion of his heart? The one man was an advanced Liberal, the other a pious Conservative; one, though nervously irritable, was eminently sagacious and prudent; the other, reckless of consequences. One was a close reasoner, a man after the mind of Stuart Mill; the other, if not a sentimentalist, led entirely by his feelings. So vaguely begins the book, and it is as vague throughout. Of Mr. Holyoake's accuracy of statement one instance may be enough. He writes that Stephens "spoke in defence of the People's Charter, but it was because no other means seemed open whereby the people could be helped." Yet he has before him Stephens's own words of "detestation of the doctrines of Chartism."

A good man, honest, eloquent, and enthusiastic, thrown to the surface by circumstance, Stephens was notable rather than great. He should have had a better biographer, or none.

The Book of Oddities. By William Andrews, F.R.H.S. London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co. 1882.

THIS booklet, which faithfully fulfils the promise of its title, will amuse a vacant hour or two. Some of its topics are Revivals after Executions, Female Jockeys, Odd Showers, Singular Funerals, Whimsical Wills, Curious Epitaphs, Dog-whippers and Sluggard-wakers. The chapter headed "A Blind Road-maker" commemorates a man who, though he lost his sight entirely when six years old, soon grew to be expert at bird-nesting, and afterward at field-sports and at fishing with a net. Then he officiated as a guide over the moors and wilds of Yorkshire, and not only trained horses, but rode them at races. Next he did good service as a soldier, set up and drove a stage-wagon, became a surveyor of highways, built houses and bridges, laid out hundreds of miles of road, and finally died at the age of ninety-three. Such, as represented, was John Metcalf, of Knaresborough, the details of whose history are worth reading. Among the epitaphs collected there is one over a tavern-keeper, in which the piety glimmers but dimly amidst the suggestions of an eye to the main chance:

> "Beneath this stone, in hope of Zion,
> Doth lie the landlord of the 'Lion'
> His son keeps on the business still,
> Resign'd unto the Heavenly will."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Art, L'. Vol. xxvii. New York: J. W. Bouton.
Barrett, W. A. English Church Composers. New York: Scribner & Welford.
Bigelow, M. M. Treatise on the Law of Estoppel. Third edition. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $6.
Clarke, A. B. The Elder and the Younger Booth. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Cummings, W. H. Purcell. [The Great Musicians' Series.] New York: Scribner, Welford & Co. $1 25.
Delbrück, B. Introduction to the Study of Language. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Dorothy: A Country Story in Elegiac Verse. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 25.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 2, 1882.

The Week.

EARLY in the week the Stock Exchange came very near drifting into a panic. As it was, there was a heavy decline, chiefly in the stocks of the Southern railroads, which have been under clique manipulation for several months. The chief of these in the decline which took place was Richmond and Danville Railroad stock, which had been marked up from about par to about 250, and which suddenly dropped on Thursday from 219 "ex-privilege" to 130. A kindred stock, Richmond and West Point, fell from 255 to 180, and other stocks less subject to clique control fell 1@16¼ points—the latter, Louisville and Nashville. This last-named stock has been doubled within two years, and has declared 6 per cent. annual dividends since. The system of roads which this company controls is the best in the Southern States, but the company, in its extensions, used its own credit, rather than the securities of the roads which it built or acquired, and the result was that while it had in its treasury as assets many millions of securities, it also had incurred a floating debt of many millions. This, on becoming known, made the stock of the company a subject of attack in the stock market, with the result, in less than two weeks, of driving the price down from the nineties into the sixties. Such a decline in a presumably good stock affected confidence, and was really the cause of the general depression which prevailed. At this juncture the friends of the company consulted with others who are interested in preventing a general discrediting of railroad securities, and a scheme was devised for changing the floating debt into debenture bonds, which friends of the company subscribed to to the amount of $10,000,000. This restored confidence in this stock and in the general stock market, and the result was a recovery in prices of 1@13 points, and of 38 points in Richmond and Danville. The recovery was also assisted by the purchases by the Vanderbilts of the stocks of their own roads.

The market for foreign exchange advanced early in the week so that gold exports again became possible, and the specie shipments for the week amounted to $1,709,563, making the total since January 1 $8,789,740. The Bank of England reduced its discount rate during the week, as did also the Bank of France and the Bank of Belgium, and the tendency in all the foreign markets was to an establishment of confidence as well as to lower rates for money. The New York banks, partly because of the specie shipments, partly on account of the drain of currency to the West, but largely on account of the steady absorption of money by the Treasury, showed a reduction of $4,529,500, which left them $1,433,075 short of a 25 per cent. reserve. Nevertheless the rate for money did not rule above 6 per cent. for any length of time, and was much of the time as low as 4@5 per cent. The Treasury disbursements during March for pensions, bond redemptions, and interest on the public debt amount to $32,500,000. The price of silver varied little during the week.

The "flurry" in Wall Street has called forth the usual homilies from the newspapers, as well as other moralists, addressed to that unfortunate class, the "weak holders," whom the bears periodically "shake out." It would be curious and interesting to know how many men were ever prevented from speculating in Wall Street by advice, and how many of those who advise the weak holder to keep out of the street do so themselves. The attitude of the newspaper moralist toward him is, moreover, almost always too hard and stern, and his cruel admonitions are apt to reach him just when he is in the deepest distress. It seldom consists of anything more cheering or helpful than "I told you so," or "Now you see how it is yourself," when what he most needs is more margin, or some sort of recoupment for his losses. But one thing is very plain, that the small speculator in our day must either suffer or be strong. He cannot avoid suffering if he be weak. The great speculators now command such enormous masses of capital that they make great raids without difficulty and without giving any sign. No watching of the market can prepare anybody for them, and there is no salvation for anybody who cannot survive a heavy fall, for a day or two at least. Some of the great operators, too, make the nearest approach to Satanic methods, in their falsehood, treachery, and indifference to the fate of friends and foes, which the modern business world has yet witnessed. They remind one of Clovis, the king of the Franks, who is reputed to have killed all his relations that he could discover, and then began wailing and lamenting his desolate, kinless state in the hope that more relations would show themselves, so that he might kill them too.

As might have been expected, an investigation has been ordered in the House and moved in the Senate into the contract between the house of Morton, Bliss & Co. and the Crédit Industriel. It was impossible that it should be regarded as a purely commercial contract, in view of the avowal made by M. Suarez in his report to his President as to the object of giving the agency to a "first-class American house," and in view of that clause of the contract which provides that in case it should fail to become "operative and effective," "in consequence of the failure of the United States to mediate between Chili and Peru and Bolivia, and thus to secure peace and the recognition of the concessions, rights, and privileges granted to and secured by the contracts above mentioned," it should cease within six years. This, read in the light of the Suarez avowal, was a distinct stipulation that the continuance of the contract would depend on the success of the firm of Morton, Bliss & Co. in securing the political aid of the United States for the company. It was made all the more significant by the fact that when the contract was negotiated Mr. Morton had been appointed United States Minister to Paris. Mr. Robert E. Randall, who signs the contract in behalf of the firm, pleads in extenuation, in Saturday's *Sun*, that the negotiations began before Mr. Morton was appointed. But Mr. Morton was appointed on the 9th of March, 1881, and the contract was not signed till the 27th of August following; so that he had six months to consider what the effect of the contract on the proprieties of his official position would be. It is as well to add here that the Crédit Industriel is really M. Dreyfus, a very wealthy Jewish banker and speculator of Paris, who has long been in contention with Peru, and we believe gave M. Grévy his first conspicuous case at the bar in litigation arising out of that contention, and is still in intimate relations with him. Moreover, the conversation with Mr. Morton, in which M. Grévy suggested joint mediation, and which Mr. Morton reported to Mr. Blaine, was apparently not called for by Mr. Blaine at all, but was eagerly seized on by the latter as an occasion for producing the American eagle, which he caused to give such a terrible scream that it seems to have scared poor M. Grévy into complete silence. It was plainly no part of Mr. Blaine's plan to have any European partners in the mediation business.

When the desire of the President to make ex-Senator Sargent, of California, Secretary of the Interior was made known to the country, so decided and persistent an opposition was revealed by a large and respectable section of the Republican party that the appointment was wisely withheld. It was not necessary for the President to decide whether this opposition was based upon perfectly valid grounds or not. So far as it was grounded upon the Desert Land Act we think that Mr. Sargent was subjected to some injustice. There is no evidence to show that he was governed by any improper motives in any steps which he took in promoting the passage of that act, or that he ever derived, or hoped to derive, any personal advantage from it. If rascals took advantage of it, they did so in the same way that other land-laws have been perverted from their true intent. Swamp lands, school and university lands, old Mexican grants, military bounty lands, and even lands subject to preëmption, have been made the subject of dishonest practices. But all of these rogueries and those perpetrated under the Desert Land Act in addition have been trifling as compared with those growing out of the Arrears of Pensions Act, yet nobody thinks of holding Senators who voted for this act responsible for the rascalities rendered possible by it. There is no more evidence that Mr. Sargent is culpable in the matter of the Desert Land Act than that Senator Logan or any other Senator who voted for the Arrears of Pensions Act is chargeable with the frauds of pension claim-agents. Nevertheless, the opposition

to Mr. Sargent on the part of a large and well-meaning section of the party was sufficiently pronounced to make his nomination for Secretary of the Interior unwise, and the President did well to reconsider his original purpose. He has now sent Mr. Sargent's name to the Senate as Minister to Berlin. We see no reason why the nomination should not be promptly confirmed. He is a man of marked ability and of large experience in public affairs, a good lawyer, and a gentleman by culture and instinct. We have small sympathy with the division of politics to which he is attached, but it would be unfair to deny him the possession of qualities which go to make up the equipment of a dignified and able representative of the country at a foreign court.

Mr. Blaine's memorial address on President Garfield contained nothing sensational or controversial. It told the story of his life with a certain plainness and simplicity which probably surprised those who only knew Mr. Blaine's style from his diplomatic papers. His judgments, too, were moderate and moderately expressed. He rates his hero highly, but not too highly, as a political philosopher and statesman; acknowledges his unfitness for the office of parliamentary leader, owing to the depth of his intellectual candor; tells of his conciliatory plans and projects with regard to the South, and disposes of the controversy which followed his entrance into office in a short passage of great dignity and reserve, in which he claims for the late President simply the merit of honestly believing his course to be that which the interests of the country and the dignity of his office called for. He says that this course was one from which, such was his dislike of controversy, General Garfield would willingly have receded if personal interests only had been involved. The passage in which he declares that General Garfield was deeply impressed with "the evils arising from the distribution of an overgrown and unwieldy patronage," and that had he lived, he would have proposed to Congress "a comprehensive improvement in the mode of appointment and in the tenure of office," would have been more effective if it had contained also an expression of Mr. Blaine's own feelings on this subject, he having been the late President's chief adviser on it at the period when it most perplexed him.

Mr. Thurlow Weed has written another of his amusing letters to the *Tribune* complaining of the prosecution of General Curtis, instituted by the Civil-Service Reform Association, for collecting assessments from Government employees. The prosecution is based on the United States statute which makes the offence with which General Curtis is charged a misdemeanor, punishable with fine or imprisonment. What makes Mr. Weed's letter amusing is that he takes no more account of the law than if it were a newspaper article, and censures President Arthur and Secretary Folger for winking at its execution, and deplores the withdrawal of Custom-house officers from their duties to appear as witnesses before the Grand Jury. He says that the contributing to campaign funds which the statute prohibits and makes punishable, is "not only a privilege but a duty," and he apparently relies on General Curtis's gallant behavior at Fort Fisher to procure his acquittal. The letter, besides being amusing, is instructive, as showing how thoroughly imbued the old hands have been with the belief that the civil-service reform movement is a joke, and that any attempt to treat it seriously is, therefore, somewhat insulting.

Mr. Elihu Root has been called in to settle the curious controversy as to Mr. Conkling's greatness as a lawyer, and he says without hesitation that "he is a lawyer of the first class," and was nominated by the President simply as the best man for the place. Lawyers of the first class in any country are few in number, and their names must be well known, and therefore it is singular that there should be any dispute about it. What Mr. Conkling's opponents say is not merely that he is not a lawyer of the first class, but that he has no standing at the bar at all, and cannot support himself by his practice. Mr. Whitridge, in his article on Mr. Conkling published some months ago, stated that his argument in the well-known case of the People *vs.* Dennison in the Court of Appeals is not mentioned by any lawyer except as a laughing-stock; and two lawyers of repute who heard it said to the writer that "if it had been anybody else but Conkling, the court would have stopped him after the first fifteen minutes." In twenty years Mr. Conkling had six cases in the Supreme Court of the United States, while Garfield had thirteen, and Mr. Blaine, in his eulogy of the latter, declares that "though admirably equipped for the profession, he can scarcely be said to have entered on its practice." The *Tribune* publishes, from time to time, an extract from his argument in the Court of Appeals with a derisive heading, which it would hardly do except under the impression that the effort itself would tend to bring him into ridicule and contempt. Nominations to judicial offices are, of course, frequently followed by discussions as to the nominee's standing at the bar, but we believe Mr. Conkling is the first lawyer whose nomination to the highest tribunal in the country has been followed by a bitter dispute as to whether he has any standing or practice at the bar at all. The mystery is deepened when we reflect that he has been offered the Chief-Justiceship of the same court once before, and declined it as beneath his notice.

Judge Lowell, in the United States Circuit Court at Boston, on Thursday, rendered a decision in a libel suit against the *Advertiser* which is of interest to railroad constructors and managers, as well as journalists. The plaintiff Crane, it seems, tried to get control of the New York and New England Railroad, and the *Advertiser* discussed and criticised his plans and qualifications for such control in good faith and without malice. The court held that in doing so it was guilty of no libel, on the ground that the character of Crane was a matter of importance to the public, and therefore a discussion of it was among the regular duties of a newspaper. "The distinction is that when a railroad is to be built, or a company to build it is to be chartered, the question whether it shall be authorized is a public one. When the company is organized and the stock is issued, anything which merely affects the value of the stock is private." This distinction is, however, rather fine. Under it, when a monopolist or an operator is organizing a new company, the press may point out that he is a notorious criminal or laid the foundations of his fortune in an act of successful embezzlement, but when the road is built, and he is engaged in a "bear" raid on the stockholders for the purpose of getting control of the stock, we must say nothing about him. This may be good law, but it will never work in New York or in any other great financial centre.

The Pennsylvania law taxing foreign corporations has been copied in this State, and the question as to its proper construction, now pending, is therefore of considerable interest here. The law provides that the capital stock of any corporation, foreign or domestic, *doing business in the State*, shall pay a tax based on dividends paid during the year; or, in case none have been paid, on the capital itself, at a valuation made under the act. For many years the act was construed in Pennsylvania, so far as foreign corporations were concerned, to cover only so much of the capital as was actually used in the State. The State, however, has now taken the ground that the tax must be paid on the entire capital, and has brought a suit against the Standard Oil Company, an Ohio corporation, to test the matter. In this State the act was interpreted last year by the Comptroller according to the view first taken, but now abandoned, in Pennsylvania. Should the decision of the Pennsylvania judges be in favor of the State, the law will probably have to be modified either in Pennsylvania or New York, or both. A statute requiring the taxation of the entire capital of corporations doing business in each State would, in the case of many corporations, result in double taxation of a very glaring character. Some corporations "do business" in every State of the Union—as, for instance, telegraph companies. Laws taxing them in this way might result in a confiscation of their entire property.

The Grant Retirement Bill has passed the Senate, many of the Southerners voting for it, ostensibly in order to prevent General Logan from making a sectional speech. In fact, the difficulty there is now in getting materials for such a speech is very great, and has sealed the fountains of much eloquence. The general silence about the South in the Stalwart ranks is one of the most curious phenomena of the day, because it used to be supposed that a stern and implacable view of the condition of the South was the central dogma of the Stalwart creed. This appears to be gone totally, but the disciples persistently refuse to tell what there is left. Dr. Newman said at the Stalwart dinner the other night that he was a Stalwart "from religious principle and intellectual principle," but he carefully avoided saying what the doctrine was to which his religious principle and intellectual principle had

caused him now to adhere. The South was, in the Stalwart eyes, in a highly dangerous condition up to March, 1881, and had been so for twenty years. What has produced the sudden quiet which, it would now seem, prevails in that region?

The appointment of M. Roustan as Minister to Washington lends a fresh interest to the verdict in his recent libel suit against Rochefort. The charges on which the suit was based were substantially that the expedition to Tunis was a stock-jobbing affair, to which M. Roustan was a party, and that in connection with it he allowed himself, while acting as Consul-General at Tunis, to become the tool of the low gang of adventurers who infested the Bey's court. For the publication of these charges in the *Intransigeant* Roustan sued Rochefort, and the jury returned a verdict of not guilty. The result of the trial was generally accepted not merely as a vindication of Rochefort, but as leaving M. Roustan's reputation under a serious cloud. M. Roustan's friends, however, insist that this is unfair to him, and that the verdict settles nothing as to the truth of the charges. The French press law of libel differs from ours in many respects, but the Roustan-Rochefort proceeding closely resembled at all points what we should call a criminal libel case—that is to say, it was really a trial of Rochefort for the crime of defamation. In proceedings of this kind, under the French law, if the libel touches the private life of the complainant, the defendant is not allowed to prove the truth of his charges, but is punished whether they are true or false—in other words, the law is very much what it was in England and the United States in the last century. In the case, however, of publications relating to official conduct, the accused cannot be convicted unless the charges are false. If Rochefort had been convicted, therefore, the result would have been a complete vindication of M. Roustan; for it would have involved a complete disproof of the charges. His acquittal, however, does not by any means, as a matter of law, involve the opposite conclusion—that the charges were true. The jury may have found Rochefort "not guilty" because they came to the conclusion that he published the libel in good faith, believing it to be true, although, as a matter of fact, it was false, because he was misled by false information, or because he was not actuated by private malice, but by zeal for the public good. Therefore, M. Roustan's friends say, the verdict throws no light on the truth of the charges at all.

But the fact is—and the argument of M. Roustan's friends cannot obscure it—that while, in the present state of the law, the verdict turns technically upon the guilt or innocence of the libeller, still the truth of the facts has to be gone into, and the evidence as to them spread before the public; and the public will consequently draw its own conclusion as to whether a verdict of not guilty was really reached because the jury thought the facts were true, or because they thought there was a lack of criminal intent. In Roustan's case the public, examining the evidence as it was submitted to the jury, made up its mind that the jury must have thought that enough of the facts were true to justify Rochefort in taking them up—in other words, that M. Roustan's proceedings in Tunis were scandalous. The argument in defence of M. Roustan therefore leaves the matter pretty much where it found it. He comes here under a cloud, and his appointment should, according to the traditions of European diplomacy, be regarded as a slight to our Government. Our practice, however, of rewarding stump orators of shady reputation with diplomatic posts abroad makes any resentment on our part at M. Roustan's appointment a matter of doubtful good taste, and perhaps the best thing we can do about it is to take the official view of the verdict, and to give him a cordial welcome to Washington. His appointment may in one sense be regarded as a compliment, for it looks as if the French Government were beginning to break loose from the old monarchical theories of diplomacy, and adopt our own view that one of the proper uses of a foreign service is to furnish places to politicians whose "claims" cannot be recognized at home without scandal.

All attempts to impugn seriously the justice of the reductions of rent made by the Irish Land Sub-Commissions have failed. Recently in Ulster the Commission sitting in appeal employed two of the most eminent valuators in the province to go over the farms on which the Sub-Commissioners had passed, and they came substantially to the same result. The Land Act has in its operation just reached the well-known Mr. Bence Jones, who did so much writing in the English papers last year and the year before in abuse of the Irish tenantry, and in glorification of himself. Nobody, he maintained, who was sober and industrious could have any difficulty in paying the rent on his farms in the County Cork, and he held that to complain of his rents was a virtual confession of idleness and intemperance. The Sub-Commissioners have just attacked his estate and played sad havoc with his just and reasonable rents, cutting down that of one farm from £82 to £59, and that of another from £126 to £86. The effect of all this on English opinion, in making clear the real nature of the Irish question, begins to be marked. In fact, the Commissioners are doing what no amount of discussion could have done in depicting the situation—an island with no industry but agriculture, and held in monopoly by a small class, who spend nothing on the land, and steadily follow the tenants' improvements with rising rents, while avoiding all the duties and responsibilities of any kind of leadership, moral, social, or intellectual, and in all cases in which the income is large living abroad, and making a very considerable contribution to the sporting and frivolous element in English society.

The rumor circulated in London that Mr. Gladstone means to resign in consequence of the inquiry instituted by the Lords into the working of the Irish Land Act, probably explains the object which the Peers had in view in setting the inquiry on foot. The enthusiastic support with which Mr. Gladstone's motion of censure on the Lords' resolution was received in the House of Commons, indicates clearly enough that he will have no difficulty in inflicting a formal rebuke on this last attempt of the Peers to make remedial legislation in Ireland impossible. They have put their best man, Lord Cairns, in the chairmanship of the committee, and Lord Salisbury has explained that the committee is not intended to interfere with the working of the Act, but simply to see whether something cannot be done to right the grievous wrongs of the landlords. That the effect of it on the Irish farmer's mind will be, however, an impression that the Act is not a finality, there is little question. The Land Leaguers will certainly use it to produce such an impression, and the Ministers will therefore be justified in using every means at their disposal to show the Irish that it amounts to nothing and will amount to nothing.

A formal contradiction was hardly needed to dispose of the Tory story that Mr. Gladstone was so appalled by the difficulties in his path arising out of the House of Lords' inquiry into the working of the Land Act that he was going to resign He is not going to resign, and will not dissolve Parliament unless he finds that he cannot obtain the changes in the procedure of the House which he considers absolutely necessary to secure the passage of the measures relating to England, which, now that Ireland is out of the way, constitute the Liberal programme. He has triumphed in the first move toward the censure of the Lords' inquiry, by carrying a motion for a postponement of the order of the day by 300 to 167. If he is forced to a dissolution, the most serious consequence will be a reinforcement of the Parnellites in the House. That their number would be doubled by a general election is considered a moderate estimate; that is to say, their strength would probably be increased from under thirty to over sixty.

The House of Commons has expelled Bradlaugh from his seat, nobody knows for what except that the majority thinks him a bad man, and does not like him. As the affair now stands, it is undoubtedly the most extraordinary in Parliamentary annals—much more extraordinary than the Wilkes affair, because when that occurred the powers of the House had not been settled as they have since been. Mr. Gladstone, who probably secretly sympathizes with the Conservative view of Bradlaugh, not only refused to treat it as a Cabinet question, but refused to vote himself, and his followers split—the Whigs voting for the expulsion, the Radicals against it. The only thing which can possibly furnish a justification for the House in the eyes of the public is the personal odiousness of Bradlaugh, who is considered not only an atheist, but an obscene atheist. If the Northampton electors should send him up again, however, and stick to him, the House would unquestionably have to back down in the end, and the more atheistical and obscene he is the more humiliating will the back-down be. The majority, it is said, already begins to be conscious of the difficulty into which it has got itself.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

On Friday the President sent to the Senate the names of Roscoe Conkling, of New York, to be Associate Justice of the Supreme Court, and ex-Senator Sargent to be Minister to Germany. The nominations, especially that of Mr. Conkling, have excited great surprise throughout the country. They were reported favorably to the Senate on Feb 28 from the Committees on the Judiciary and on Foreign Relations respectively, but no action was taken by the Senate.

The services ordered by Congress in commemoration of the life and public services of President Garfield were held in the hall of the House of Representatives on Monday. The feature of the occasion was the oration of Mr. Blaine, who acquitted himself in a manner universally acknowledged to have been graceful and appropriate. Much curiosity was shown by the audience in regard to the way in which Mr. Blaine would treat the political difficulties that preceded the assassination, and there was a "rustle and sigh of relief" at the termination of the passage in which the orator, with great tact and delicacy, reviewed this episode in President Garfield's Administration.

A member of the select committee to audit the accounts of the expenses of the sickness and death of the late President Garfield, gives the following as the corrected list of items which the committee will recommend: For Dr. Bliss, $25,000; for Drs. Agnew and Hamilton, $15,000 each; for Dr. Boynton, $10,000, and for Dr. Edson, $5,000. Surgeon-General Barnes is recommended for promotion to the rank of Major-General, and Surgeon Woodward to the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel. The committee will also recommend that there be paid to Mrs. Garfield an amount equal to the salary of the President from the date of his death to the end of the year.

On Friday resolutions were adopted in the Senate and House directing the Committee on Foreign Affairs to inquire and report concerning the abstraction of certain letters relating to the Chili-Peru complication from the files of the State Department, and also concerning the making of any contract, in Paris or elsewhere, by and between any foreign corporation or company and American citizens, in relation to any concession made by Peru to any foreign corporation wherein allusion was made to the diplomatic action of the United States.

The missing letters referred to in the resolutions are eight in number, five written by Mr. Shipherd to Mr. Blaine and three by Mr. Fisher to Mr. Blaine. The latter part of the resolutions refers to a contract, a copy of which has been published, alleged to have been made between the Crédit Industriel and the banking-house of Morton, Bliss & Co., of New York, of which Mr. Morton, American Minister in Paris, is the head, assigning to the said banking-house the sole agency in this country for the sale of Peruvian guano, the commission to be five per cent. The contract was to become void at the expiration of six years if the Crédit Industriel's contracts with Peru should fail to become operative and effective in consequence of the failure of the United States to mediate between the belligerents and thus secure peace and the recognition of the concessions, rights, and privileges granted to the Crédit Industriel.

On Thursday both Houses of Congress adopted a joint resolution, appropriating $10,000 for the relief of persons in the districts recently overflowed by the Mississippi River. The inundated district embraces all the Mississippi delta between Memphis and Vicksburg, four-fifths of the population of which is composed of colored laborers, who will not have the means of support during the period for which this overflow will necessarily interrupt labor.

On Thursday the Senate passed the bill placing General Grant on the retired list, with the rank of General and pay at the rate of $10,125 a year. Thirty-five Senators voted for the bill and seventeen against it.

It is stated that the Appropriation Committee of the House has its work well in hand, and will be ready at any time, at two days' notice, to report two or three of the general appropriation bills, one of which, the Pensions Appropriation Bill, will probably call for an expenditure of $90,000,000.

The House of Representatives passed the Post-office Appropriation Bill on Saturday, and the Military Academy Bill on Tuesday.

The House Committee on Naval Affairs has agreed to the report of the sub-committee, which recommends that $10,000,000 be appropriated for beginning the construction of a new navy

A resolution was adopted in the House on Saturday, for the appointment of a select committee of nine members, to which shall be referred all petitions, bills, and resolutions asking for the extension of the suffrage to women and the removal of their legal disabilities.

The Senate Committee on the Civil Service continued its regular weekly investigation of the subject on Saturday, by hearing Mr. George William Curtis.

Commissioner Dudley reports to the Senate that the records show that since July 1, 1876, 9,608 pension cases have been investigated, with the result that the names of 2,188 pensioners were dropped from the rolls and 1,976 pending claims were rejected. In 500 cases, in which the evidence of fraud seemed strongest, it is shown that there were over 3,000 false affidavits made and 113 cases of forgery.

The House Committee on Elections have resolved that Delegate Cannon is not entitled to a seat in the House as Delegate from Utah. The ground on which this decision is based is that the House has a right, at any time, by a majority vote, "to exclude from the limited membership which it now extends to Delegates from Territories, any person whom it may judge unfit for any reason to hold a seat as a Delegate." The reason for excluding Mr. Cannon is that he is not free from the "taint and obloquy of plural wives," and that, from his own admission, "he practises, teaches, and advises others to the commission of that offence."

The Census Bureau has completed the estimate of the population of Utah Territory. From this it appears that there are in the Territory 120,283 Mormons, nearly 37,000 of whom are of foreign birth, 6,988 Apostate Mormons, 820 Josephite Mormons, and only 14,156 Gentiles.

Large anti-polygamy mass-meetings were held in various cities throughout the country on Wednesday evening, at which speeches were made and resolutions adopted denouncing polygamy. On the same day petitions praying Congress to half in legislating for Utah were presented for signature at "probably every house in the Territory." The children in all the Mormon schools were made to sign, and a great number of Gentiles were asked to sign.

The Legislature of Utah adopted a memorial to Congress on Saturday, setting forth that "persons whose aim is to gain control of this now wealthy and prosperous Territory and manipulate its finances," are at the bottom of the anti-polygamy movement, and that the measure before Congress, "while ostensibly aimed at the marriage relations of a small portion of the people, will, if carried into effect, deprive the whole Territory of its vested rights." The memorial then goes on to deny the charges which have been made against the Mormons, and accuses the representatives of the Federal Government in Utah of every description of wrong-doing.

A meeting was held in San Francisco on Saturday evening, at which were present delegations from the Chamber of Commerce, Board of Trade, and Board of Brokers, to arrange for a mass-meeting, irrespective of politics, to be held shortly, to express the sentiment of the business men of the community in favor of the Anti-Chinese Bill now pending in Congress.

At a dinner of the Merchants' Association, of Boston, on Saturday, Mr. Charles Francis Adams, jr., set forth, by request, his views on railroad legislation, and read the draft of a bill prepared by himself for the establishment of a Bureau of Inter-State Commerce, with a board of commissioners to be composed of an eminent lawyer, a practical railroad man, and a "statistician and economist." As men eminently qualified to fill these positions, respectively, Mr. Adams mentioned Judge Cooley, of Michigan, Mr. Robert Harris, General Manager of the Erie Railroad, and Mr. Francis A. Walker, recent Chief of the Census Bureau.

An important suit, involving a matter of much importance to corporations, has been brought before the Court of Common Pleas of Pennsylvania. The State of Pennsylvania has sued the Standard Oil Company for taxes, and the principle involved is whether the State has the right to tax such portion of the corporation's capital as is employed outside of the State.

It is stated that the case of General Fitz-John Porter has been several times before the Cabinet, and that indications point to the nomination of General Porter to be a Colonel of Infantry, which will carry with it, when confirmed, a relief from all disabilities imposed by the verdict of the original court in his case. A very elaborate defence of this verdict was made on Tuesday by Gen. J. D. Cox before the Army and Navy Society at Cincinnati.

The Flipper court-martial case is in the hands of Judge-Advocate-General Swaim, who is engaged in revising the proceedings of the court which recommended Flipper's dismissal from the service.

The trial of Sergeant Mason for the attempt to shoot Guiteau is now going on before the court-martial at Washington.

The steamship *Illinois*, having on board 325 Jewish refugees from Russia, arrived in Philadelphia on Thursday. They came mainly from the Province of Kieff, and from Odessa, and Warsaw, most of them being tradesmen and a few farmers. They were met on their arrival by the Citizens' Reception Committee and a corps of volunteer physicians, and every effort was made to minister to their health and comfort.

The annual dinner of the Massachusetts Democracy was held in Boston on Wednesday last.

There was a riot in Chicago on Tuesday, caused by a number of striking rolling-mill hands attacking a number of men who had been employed by the Union Iron and Steel Company to fill their places. The police were not in sufficient force to protect the workmen, who were pelted and hooted by the mob.

Señor Zamacona, Mexican Minister at Washington, has presented his letter of recall to the President.

Mrs. Caroline Leroy Webster, the second wife of Daniel Webster, died at New Rochelle, N. Y., on Sunday.

FOREIGN.

In the House of Lords on Friday a committee proposed by Lord Donoughmore to inquire into the workings of the Land Act in Ireland was agreed to without a division. Lord Cairns was chosen chairman. Lord Salisbury stated in the House of Lords on Saturday that the object of the committee had been misrepresented. He said that it would neither try the Land Commissioners nor seek to repeal the Land Act, and that if any change were to be made, it would be in the direction of redressing the wrongs of the landowners rather than of diminishing anything which the tenants might have acquired by the act.

In the House of Commons on Monday, Mr. Gladstone moved the postponement of the orders of the day in favor of his resolution declaring that an inquiry into the workings of the Land Act would be injurious to the interest of good government in Ireland. The motion was adopted by a vote of 300 to 167. In moving his resolution Mr. Gladstone said that the course the Government proposed to take was one of extreme necessity, and that feeling the beneficial operation of the law was threatened by this action of the House of Lords, the Government desired to show the administrators of the Act that they had the House of Commons behind them. He then pointed out that the House of Lords committee was composed almost exclusively of landlords, and that it was inexpedient that the relations between landlord and tenant should be overhauled by the promiscuous inquiry of a prejudiced tribunal. The debate was then adjourned till Thursday. The situation is thought to be serious, since the Opposition and the Irish members, by resorting to moderately obstructive tactics, can prolong the debate on Mr. Gladstone's motion until the Easter recess. There are various reports to the effect that Mr. Gladstone is determined to resign on account of the continuation of the difficulty in dealing with Irish matters, but these rumors are said to be entirely without foundation.

Two hundred Liberal members of Parliament were present at a meeting held at Mr. Gladstone's house on Monday. The proceedings were private, but it was learned that Mr. Gladstone explained the importance of pressing his resolution, and that his views seemed to meet with general assent.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday a number of propositions were advanced to relieve the House from the difficulty in regard to Mr. Bradlaugh. Finally, during the discussion of Mr. Lyon's motion declaring Mr. Bradlaugh guilty of profanation and therefore incapable of sitting in the House of Commons, Mr. Labouchere demanded that Mr. Bradlaugh be heard at the bar of the House. The House received this motion unfavorably, and Mr. Bradlaugh thereupon passed the bar and took a seat. In consequence of this fresh act of disobedience, and because Mr. Gladstone refused to act, Sir Stafford Northcote moved that Mr. Bradlaugh, having disobeyed the chair and being in contempt of the House, be expelled. Mr. Gladstone supported this motion, which was carried by a vote of 291 to 83. A new writ for Norhampton was then ordered, Mr. Labouchere stating that Mr. Bradlaugh would be a candidate.

Mr. Michael Davitt has been elected to Parliament from Meath to fill the seat made vacant by the resignation of Mr. A. M. Sullivan.

It is said that Mr. Parnell has just completed a week's solitary confinement in consequence of a warder having charged him with trying to bribe him and smuggle a letter out of prison. Mr. Parnell denied the charge.

A large meeting of cotton masters took place in Manchester on Wednesday. The chairman dwelt on the serious position of the trade caused by the decline in prices and the increase in stock. A resolution was passed unanimously declaring that it is necessary to cut down the production.

The Lancaster cotton manufacturers unanimously resolved, at a meeting on Tuesday, to close their mills for a fortnight before the 12th of April.

A meeting of the executive committee of the Mansion House Fund for the relief of the Russo-Jewish refugees was held in London on Wednesday, and a sub-committee was appointed to select places for the formation of agricultural settlements, attention being particularly directed to Palestine and the Canadian northwest. The sum of £10,000 was placed at the disposal of the sub-committee.

The Crystal Palace International Electrical Exhibition was formally opened in London on Saturday evening. Experts state that it is even more complete than the exhibition recently held in Paris.

In the House of Commons on Monday Sir Charles Dilke, Under Foreign Secretary, said that Lord Lyons had been corresponding with the Mexican Minister at Paris, with a view to the resumption of diplomatic relations between Great Britain and Mexico.

The Prince of Wales, speaking at a meeting of the promoters of the International Fisheries Exhibition to be held in London in 1883, said he hoped the American Government would contribute at least as liberally toward the expenses of it as it did toward the Berlin exhibition.

The results of General Skobeleff's recent speech are beginning to manifest themselves. One of the Russian newspapers states that henceforth precautions will be taken to prevent Russian public servants in high office from discussing matters of state policy on their own account. Meanwhile the Czar has ordered the General to return to St. Petersburg, and it is expected that he will be required to explain his speech. It is also positively stated that Prince Bismarck has demanded explanations from the Russian Government in regard to the matter.

It is stated in diplomatic circles in Vienna that General Skobeleff's recall was mainly due to the representation by Prince Orloff, Russian Ambassador in Paris, of the personal intercourse which General Skobeleff had begun to establish with French politicians of the *Revanche* party, and of the impression his speech had produced in Paris. It is also announced from Berlin that Prince Orloff has assured Prince Bismarck that the Czar is greatly offended at General Skobeleff's attitude in Paris.

The trial of the twenty-one Nihilists, charged with "robbery, assassination, and attempted assassination," ended on Tuesday, Feb. 28. It is difficult to get any accurate account of the proceedings at the trial, which is said to have been conducted with greater secrecy, severity, and disregard of the ordinary usages of legal procedure than any political trial heretofore. The prisoners, only fifteen of whom were represented by counsel, were very disorderly and reckless. They all objected to the jurisdiction of the Court, on the ground that they were accused of crimes against the Government, which was an interested party, and the Court, therefore, which was the Government's organ, could not legally pass judgment upon them. One of the despatches states that they all pleaded guilty, except two, who pleaded an alibi. On Thursday, one of the prisoners, Sutchanoff by name, is said to have drawn such a vivid picture of the abnormal social conditions that had driven him to a career of crime that even the judges were deeply affected. All of the accused declared that they were Socialists and were willing to carry on a peaceful propaganda, but that they had been driven to illegal acts by the Government's cruelties. Ten of them, including one woman, were sentenced to death; the remainder to various terms of penal servitude.

It is officially announced that the Austrian column encountered 1,000 insurgents at Krstac on Thursday last, and after nine hours' fighting defeated them. Herzegovinian refugees are flocking in great numbers to Montenegro, and the Montenegrin Senate is discussing relief measures for them. Several thousand of them recently, becoming desperate in consequence of severe weather, broke through the cordon of Montenegrin troops, and are now said to be in a state of "indescribable misery."

The Austrians have lost 116 killed and wounded, including ten officers, in skirmishes with the insurgents in Herzegovina since the 16th instant.

The London *Standard's* correspondent at Constantinople says that the mobilization of 150,000 troops is projected, in view of probable complications in Bulgaria, which may make necessary the occupation of the Balkans.

A bill introduced into the French Chamber of Deputies by M. Tirard, Minister of Commerce, in regard to the importation of English goods, has been adopted. It authorizes the prolongation of the present treaty until May 15th.

Elections were held in France on Sunday to fill two vacancies in the Senate and fourteen in the Chamber of Deputies. With one exception, where a Bonapartist was elected, Republicans of various shades were successful. Five second ballots, however, will be necessary. M. de Freycinet, who was elected Senator in four constituencies, has announced his intention of sitting for the Department of the Seine.

A despatch from Paris states that the appointments of M. Roustan as Minister to Washington, and M. Cambon, formerly Prefect of the Department of the North, as Minister to Tunis, have been gazetted.

The French Government has resolved to modify the law relating to the expulsion of foreigners, so that every foreigner who has been convicted of a crime in his native country may be expelled from France immediately, without any formality.

M. de Freycinet, replying to an interpellation in the French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday, said that the situation in Egypt might have serious consequences; that England, perceiving this, had proposed to submit the matter to the powers. He further said that the French agent in Egypt had been instructed to assume an attitude of extreme reserve toward the new Government.

Mahmud Baroudi, President of the Egyptian Council, has written to the Governor of Sudan, informing him that the functions of the new Special Committee for the province will include taking steps to insure the complete suppression of the slave trade.

The Opposition in the Greek Chamber of Deputies has defeated the Government on the question of invalidating the recent election on the Island of Milo. This is the first trial of strength between the Government and the Opposition.

A London despatch from Madrid says that political circles in Spain are unusually animated. Resistance to the collection of the new taxes is increasing, and Señor Comacho, Minister of Finance, is materially injuring the popularity of his Cabinet by the severe measures taken against the leaders of the trade syndicates. The Cortes will probably be convoked in March, as the state of public opinion requires an early examination by Parliament of the financial policy.

Senhor Barbosa has introduced a resolution in the Portuguese Chamber of Deputies proposing an alliance between Spain and Portugal, on the ground that united nations need fear no foreign aggression; that they would be able to reduce their armies and navies to such a footing as would suffice for the requirements of their colonies, and that Lisbon and Oporto would become centres of intercourse with Brazil and the Spanish American republics.

Don Carlos has written to his representative in Madrid, apropos of the Spanish pilgrimage to Rome, that he does not intend to go to Rome, as he does not wish to cause the Pope any inconvenience.

Copies of an indictment covering twenty-six pages of folio have been handed to eight persons in Vienna, charged with contributing by their negligence to the recent fire at the Ring Theatre. Among the accused are the ex-burgomaster of Vienna, the manager of the Ring Theatre, and the chief commissary of the police. Two hundred and twenty-six witnesses have been summoned, and the trial will begin on the 2d of May.

TUESDAY, February 28, 1882.

MR. CONKLING'S NOMINATION.

THE nomination of Mr. Conkling for the Supreme Bench has apparently taken everybody by surprise, and yet, when one comes to reflect on it, it seems the natural product both of President Arthur's own state of mind and of the policy he has thus far pursued in making appointments. It was folly to suppose that after having worked in politics for twenty years under Mr. Conkling's leadership, and having supported him in the disastrous contest at Albany over the Senatorship last spring, Mr. Arthur would, in consequence of anything that has happened, change his estimate of his friend's capacity and character. He probably feels about both as he felt a year ago. Mr. Conkling's immediate followers have an admiration for him which is nearly as great as Dr. Newman's, though they would not express it in such extravagant language. There is no denying that in the peculiar system of political management which has grown up since the war, through the enormous increase in the Government patronage controlled by Senators, Mr. Conkling has attained the greatest excellence. There is no man who believes in that system and has formed part of it but must, therefore, rate his capacity exceedingly high, and think him fit for any place of dignity or trust. Indeed, one of the most curious features of the spoils system is the effect it produces on the imagination of those who work under it, as to the universality of talent which must belong to those who reach in it the rank of "boss." Mr. Conkling has for many years enjoyed among them the reputation of being a great statesman without ever having originated any important legislation, or shown much interest in any great question of the day; and the reputation of a great lawyer without ever having followed the profession of the law continuously or successfully. When he left the Senate last spring there did not seem to his friends anything ridiculous in the story that a New York firm had offered him a partnership with a guaranteed income of $50,000 a year.

The President, too, has, ever since he began to make appointments, followed the plan of doing something for both factions of the party. He has managed to do so thus far with great skill and discretion. He has made no conspicuous selections from his own wing (except Mr. Howe's) that seemed decidedly objectionable, and has made some which were in every way creditable. He has moved so slowly, too, as to create a highly favorable impression as to his care and deliberateness. But he has probably felt from the very outset that it was not possible for him to let his old chief languish in obscurity and discredit without a certain amount of personal humiliation for himself, and without tacitly acknowledging the folly or malignity of the attacks made by his own political friends on the Administration of General Garfield. "Recognition," as it is called, of Mr. Conkling, in some shape has, therefore, been a necessity with him. It would perhaps have been asking too much of human nature to ask him not to give it.

"Recognizing" Roscoe Conkling is, however, no easy task, because recognition must be acceptable to the object of it to be of any real use. There is probably no office yet created by man, since the foundation of political society, which the ex-Senator considers entirely equal to his merits and powers, and yet all American offices are surrounded by legal restrictions, and the offices in the President's gift are not the most desirable. The only conspicuous or dazzling things he has to bestow are the foreign missions, the custom-house collectorships, and the United States judgeships. Collectorships are far beneath Mr. Conkling's notice. There is only one foreign mission which could have any attraction for him—that of London; but no one knows better than he that, even if he could get over his contempt for the exile which foreign missions involve, no man of prominence in public life is much less fitted than he either to shine or be comfortable in London society. There thus remained nothing but the Supreme Court, and it must be confessed that it is difficult to see how this can answer the President's purpose, whether that purpose be to satisfy Mr. Conkling or give the Court a good judge. It can hardly flatter Mr Conkling now to offer him an associate-justiceship in the court of which ten years ago he refused the chief-justiceship. Moreover, if he is now engaged in making money by his profession, the salary of an associate justice cannot be very tempting. Besides this, he has been accustomed to living alone in whatever sphere he chose for himself. To have to share his authority with several others, and be compelled to agree with them, or be overruled by them, would, unless he has undergone some great spiritual change, be what quiet is said to be to quick bosoms. In fact, it would be difficult to conceive of a person less fitted as regards temper for a court containing many members, all of whom would probably consider him less well equipped than they for their common duties.

Of his fitness for the place, considered apart from his peculiar claims on President Arthur, we fancy there can be but one opinion. Men as violent in their partisanship, and as difficult in their temper, have many times before now made good judges. The history of the English bench is full of such cases But we cannot recall any case in which a man was put on such a bench as that of the Supreme Court with so little preparation in the way of practice at the bar. Unless everything that lawyers have been saying for two thousand years as to the requirements of their profession be pure pretence, Mr. Conkling is a lawyer only in name, and must make a poor judge. He has passed his life in politics. The few briefs he has held have come to him mainly because he was a politician of prominence. Legal learning he has not, and cannot have, nor can his mind have that sort of saturation with legal habits of thought which has always been supposed to be absolutely necessary to judicial efficiency.

If President Arthur has offered him the place —as some have suggested—to fulfil a personal or party obligation to a political chief, and with the expectation that he will decline it, he has put the Supreme Court to a use which cannot for one moment be defended or excused. Nothing is more important—and nothing is more difficult—than to maintain popular respect for such a court in a country like ours, in which the excitement of party politics searches every nook and cranny of the Government. Nothing is better calculated to bring it into contempt than the use of the judgeships as complimentary offerings the acceptance of which is not looked for. In fact, it is the duty of the President never to offer one of them without knowing that it will be accepted. It is not an office of which any President can afford to make little publicly.

For similar but still stronger reasons, it is not an office which any President can afford to use as a refuge for battered old friends, with whom the world has gone hard. The Custom-house has long—too long—served that purpose. It would be a most disastrous thing for the Constitution and the laws if the Supreme Court ever came to be looked on either by the politicians or the bar as a similar retreat. It is not now and never has been a place to which active politicians looked forward as a prize, and it is not desirable that it should be. But everything should be done to keep it as the goal of honorable legal ambition, and the reward of legal eminence. Time was when success in New York politics was, as in Mr. Seward's case, in no way incompatible with fitness for high judicial office. Perhaps that time will soon come again.

RAILROADS AS PRIVATE PROPERTY.

MR. REAGAN, of Texas, being challenged last week by Mr. Wayne MacVeagh, who was arguing before the House Committee on Commerce against Congressional power of railroad regulation, to say what remedy he would propose for the admitted evils of railroad management, made answer that he would propose three things: A law denying the theory that railroads are private property; a law prohibiting them from "insulting the popular intelligence" by claiming the right to fix the cost of transportation; and a law prohibiting discrimination between places in fixing rates. We presume, however, that he would really embody all these things in one act. The second of his provisions it would be difficult to enforce, and would probably be made unnecessary by giving the State the right to regulate charges. If the corporations were not allowed to fix rates, they might be allowed to "insult the popular intelligence" by claiming the right to do so as much as they pleased.

It is very plain that in this, as in so many other cases, the extreme view of neither side is correct. The railroads, as they have been made in this country, are undoubtedly private property, as Mr. MacVeagh and Mr. Alexander, of the Louisville and Nashville Road, maintain. The American railroads have in the main been constructed with the money of individuals, and without any state guarantee, or protection against loss, except the land grants, with which many have been aided since the war. On the greater part of their cost—about fifty-two per cent., we believe—they pay no dividends. Very few of them have been made without loss to the first projectors, who have never received from either Federal or State Governments the slightest

countenance for the notion that their venture was not exclusively their own affair. In fact, it may be said in general terms that the railroads of the United States have been constructed strictly on the private-property theory, and that such state aid as has been given them has been given with the view of inducing them to push their lines into regions where there was no population, and to which the Government wished population to go. In no other country has the private-property theory been so fully recognized; and while hundreds of individuals have been enriched, hundreds of thousands have been ruined by it. So far Mr. MacVeagh has the facts on his side.

But, on the other hand, it is also true that no Government has ever recognized any such thing as absolute control by individuals of any kind of property. No man enjoys even possession of his house, except under conditions created for the safety, or health, or comfort of his neighbors. There is no older legal principle than that which makes your use of what is your own dependent on your not injuring what is your neighbor's. Every Government has applied this principle to all property the management of which greatly affects the public welfare or prosperity.

The most conspicuous illustration of it is the legislation of all countries with regard to landed property. Property in land has hitherto been the kind of property by which the whole community was most affected in health and happiness, and on which national prosperity has been most dependent. Accordingly there has never been anywhere absolute property in land. Legislation has everywhere and always bristled with restrictions on the use of it. The mode of acquiring it, as well as of holding it, is the subject of limitations to which personal property is not exposed. Moreover, there are few modern countries in which landed property has not passed through a process amounting to partial confiscation because absolute proprietorship had been found to work public injury. France, Prussia, Austria, Russia, have all gone through this process. Ireland is now going through it. England will probably very shortly go through it.

In the United States no mass of property has hitherto arisen the management of which has created interests really or apparently antagonistic to the public interest. We have not had, and are not likely to have for a long time to come, any land question, because we have still more land than we know what to do with. Railroad property has, however, undoubtedly begun, in its relations to the community at large, to furnish an analogy to European landed property. It has in its more absolute form begun to develop evils and inconveniences very much resembling those created in France, and Ireland, and England, by the concentration of land in the hands of a few owners over-conscious of their proprietorship. It affects the interests of commerce, and agriculture, and manufactures at so many points, in short, as to make the private-property theory untenable, and to make state interference not only justifiable but imperative, for the very reasons which call for the existence of government at all. Private property should be in every civilized state a very sacred thing, but no state was ever yet willing to have its rate of progress diminished, or the comfort and safety of the bulk of its citizens sacrificed to the sacredness of any kind of property.

We may take it for granted, therefore, that there will be state interference here with railroad management before long. Nay, there must be; and it will, we trust, be attempted on neither Mr. MacVeagh's theory nor Mr. Reagan's. Railroads are private property, but private property with serious limitations; and in regulating them, as in regulating land tenures in older countries, the object aimed at, as long as the state is not ready to buy out the owners, is to interfere no more than is absolutely necessary, and to do as little as possible to diminish their attractiveness as an investment for prudent people. It is quite clear that the private-property theory is, even in the eyes of investors, rapidly breaking down. The victims of the pending "war" between the great trunk lines begin to see that they could hardly fare worse at the hands of a Government Commission regulating rates than they now fare at the hands of their own "kings" indulging in the royal pastime.

THE SCRUTIN DE LISTE IN ITALY.

Ten years of Italian unity and independence have passed, and, in the opinion of all impartial men, the representative system has proved an entire failure. Considering that only 600,000 out of 30,000,000 are electors, and that of these barely sixty-two per cent. take the trouble to register their votes, the Chamber of Deputies can scarcely be called a representative Assembly; still less the Senate, whose members are elected for life, nominally by the King, but in reality by the existing Government, whenever it wishes to carry a measure obnoxious to the majority of that august body. Under the present system the most striking individualities, whether for patriotism or for intelligence, have been used up and exhausted. Men such as Spaventa and Cairoli, pillars of their respective parties, have utterly lost caste through their ministerial failures; in short, every thinking member of the nation decided long ago that a very radical reform must be introduced into the representative system if monarchical institutions were to take root in the country. The Conservatives as a whole trembled at first at anything approaching to universal suffrage, fearing the inroads of the Republican workingmen. Many staunch Liberals, on the other hand, objected through the fear that the most disciplined party, which assuredly is the Catholic, would carry the day. Bills were brought in and shelved until outsiders took up the question thoroughly; hundreds of meetings in favor of universal suffrage were held, and the existing Ministry realized that the last shadow of their popularity would vanish if they did not satisfy the country with a sweeping measure of reform. Hence the Reform Bill recently passed, which is next door to universal suffrage, as all who can write the sacramental phrase, "I demand to be inscribed on the electoral lists," acquire the right in virtue of this simple act. The measure, passed by a large majority in the House, was slightly modified by the Senate, and, with their practical common sense, the Deputies, instead of hesitating and cavilling, accepted the modifications in order not to postpone the passage of the bill, and the Ministry, with equal prudence, separated the question of the extension of the suffrage from that (far more complicated) of the *scrutin de liste*.

During the recess, however, the question was very seriously mooted and thoroughly sifted. Zanardelli, the ablest man in the Ministry, had in his report on the Suffrage Bill warmly advocated this measure as the only one tending to change the phys'ognomy of the House, which now, as is recognized by all, is composed of a large majority of mediocrities and, still worse, of jobbers. Able Conservatives, and as able Progressists, have drawn startling pictures, which but for the seriousness of the question would be also amusing, of the methods adopted for becoming a member of the Italian Legislature, and of the gymnastics and manœuvres necessary to keep the pledges given to electors. The purchase of votes by money is very unusual in Italy, but the successful candidate has to give more than money's worth in promises and pledges to his electors. Taken as a body, possibly, they want a railroad to pass through their town, or a bridge thrown over the neighboring river; separately, one wants the vacant pharmacy, another the right to open a shop for the sale of tobacco and salt (Government monopolies); posts under Government are wanted for the sons of everybody, advancement for those who have already obtained them. So, when the successful Deputy arrives in Rome his first care must be to obtain access to one or more of the Ministers and proffer his plea; and, with a dubious majority, Ministers again and again accede to the most unreasonable requests rather than disgust a new Deputy. This is one of the crying evils that the *scrutin de liste* will, it is hoped, put an end to, because local influences will have little weight with men no longer elected by a group of voters in the same town or commune, but by all the men of the same party throughout the province.

Another of the evils which the *scrutin de liste* is supposed to obviate is that of undue Government influence in favor of this or that individual. Under the Conservative Government this influence was used most unscrupulously: Government servants were sent in a body to vote; prefects and syndics were duly instructed as to what candidates they were to support. Less openly but scarcely less effectively has the influence of the Progressist Ministers been felt, especially in Naples, the hotbed of intrigue, where Liberal Ministers in power set themselves openly to defeat the candidates of ex-Liberal Ministers, and in many cases succeeded. It is believed that it will be far more difficult for the reigning Ministry to influence a whole body of electors, throughout a province, in favor of a list of candidates, than single and separate electors in favor of a single and separate candidate. The large majority which voted for the *scrutin de liste* shows that much is expected from the measure by men of all parties; hence their approval of it, many of them saddling the vote with the proviso that they by no means intended it to be taken as a vote of confidence in the Ministry.

A minute analysis of the various systems of elections has been given by Zanardelli in his report on electoral reform, and he has also given the opinions of the ablest champions on either side. In Italy the adversaries of the *scrutin de liste* are able to cite Count Cavour, who once, in a long speech, expressed his fear that it would render the national representation altogether illusory. He maintained that the right of the elector consists in choosing as his representative the man whom he deems fittest to make the national laws and conduct the affairs of the country. How can he do this if the candidate who solicits his vote is unknown to him? Will it not be more difficult for him to select properly from men whom he does not know and who do not live in his own neighborhood, than from among his own citizens, whose lives and capacities are familiar to him? This is, perhaps, the most pertinent argument that has been brought against the scheme. The problem can only be solved by practical application, and, unless appearances deceive, the application will be most practical, for all parties seem inclined to enter the lists. Every day fresh supplications reach the Vatican for the withdrawal of the prohibition directed against all political action on the part of good Catholics embodied in the well-known formula—"neither electors nor elected." Bishops and archbishops, rectors and curates assail the Pope with assurances that they are losing all authority and influence over their flocks by this compulsory holding aloof from the essential questions of daily life; and the Pope, though carefully abstaining from any public expression, has authorized the clergy to see that their parishioners are duly inscribed on the electoral rolls. The first costly step thus taken, the rest will naturally follow.

THE BEGINNING OF THE SESSION.

LONDON, February 9, 1882.

EVER since the end of August, when what is called the vacation commenced, a brisk and uninterrupted political skirmishing has been in progress. Now that Parliament has at last met, the excitement grows, and people expect a hot and passionate session. The Tory party came back to London doubly sanguine, thinking that they possess abundant materials for assailing the Ministry, and cheered by the success which has attended them in several recent elections. They are panting for the fray. Few indeed suppose that in a House of Commons where the majority has been hitherto so constant to Mr. Gladstone, it will be easy to inflict on him an open defeat. The plan rather is to harass and worry the Liberals by damaging criticism, to seize occasions when lukewarm Whigs and Irish Home Rulers may be induced to vote with the Tories, and thus so to weaken the position of the Government as to goad them into dissolving Parliament, when a general election would either sensibly reduce the strength of the Liberals or possibly even give the Tories a majority. It is probably this hope of returning to power which has made the Opposition, and particularly their younger and less responsible leaders, so unusually active and so vehement of speech all through the autumn and winter. How far are their hopes justified, and on what ground do they rest?

The main ground of attack which the course of affairs furnishes is of course the state of Ireland. When the Land Act passed, most people (though not those who knew Ireland best) expected that it would soon begin to pacify the country; that political agitation would cease to be seditious; that outrages would diminish; that rents would be paid; that it would become easy to release from prison the persons confined under the act which last spring suspended the writ of habeas corpus. The great source of evil—the injustice suffered by tenants—once eliminated from the patient's system, why should he not recover? The first effect, however, of the Land Act was not a remission, but an exacerbation of the disease. The Land League saw its very existence threatened by the removal of the land grievance which it had been created to deal with, and its leaders, whose eyes were fixed on ulterior objects, were forced to choose, and choose speedily, between the loss of their hold on the people and the adoption of a pure revolutionary policy. They chose the latter, and called on the tenants, instead of taking advantage of the Land Act, to refuse the payment of rent altogether. Mr. Gladstone's Government thought that in such a state of things it was necessary at all hazards to give the act a fair chance, since it offered the best prospect of pacifying the country; and forthwith proceeded to dissolve the League, having thrown some of its leaders into prison. Thus the struggle became for the moment more bitter than ever. Although an immense number of tenants have applied to the court created by the Land Act, a good many have stuck to the League, refusing to pay rent, and in many parts of the country farmers who have paid up have been assaulted, beaten, wounded, or even killed. Thus Ireland remains in a very disturbed state. A large force of soldiers and police is needed to keep order; outrages are reported from many districts, and of course exaggerated by the Conservative press of Dublin and London; Kilmainham and several other jails are full of persons arrested on suspicion of being concerned in agrarian outrages or seditious schemes. The Tory leaders point to all this as a proof positive of the short-sightedness or weakness of the Liberal Government. "These are the fruits," they say, "of your tardiness in repressing the anarchy which began eighteen months ago. This is all the result you have obtained by a Land Act which shook the foundations of property. It was extreme enough to encourage and justify the revolutionary party, yet it has not satisfied them: it has only made the passion for complete emancipation from the payment of rent and from political connection with England angrier than it was before. Such is the fatal consequence of concessions to lawless agitation."

The Government, of course, answers that it has acted for the best; that the difficulties were not of its own making, but due to long-standing causes; that things would have been still worse had the Land Act not been passed. But, however true it may be that neither party is specially to blame for Irish discontent, the fact that this discontent has blazed out so fiercely while they have been in power tells to some extent against them in most people's minds. A government must expect to suffer for whatever misfortunes mark its tenure of office. It cannot be denied that Mr. Gladstone's Ministry has lost some of the prestige which it commanded eighteen months ago. It is, however, quite another thing to say that the country has lost confidence in it. The wealthier classes are, of course, hostile; they have been Tory in sentiment for the last ten years. But, for aught that appears, the constituencies—that is to say, the middle and poorer classes—remain where they were two years ago, when the general election of 1880 drove Lord Beaconsfield from power. They think that property is in England safe enough, whatever may happen in Ireland; they have been so long accustomed to hear of disturbances there, as not to throw any special blame on any one government; and they have still a firm faith in Mr. Gladstone's personal greatness and uprightness. They are, however, not so actively eager in his support as they were in 1880. They have begun to weary of waiting for the domestic reforms which were then promised. They feel as if something more might have been effected for England by so large a Parliamentary majority as the Government possesses. In fact, they are becoming languid, and, unless some comprehensive measures such as they care for are brought forward in this session, this languor is likely to grow and to endanger the prospects of the Ministry. The programme which has just been disclosed in the Queen's speech is rather useful than stimulating. The creation of a system of local government for the counties, and of a municipal government for all London; the reform of the bankruptcy law and the patent law; the conservancy of rivers and prevention of floods, are all important objects, the attainment of which would be a substantial gain to the community. But they are not likely to touch popular feeling. None of them could be made a rallying-cry at an election. The first of them is no doubt a matter of very great consequence, but its consequence is as yet imperfectly appreciated, even in the rural districts; and while failure to carry the bill will be discrediting, success is hardly likely to receive the full meed of praise.

In this comparative torpidity of their supporters, the Government have to thank their enemies for an unexpected piece of help. The extreme bitterness with which the Parnellite leaders have attacked Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Forster has all along done much to make those Radicals who thought their policy in Ireland too repressive rally round them, and to avert a schism between the more moderate and more pronounced sections of the Liberal party. Latterly, the Irish Land Leagues in England have resorted to something stronger than words: they have organized bands of those whom we call "roughs" and you call "hoodlums" to disturb or, if possible, break up the meetings which English Liberal members are accustomed to hold with their constituents during the Parliamentary recess. Not only in London, but in other parts of the country, such as Manchester and Newcastle-on-Tyne, meetings have been attacked by large gangs, usually armed with sticks. Sometimes the speaker's voice is drowned; sometimes the meeting is turned into a fight and dissolves in uproar. Such tactics are naturally irritating to the English workingmen, who retaliate by assembling prepared for a conflict, and, being far superior in numbers, can easily overwhelm the Irish. They were inclined to sympathize with the Irish national party against the landlords, and even against the Government; but when they see their own meetings disturbed and the members of their own choice assaulted, while Tory meetings are left unharmed, the old prejudice against the Irish revives, and they judge the coercive measures of the Government much more leniently. Disorder in public meetings has hitherto been regarded with surprising tolerance in England. It existed chiefly at election times, which were traditionally times of license; it was supposed to be rather a mark of English freedom and that sort of joyous exuberance, rough but good-natured, on which the English used to plume themselves. Besides, it was usually practised, in the days before the Reform Bill of 1832, by the popular party against those whom it considered oppressors. But during the Eastern-Question excitement, mobs belonging to the

anti-Russian or bellicose party used to break up by force the gatherings of the anti-Turkish party; and now the Irish in England are making the practice so common that before long those who have incurred their displeasure will have to appear in public surrounded by a bodyguard of martial committeemen. Such turbulence is so specially dangerous in London, with its vast floating criminal population, to whom a riot is a godsend, that if it continues the police will probably be instructed to interfere more actively for the protection of meetings than they have hitherto been permitted to do. The immediate result may perhaps be to isolate the Irish party and its members from English parties even more than has been hitherto the case. Whatever improvement there may be in the internal state of Ireland—and the agrarian crimes certainly seem to be steadily diminishing—the attitude of the leaders of the National party continues strenuously hostile to the Government. Whether it is true that a practical alliance has been concluded between them and the Tories will be shown in the debates and divisions on which Parliament is now entering, and which promise to rival or surpass the heat and passion of last year. Y.

THE FELLAHEEN AND THE MONEY-LENDERS.

ALEXANDRIA, January 31, 1882.

THERE are some industrial and commercial features in the present condition of the Delta which attract less attention in the European papers than the more conspicuous political movements of the country, and yet are in everybody's mouth here, and are probably more important in themselves than many acts or events which more readily lend themselves to description in correspondence-letters. It is well known that from the time of the deposition of Ismaïl and the establishment of the European Control, the Fellaheen, or the body which includes all the smaller peasant proprietors and the better class of agricultural laborers, have been relieved from the odious abuses of taxation under which they have long suffered, and which are familiar to every student of the administrative system prevailing in a Turkish province. Every conceivable abuse of taxation reached the highest point of development. The taxes were levied in an endless variety of more or less irritating ways, all burdensome, incommodious, and oppressive; they were levied at the most inconvenient times; they were uncertain in amount, and occasionally could not be distinguished from mere arbitrary confiscation. The new Government and the European Control, in carrying out the recommendations of the "Commission of Inquiry," changed all that, and changed it effectually. Throughout the length and breadth of the land—as I can testify from my own inquiries and observations, pursued during a seven months' journeying up and down the country last year—all sense of injury from taxation has vanished. The taxes are now few, definitely ascertained, levied at convenient times, and of moderate amount. By a recent enactment, which has just received the consent of the Governments concerned, the immovable property of resident strangers is for the first time rendered subject to taxation.

It might be supposed from all this that a career of unexampled prosperity was opening upon the humbler classes in the country; the more so as there has been no recurrence of the famine that desolated the country three years ago, and for the last two years the Nile has, in a larger sense of the current phrase than is usually covered by it, "come up to the mark." But a new phenomenon has manifested itself which has plenty of examples in other countries, and especially in India. The petty proprietor of land, who is at once greedy for money and reckless, within honest limits, as to the means of obtaining it, and the uses he puts it to, does his utmost to get hold of a little capital for the improvement of his estate. He needs to pay for extra labor; he needs either a *sakia* or a *shadoof*, or the use of a coöperative modern pump (this last being still rare), to water his ground. He needs seed-corn and the simple instruments of agriculture, which scarcely differ from those still visible as painted on the walls of tombs thirty or forty centuries ago. Lastly, he needs support for himself, his family, and his laborers, if he has any, during the time that he is waiting for his crops to grow, or at least till he can raise money upon them while scarcely yet above the soil. It must be remembered that, owing to the late famine and oppressive taxation, he sets to work with no capital, and is fortunate if he has not already started in debt.

His first recourse is to one of the numerous so-called "banks" which abound in Cairo and Alexandria and have branches throughout the country. All but a few of the best of these banks are banks only in name. They are really companies of money-lenders, who are ready to advance any amount of money asked for, at a rate of interest which is sufficiently low, and on no other security than that of the applicant's land. I was told the other day, by a leading European proprietor of land at an inland town on the line between Cairo and Alexandria, that the practice is for the needy farmer to betake himself to the bank, and not to ask for a definite loan on the security of his field or fields, but first to offer his field or fields as security, then to ask how much money he can obtain upon them, and always to take as much as he can get. This report I find confirmed on every side. The Egyptian Arab presents a curious combination of love of money with impecuniousness and improvidence. He is said, by those who know him best in his business relations, to take no thought of the morrow, and to care only how much money he can get to-day. The banks know well enough how good and sure is the security offered them, and they have no inducement to obstruct business by asking for high interest, their competition being with each other for obtaining the valuable security offered. The result can easily be foreseen, and is already displaying itself in a menacing way. The village population are becoming more and more pauperized and dependent on the money-lenders for even the means of life. The banks are realizing their securities, and, in order to recoup themselves, selling the mortgaged lands to capitalists or farmers on a large scale, whether European or native, resident on the spot, who possibly employ the old owners as their laborers, so far as they need them, by way of supplement to the steam-engines and improved machinery which they bring to bear on the cultivation of cotton, maize, rice, *dura*, barley, or other products indigenous or exotic.

It need not be said to those who have studied land questions in a scientific spirit, that in this state of things a land problem is at hand having the gravest political bearings. Unless some stop to the process is put by legislation, by the education of the natives, or by the casual transformation of habits, it is evident that all the land of the country which does not belong to the Government or to religious corporations will be taken out of the hands of the mass of a population which, like the Irish and the French, are eminently agricultural in their habits, and accumulated in the hands of a limited number of rich people, mostly foreigners. The very same problem has within the last few years presented itself in British India; but, happily, the means of meeting it were at hand to a degree which never could be the case here, or perhaps in any other country. The British Government is at once absolute in India, and the scene of operation is sufficiently far removed from Europe to encourage the local government to adopt a bold legislative remedy without the apprehension of creating dangerous precedents at home. The Bengal Rent Commission recommended a trenchant mode of cutting short the claims of money-lenders, of vindicating the proprietary rights of the impoverished farmers, and of relieving the monetary pressure in a way which, under the circumstances, seemed most equitable to all parties. These recommendations are in course of being carried into effect. In Egypt the Government is of the weakest. The whole attention of the European Controllers is naturally concentrated on the Government lands, which are mortgaged for the European debts, and, as no reasonable charge can be made against the banks or private capitalists of fraud, of extortion, or even of overreaching, it would be difficult to upset the voluntary contracts which are made with the poor Fellaheen.

There is some talk of establishing what is called a national bank, the purpose of which is to act as an intermediate agent between the European bondholders and the cultivators of the soil. It is alleged that the European managers of the Daira estates, mortgaged for the debt, do not obtain as much revenue from the soil as would be obtained by a private and native company personally interested in the amount of the proceeds. It is not indeed probable that the Governments concerned, or the bondholders, will allow the eminent administrators they have appointed to be superseded under the speculative possibility of leaving a larger margin of profit for the benefit of the country, especially as that extra profit might be obtained by processes of exaction not congenial to European habits. The project, however, has been a good deal discussed here, especially in its obvious political bearings. It is worth while to mention it in connection with the state of things above described, in order to show that some such institution, under strong Government control, and subjected to the requirement of a comprehensive land-law, would meet the difficulty. It might serve as a vehicle for advancing on easy terms small amounts of capital really needed for the bona-fide cultivation of the soil, and dispense with what is, in effect, the oppressive condition of taking the soil out of the cultivators' hands. A.

YRIARTE'S RIMINI.

PARIS, February 8, 1882.

M. CHARLES YRIARTE is a writer of a new school—a critic of art who is at the same time a traveller, an artist, and an amateur. He has published on Florence and on Venice two works which are monographs of those famous cities, and which represent, with their fine illustrations in historical development, hundreds of volumes which it is almost impossible to find. It would not be just to call such works guide-books: they are of a much higher class—they are real art-treatises. But 'Florence' and 'Venice' contain only matter which can be found in other places; M. Charles Yriarte's new volume, on Rimini, is superior to them in one point—it contains much original matter. It is a chapter of history as well as of art, and it must, as such, find its place among the most important works on Italy.

Instinctively, Yriarte has found the true method of writing the history of Italy. After the downfall of the Roman Empire, Italy ceased to exist as a unit: it fell into an atomic state—each town became a little world in itself. By degrees two powers emerged from the chaos of

the Middle Ages, the Papacy and the Empire. "Le Pape et l'Empereur sont tout," as *Don Carlos* says in "Hernani." The communes of Italy looked to one or other to find a protector of their semi-barbarous independence. The military chiefs, the tyrants of the communes, enrolled themselves in the army of the Pope or in the army of the Emperor, to whom they bound themselves by a *feudum*, by an investiture. At first captains of a few soldiers, mere *condottieri*, they became the vicars of the Holy See or of the Empire: the Scaligers of Verona, the Sforzas, the Estes, the Malatestas, the Gonzagas, all began by commanding a troop of horse for some potentate—for the Pope, the Emperor, or Venice, or Florence. Gian Galeazzo Visconti, a mere *condottiere*, died master of all Lombardy, from the Alps to the Adriatic; his army was the largest Italy had ever seen; his wealth was boundless.

Rimini is hardly known by those who have not travelled in Italy. If it were not for Dante and his Francesca da Rimini, the name of this little city lying on the coast of the Adriatic would be hardly ever pronounced. Rimini became, in the Middle Ages, the domain of a family of *condottieri*, the Malatestas. In the twelfth century the Malatestas conquered nearly all the March of Ancona and a part of Romagna, and had a number of strongholds on the hills of the Apennines. The history of this curious dynasty may be summed up in two words—they were brigands and artists. They personified this extraordinary combination of qualities and of vices which gives so much originality to the Italian Renaissance—the love of art and the love of war, unbridled passions and veneration for knowledge, classic tastes and barbarous instincts. Yriarte traces the Malatestas as far back as 1130. The true founder of the dynasty was Malatesta of Verucchio, the first Guelf chieftain of the Romagnas, who lived a hundred years, and was stigmatized in Dante's Ghibelline verses. The eldest of his sons was the murderer of Francesca da Rimini and of his own brother, Paolo (*il Bello*). The successor of the murderer (surnamed *il Sciancato*, the lame) was the Malatestino del Occhio, of whom Dante says:

> "E 'l mastin vecchio e 'l nuovo da Verucchio,
> Che fecer di Montagna il mal governo,
> Là, dove soglion, fan de' denti succhio."

We cannot follow Yriarte in the genealogy of all the Malatestas, of the lords of Pesaro, of Rimini, of Fano. The branch of Rimini soon became the most important. In the year 1400 we find Rimini already a great centre of art. Carlo Malatesta, though a *condottiere*, surrounded himself with artists. He gave employment to Ghiberti, who afterward made the famous doors of the Baptistery of Florence; he founded the first Italian Academy; he himself painted miniatures on manuscripts. Rimini became very prosperous under his administration. His successor forms an exception in the family; he is called Galeotto the Saint; he had ascetic tastes, and entered the order of the Franciscans. The nephew of Galeotto, Sigismondo, is the most famous of all the Malatestas; he was one of the greatest warriors of his time, and was also one of the most active supporters of the movement of the Renaissance in favor of the classic and of the Latin and Greek writers, who during the Middle Ages had been despised and forgotten. "Of all the princes of the fifteenth century," says Yriarte, "he represents best, perhaps, the tendencies of an epoch during which, under the high culture of the early Renaissance, appears still the man of the Middle Ages, with his rudeness, his brutality, and his indomitable character." Sigismondo was brave, handsome (as his medals well show), eloquent; he seemed to be made of iron, and knew not fatigue. He was violent, heroic in battle, always ready to use a sword or a poniard, in peace as well as in war. He had the soul of a bandit, and his frantic desires knew no bounds. Some of his crimes are so dark that they cannot be told here. At the same time, this slave of the senses was the slave of art; he positively worshipped philosophy, poetry, architecture. He was like a pagan among Christians—faithless, without conscience, without pity. His enemy, Æneas Piccolomini, who became Pius II., accused him of heresy for having raised a pagan monument, wherein no statue, no image, no inscription, nothing alluded to the Deity. Pius II. wrote, however, about him that "he knew all antiquity, was very advanced in philosophy, and seemed born to do all that he undertook." Burckhardt says of him: "Audacity, impiety, military talent, refined intellectual culture—how many qualities and gifts were united in that one man!" This born rebel, this man overflowing with criminal passions, was beloved by the soldiers, by the people, and by his own family. His life reads like a novel; it is almost unreal. He seems too gigantic for the small proportions of the towns and the provinces where his intense activity was spent.

The name of Sigismondo will always be connected with the name of Isotta. She was the daughter of a merchant; a musician, a poet, an artist. Sigismondo fell in love with her, wrote verses for her, which Yriarte has found in the Vatican Library. He was married twice, but did not conceal his passion for Isotta. His court poets had to sing her charms; his artists had to paint her, to make medallions of her (these medallions are extremely interesting as monuments of art), or busts, or statues. In all these representations Isotta does not appear a great beauty. She was intelligent; she lived in the constant study of history, of philosophy, of poetry; she was a friend rather than a mistress, an Egeria rather than a Delilah. Pius II. speaks of her as a superior woman. After many years she finally became the legitimate wife of Sigismondo.

The campaigns of Sigismondo Malatesta interest us less at the present time than the monuments he has left behind him. The most extraordinary is the "Temple of the Malatestas," otherwise called San Francesco. An inscription in Greek on one of the pillars of the façade says that "Sigismondo Pandolpho Malatesta, son of Pandolpho, having safely emerged from the frequent and serious dangers which threatened him during the wars of Italy, in which he operated with as much energy as luck, vowed, in the midst of these conflicts, to build a temple to the Immortal God in the city of Rimini. He erected it with a generous munificence, and left in this world a very illustrious and holy memory." San Francesco is now the cathedral of Rimini, but it has preserved its character as a sort of temple and Pantheon, as it contains the tombs of all the Malatestas and of all the scholars and poets of the court of Rimini in the fifteenth century. It is certainly one of the most curious monuments of Italy. Its principal architect was Leon Battista Alberti, who used an ancient church as a frame, and surrounded it, as it were, with a marble envelope, thus taking a monument of the thirteenth century, belonging to the Franciscans, as his framework for a temple of the fifteenth century. Alberti is well known by the numerous works which he executed for the Medicis and for the popes. He was a writer as well as an architect, and, being a man of very high culture and of a great family, he was intimate with the greatest men of his time. In the Temple of the Malatestas he showed the Italians the first façade executed in what is called the style of the Renaissance. He forsook Gothic forms and returned to the models of antiquity, inspiring himself with the lines and forms of the arch of Augustus, which is seen on the Via Flaminia. The ornamentation was new, personal, and original; it showed the ciphers of Sigismondo, of Isotta, the rose and the elephant of the Malatestas, crowns of flowers and fruits, garlands and ribbons, reminding the spectator of the crowns of the old Greek temples. This great simplicity of form, allied to rich and almost profuse details, was something quite new at the time, quite different from what was seen in the basilicas of the Middle Ages. The interior of the Temple has the same character—simplicity of form, nothing but circles and straight lines, and with this an extraordinary wealth of details, all peculiar and expressive, having a personal character, without any monotony. There are eight chapels; each is a work of art in itself. Their sculptures are allegorical, are a mine of symbols and emblems, and are in the highest degree expressive and suggestive. They are now almost the only archives of this great family of the Malatestas; the only monuments of past greatness, of military glory; the only relics of hope and of ambition.

Yriarte enters into the most minute description of these monuments. The illustrations of his work make them appear again under our eyes, sometimes with details which it is difficult to perceive in the Temple itself. But what can give the general impression of this holy place of Italian art, with its fine marbles softened by age, its innumerable shades, its harmony of lines and of proportions, its rich simplicity? Outside, under the exterior arcades of the outer wall which surrounds the shell of the thirteenth century, are sarcophagi of the most simple antique form, the tombs of the philosophers, the poets, the artists of the court of Rimini. Among the number are Basinio di Basanii, a poet and pensioner of Sigismondo; Giusto de' Conti, the author of the 'Bella Mano'; Gemistus Pletho, a Platonian philosopher; Roberto Valturio, the author of 'De Re Militari,' and some others, who were doctors or philosophers.

The end of Sigismondo's life was troubled with many wars. He died at the age of fifty-one years, the victim of his ambition, having lost nearly everything but Rimini, and having had to fight in turn or together nearly all the princes of Italy. His successors slowly sank to the rank of private noblemen, and did not succeed in establishing independent duchies. Venice was too near and too powerful; the court of Rome was too ambitious. Rimini was so placed that it could not long remain a centre of sovereignty. Posterity must remember this extraordinary family of the Malatestas, equally remarkable for their soldierly qualities and for their enthusiasm for the fine arts. They are, with the Sforzas, the Medicis, the Estes, typical; they mark a moment in the development of civilization. They are in Italy what the last Valois afterwards were in France.

Correspondence.

THE PROGRESS OF "READJUSTMENT" IN VIRGINIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To the Northern Republicans who honestly think that the dominance of the Readjuster, or "Liberal," party is a blessing to Virginia, I would, through the *Nation*, make a statement of facts as calm and dispassionate as possible.

This party, since coming into power, has clearly shown its policy, and has vigorously executed it. It has given to West Virginia one-third of Virginia's entire debt, and has lopped off one-third of what remains. It has fulfilled none of its promises of retrenchment *except with regard to*

the debt. When a Debt-payer was Governor, it passed a bill abolishing the office of Governor's Clerk, and Governor Holliday had to pay his clerk from his own pocket; but no sooner does Governor Cameron come in than it gives him an appropriation for his clerk and $10,000 for refurnishing the gubernatorial mansion. In other appropriations it has shown how little it cares for saving public money, and how well it takes care of its own.

It has turned out of office every man whose political tenets do not conform to its creed. The guillotine in France was not more deadly or far-reaching than is political beheading under order of our Marat. We are not surprised, knowing the civil-service system of our land, when postmasters and clerks are dismissed for political reasons; but what have we to say when educational boards, college professors, and judges are removed to make way for partisans? A bill, recently passed, declares the boards of the Virginia Military Institute and of the Lunatic Asyiums vacant on the 2d of March, next following. The members of the board of the Virginia Agricultural College have already been removed and replaced by Readjusters, who, with unseemly haste, met and dismissed President Buchanan, late of Vanderbilt University, and a former president at Emory and Henry College in this State, to make way for a gentleman who saw the hand-writing upon the wall, and at the eleventh hour became a convert to Readjustment. In the few short weeks of their rule the board have dismissed three professors of this college. A bill is at present before the Legislature to appoint a new board of visitors for, and to reorganize, the University of Virginia. Is not this state of affairs alarming—not to office-seekers of the other party alone, but to every one who loves a pure and just government? Are we as a people becoming so indifferent to the fundamental principles upon which our free institutions rest that we will approve of such means if only they be used by *our* party?

But while this state of affairs is bad enough, the present condition of Virginia is worse. Scores upon scores of judges have been and are being removed from the bench, and their places are being filled with not only partisan, but ignorant men. The Readjuster party has not the material in its ranks to fill with competent persons the vacancies it creates. Here in Albemarle County, which contains the University of Virginia and the homes of Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, and Wirt—which has between twenty-five and thirty thousand inhabitants, a large percentage of whom are highly-educated people, and at whose bar about thirty lawyers practice—not one man with even a general education could be found in the party to fill the judgeship; and to this position was elected a man who was qualified neither by abilities nor by attainments. Our Constitution provides that such a judge shall be "learned in the law," and yet the Judge of Albemarle County had not so much as read a page of Blackstone in his life when elevated to the bench. We considered ourselves fortunate, however, in getting him, as he is an *honest* man; for the person whom the Readjuster caucus had nominated before him was of a character more fitting culprit than judge. The representative from this county had evidence on the floor of the House to show that he was a *horse-thief*, and I will do the Legislature the credit of acknowledging that when this fact became known they dropped him, and they then gave us the present incumbent. I use my own county as an illustration; other counties are not so fortunate as Albemarle. These are but a few of the facts that might be mentioned, and they may be easily verified. Do they not sound strangely?

There was a time in Virginia when the petition of a large majority of the citizens of a community had some weight in the appointment or election of its public officers. Now we know nothing but the absolute power of a sole dictatorship, and, in addition to the stigma of dishonesty, Virginia has to suffer the curse of an ignorant and too often unscrupulous judiciary.

DAYLESFORD.

CHARLOTTESVILLE, VA.

SHALL THERE BE AGNOSTIC CHURCHES?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your editorial article on Agnostic Churches you say: "All attempts to build up an agnostic church are futile." With all due respect, it seems to me that neither is your conclusion correct in reason nor does it coincide with our actual experience. For twenty years Mr. Frothingham was the "priest" of an agnostic church. Mr. John W. Chadwick, of Brooklyn, has preached agnosticism for years. Mr. Conway, of London, has done likewise. I believe that the late Mr. John Weiss was, during his lifetime, an apostle of agnosticism, and the members of his society were his disciples. Other illustrations might be given of agnostic churches—agnostic practically if not nominally—which have flourished and prospered in this country and in England. But we claim that, even though not a single agnostic church had ever existed or does now exist, that fact would not establish the futility of all attempts to build up such a church. True, if we base our argument on that which was expounded by Mr. Miln in his last Sunday's discourse, we candidly admit that the conclusion would be irresistible that agnostic churches cannot be established. In other words, if in such churches we are to meet for ethical culture, then we agree such churches have no logical right to exist. Mr. Miln, in last Sunday's discourse, started out to say that all beliefs owe their origin to the religious sentiment. He said, too, in almost the exact words of Mr. Herbert Spencer, that the religious sentiment is a constituent part of man's nature. Now, had Mr. Miln carried out this idea to its logical conclusion, he could not have prophesied that the religion of the future would only concern itself with ethical culture. If his premises are correct, then the religion of the future must be a product of the religious sentiment, and must concern itself with the cultivation of that sentiment. For, necessarily, as long as the religious sentiment remains, there must be a religion to correspond with the sentiment. Ethical culture, however, has different functions than religious culture. The one appertains to what our conduct should be toward ourselves, our family, and society; the other to the relation existing between the mind of man and that inscrutable Power which lies behind phenomena and passeth all understanding.

And now, Mr. Editor, why can there not be builded agnostic churches whose function it shall be to cultivate the religious sentiment, which is said to be an attribute of all men? Why can there not be preachers whose duty it shall be to speak of the transcendent Mystery, and to cause men to forget their petty cares and strifes while dwelling upon a contemplation of that Mystery? You say yourself that "it is a strong proof of the deep hold which religion has on our race that an Englishman or an American will do almost anything rather than cease to talk or to think about matters of which he believes himself to know nothing." You will certainly admit that talk and thought on such matters conduce to the culture of men, and if yea, why should these Englishmen and Americans not meet once a week in some common place and there indulge in talk and thought on such matters, or rather there listen to the talk and thought of some refined and cultured preacher of such matters? The "common place" would be a church. Such churches do now exist, and they do much toward making their members better and nobler men.

AGNOSTIC.

NEW YORK, February 21, 1882.

[Our correspondent is either mistaken about Mr. Frothingham and Mr. Chadwick, or about the meaning of the term "agnostic." Mr. Frothingham's church was certainly not agnostic. He professed to believe in and address in prayer, if not the Christian God, "an intelligence at the heart of things." So, we believe, did Mr. Chadwick. When they prayed they prayed to something or somebody. A genuine agnostic does not occupy himself with anything supernatural, because he knows nothing about the supernatural. What can "the religious sentiment" be in a man who has no religion except a sense of the mystery which surrounds life; and if this mystery be "transcendent," which we suppose means insoluble, how can a genuine agnostic either preach on it or listen to preaching on it? The essence of agnosticism consists in the abandonment of all attempts to know the unknowable. A person who "tried to forget his petty cares and strifes in contemplating Mystery" would be doing the very thing which the agnostic creed forbids, and if he were a genuine agnostic would get no good out of it. The contemplation of mystery as mystery is not recommended by any church. Christians contemplate mystery because it increases their reverence and admiration for God, but it can have no such effect on an agnostic. To him the whole world is a mystery which he cannot solve, and which it would be sheer waste of time to keep thinking about.—ED. NATION.]

COLLEGE DISCIPLINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You admit that the elective system as respects college studies may be carried to an extreme. I would add that perhaps our more conservative colleges are as near the true "between" ground as those which change more rapidly.

You also think the ordinary American college does not give the discipline as to the need of which you agree with me. I reply, it does in part—it makes some approach to it; and the smaller college more than the larger, and the conservative much more than the more changeable. This, I think, will hardly be denied by one who knows.

Respectfully, C. W. CLAPP.

GODFREY, ILL., Feb., 1882.

HUNGARIAN MUSIC.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your issue of January 19 contains among the "Notes" the following statement: "Those wild and unmethodical Hungarian pieces which, according to Liszt, *his countrymen owe to the Gypsies.*" I read a similar statement in *Harper's Weekly* of Oct. 4, 1881.

Both your and *Harper's* correspondent may have heard of or read Liszt's 'The Gypsies and their Music in Hungary,' but, not having continued their research further—not having read the numerous comments on this work published in France, Germany, and Hungary—have been misinformed. Liszt published the above

work in French in 1859, and it was translated into German and Hungarian. The *Revue des Deux Mondes* at once took notice of it, and through this medium its contents became known the world over.

Liszt, who spent most of his lifetime in Germany, and was unacquainted with the present of Hungary, and more so with her past, wrote history founded on hearsay, to suit his own fancy. The world, judging by appearances, accepted his statements as facts. Was not the author one of the greatest piano-performers? Should not he who gained laurels all over Europe with this same music—himself of Hungarian descent—be a trustworthy judge, thoroughly posted on the subject? The information conveyed by Liszt's work "seemed" to prove that "Hungarian music is not Hungarian, but Gypsy, music."

This unfounded, audacious assertion was the more painful to the Hungarians as it was uttered by a compatriot who would have been the pride of any European nation, and was pronounced at a time when the Bach Government had deprived them of their constitution, and destruction threatened even their nationality. The Hungarian daily press rose up against it with a unanimous outcry; many a writer grasped the pen and took part in the strife with historical data, arguments, witticisms. Two pamphlets, one written in German by Alexander Czeke, the other by the Transylvanian savant Samuel Brassai, written in Hungarian, investigated the matter thoroughly: the first from a musical point of view, the latter in its relation to the language and people of Hungary; both proving Liszt's fallacy. Stephen Bartalus also wrote several vindicatory articles in the *Budapesti Szemle*, and the matter is at this day not one of belief, but of facts. After being long dropped by Hungarians, as a question thoroughly drained and settled, Alexander Bertha again brought it to public notice, as late as 1878, in an able article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (for August 15). Bertha says:

"Any one unacquainted with Hungarian music can hardly delineate the talent of the Gypsies. Even when they play well-known pieces, waltzes and marches, their performance is so peculiar in character that we forget to apply the regular rules of art. The appearance of a Gypsy band without notes, the unusual sight of the E-flat clarinet and cymbal, the unquenchable fire of their performance—all tend to keep the listener from analyzing the causes of the effect. If we add to these surprising peculiarities the novelty of Hungarian music to foreign ears—a music that differs widely in metre and accent from that of the Indo-Germanic tribes—we shall understand how the mistaken ideas arose in regard to the Gypsies. The wrong belief took root this way: excluding the well-known dance-music and operas of the present, whenever the Gypsies played that strange music, they were supposed to improvise—to give full play to their fancy—and these improvisations were called Gypsy music. The truth is, that the Hungarian Gypsy's occupation is the playing of Hungarian music.

"Old authors, mentioning the intrusion of Gypsies in Europe, describe all their qualities—which do not differ from their present attributes—but are unaware of their musical faculties. The Russian 'Bohemian,' the Spanish 'Gitano,' the English 'Gypsy' are of the same origin as the Hungarian 'Czigány'; their origin is clad in the same shadowy mist. In their main traits they even to this day resemble each other; but those strains they never knew, nor did they ever improvise—nay, most of them have no talent whatever for musical performance.

"How did the Gypsy turn into an artist in Hungary? No question is easier to answer. They accommodate themselves everywhere to their surroundings. In sensual Russia they display their wives' charms; in superstitious southern Europe they are conjurers, sorcerers; in England fortune-tellers; but nowhere have they formed such perfect music-bands as in Hungary, because they found music in no country such an indispensable public want as in Hungary.

"It might be brought up as a counter-argument, that the Russian, Spanish, and English Gypsies introduced the same music in those countries, but not finding a soil as proper for its improvement dropped it; while the Hungarian Gypsy could not fail to cultivate it in a country whose people did not sheathe their sword for centuries. Art was similarly upheld in Rome by Greeks; the Greek genius became rejuvenated in Rome in all the different arts indispensable to a public which had no room for the development of Roman art. This is the case in Hungary.

"Two undeniable facts counterbalance this erroneous supposition. To make the comparison possible, it should be proved that the Hungarians had no music before the intrusion of the Gypsies, just as the Romans had none except the Greek. Furthermore, the difference in character between the poetry of the Hungarians and the music of the Gypsy would have to be shown up.

"In regard to the first, we know that it is said of Attila, the savage ancestor of the Hungarians, that he loved to hear his musicians during his plain meal; we know that much later Árpád, the conqueror of Pannonia, drew water from the Danube for his offerings with an upturned hunting-horn; we know that at a contest of artists at the Wartburg in Thuringia, the lyre of the Hungarian Klingsor won the first prize. At the time of Sigismund, when the first Gypsies made their appearance, they are not spoken of as musicians. Their place is taken by the national poets, the so-called 'hegedüsök.' On the other hand, it was the Italians who were attracted by the liberality of Matthias Corvinus, whose song filled the cathedrals and seasoned the feasts. All this tends to prove that art was never neglected in Hungary; that the Gypsies found a proportionately developed art, which had taken deep root in the national soil. It were hard to believe that the Hungarians, who cling so tenaciously to their customs and laws, should have abandoned their music, to accept that of a race employed only in the meanest labor and lowest trades.

"In regard to the second, the proof is yet more obvious, no matter whether we consider the older or the newer Hungarian literature.

"We notice at once that the popular school, which in Hungary is the same as the French romantic school, and goes hand in hand with the music, has suppressed the classic and West-European poetical forms. This result cannot be attributed to Petöfi's and Arany's genius alone. Their main merit is to have expressed their ideas in rhythms best suited to the language and music. They have led Hungarian literature back to its original sources—we might say to those of the whole Finno-Ugric race, to which the Hungarians belong—the historical evidence of which is found in the choriamb (—∪ ∪—) metre of the Finnish epos 'Kalevala,' which Petöfi and Arany reinstated, and which we find constantly recurring in Hungarian music played by Gypsies."

Bertha gives a very complete sketch of the development and progress of Hungarian music. For fear of taking up too much of your valuable space, I must refer your readers to the article mentioned, and add that while it is painful to every nationality to be deprived of its righteous claims, to be misrepresented before the world, it is doubly so to a Hungarian, who knows how little his country can boast of compared with some others, and who daily meets with strange misconceptions of its character, nationality, history, and literature.

JAMES S. FRIEDLÄNDER.

TOLEDO, O., January 23, 1882.

Notes.

ROBERTS BROS. have in press 'Sonnets and Canzonets,' by A. B. Alcott, mainly, we are told, composed during the past two years, or since the author's eightieth birthday.

We learn from the Boston *Advertiser* that J. R. Osgood & Co. are to be the publishers of the new 'Poole's Index,' and that the printing will be begun in April. The *Advertiser* notices from advance sheets that "under the heading *Women* there are references to nearly two thousand articles," and that "apparently no other subject has been so prominent in the periodical writing of the last half century." The fact here pointed out may be both true and significant; but is the *Advertiser* sure that "natural selection" had nothing to do with the proportion in this Index? It must be remembered that no periodical was indexed exhaustively, and that, to their credit be it said, a large share of the task of choosing and cataloguing fell to women.

The late Rev. Samuel Johnson, of Andover, Mass., who, by the way, was the author of several hymns of more than ordinary merit, was engaged upon the third volume ('Persia') of his 'Oriental Religions, and their Relation to Universal Religion.' We are unable to say what stage had been reached in its preparation, or in what condition his papers are left.

The little volume of 'Three Christmas Sermons,' preached by sons of the late Leonard Bacon on the day following his death, will be prized not least for the characteristic albertype portrait of Dr. Bacon which faces the title-page. The publisher is Edward P. Judd, New Haven.

Mr. Charles Welsh, whose facsimile edition of 'Goody Two-Shoes' proved so great a success last year, is preparing for publication, through Griffith & Farran, London, a life of John Newbery, Goldsmith's publisher, and otherwise an eminent member of the book trade of the last century.

The fourth number of vol. ii. of *Appalachia* (Boston: W. B. Clarke & Carruth) is dated December, 1881, and has a prosperous thickness. The contents are varied: a magazine article on Lake Dunmore and Vermont Midlands, illustrated by a very pretty albertype copy from a water-color; a practical description of routes to Mt. Ktaadn, with a very helpful map; the hitherto inedited diary of Captain Samuel Willard's scouting-party's journey across from the Pemigewasset to the Saco in the autumn of 1725; a second paper on geodetic formulæ; the proceedings of the Appalachian Club, etc.

The library of the New England Historic, Genealogical Society in Boston has nearly doubled in the past eleven years, and now embraces more than 17,000 volumes and nearly 55,000 pamphlets. Already there is urgent need of enlarging the premises to meet this increase.

An interesting document is published in the October-December issue of vol. xviii. of the Essex Institute Historical Collections—the circular letter, namely, issued in 1830 for the formation of an Essex County (Mass.) Lyceum. While the lyceum did not perhaps originate in this county, it there acquired its greatest development and became the parent of our present lecture system—an almost unrecognizable offspring.

Parts 8, 9, 10 of the new 'Brockhaus' Conversations Lexikon' (New York: L. W. Schmidt) carries on the work as far as *Angelfischerei*. The three maps, of excellent workmanship, represent South Africa and Madagascar, Algeria and Tunis, and Ancient Egypt; while the illustrations relate to angling, American races, and machinery.

We lately referred to Mr. John H. B. Latrobe's address on "The Capitol and Washington at the Beginning of the Present Century," as printed in the *American Architect*. It has now been put in pamphlet form (Baltimore); and though we miss some of the ground-plan illustrations, we have by way of compensation the famous cornstalk columns and maize and tobacco capitals designed by the writer's father for the Capitol.

No. 19 of the series of "Scientific Worthies" commemorated by *Nature* with biographical sketch and portrait is Baron Nordenskjöld, whose fine face adorns the issue for February 2.

No. 96 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Zeitschrift* contains the usual exhaustive bibliography by Dr. Koner of the geographical publications of the past year.

The specimen number of Richard Oberländer's 'Fremde Völker' (Leipzig: Klinkhardt) promises, in regard to numerous semi-civilized, barbarous, and savage nations, a wealth of new paper and old wood-cuts, with a text which is merely a reduction of ordinary literary stock into a form suitable for the drawing-room table. The cuts are ancient and good, and in this case illustrate the author's remarks on Buddhism. Having had their first avatar in Humbert's 'Japon Illustré' a dozen years ago, they have transmigrated into every European country, and are continually coming to new births on both sides of the Atlantic, tenanting a new body annually or oftener. It is nearly time they found *Nirvâna*, since the motive of existence for most of them has long since passed away.

—Prof. Charles H. Chandler writes us from Ripon College, Wisconsin:

"Permit me to call attention to two errors in the paragraph concerning Antioch College in the *Nation* of the 16th inst. That paragraph locates Prof. Anthony at Iowa, and myself at Cornell. Prof. Anthony has been at Cornell for some nine years, and I came from Antioch directly to Ripon, a college greatly resembling Antioch as she was in her prosperous days, in respect to size, resources, and work done, but differing in being under the control of Congregationalists instead of Unitarians. Prof. Caldwell, of Cornell, was formerly a member of the Faculty at Antioch."

—It appears from a communication to the Boston *Daily Advertiser* that the death of the late estimable Professor of Chinese at Harvard, Kun-Hua-Ko, leaves his family in a condition which strongly appeals to the benevolent. "There are six children, of whom the oldest is only fourteen; the widow is not fitted by education or experience to do much toward their support, and they inherit no property to speak of." The University does its part by paying the cost of the family's return to Shanghai, and continuing the father's salary until they reach home. Beyond this they have no prospect of a maintenance, and it is proposed to raise a fund, to be held in Boston and disbursed at his discretion by a trustee, which shall yield an income of $300. This sum is estimated by good judges to be sufficient to keep the family in tolerable comfort, and enable them to continue the education of the oldest son, whose knowledge of English must soon qualify him to contribute something to the support of the household. The incident of Mr. Ko's death and burial, with every token of sympathy and respect on the part of his colleagues, must already have had a humanizing effect on those who merely read of it in the public prints. We cannot doubt that there are many who will gladly embrace the opportunity offered, by subscriptions to the fund, to show not only a common compassion for the unfortunate, but a superiority to race prejudices. Money may be sent to President C. W. Eliot, Cambridge, Mass.

—Among the legitimate and gainful results of the Civil War has been the increased importance of the Surgeon-General of the Army, and especially of the duties he performs. Before the Rebellion his functions were, as the name implies, confined to the army itself, and he was often harassed and limited in their exercise; now he is the custodian of public treasures and an indirect conservator of the public health. A great war is a great awakener as well as a great scourge, and, happily for the rest of mankind as well as for ourselves, many of the medical lessons taught by the struggle of 1861–65 were seized by the actors and turned to lasting account. One outgrowth has been the creation of the largest and finest collection pertaining to military surgery ever made. The diseases of armies are copiously spread before the student for his information; allied scientific topics also are practically illustrated, and the combined series, constantly increasing, now number twenty-two thousand specimens. In other words, there are enormous galleries overflowing with material for the most useful medical object-lessons properly arranged and described. The Surgeon-General has also the charge of a public medical library that is the best in this country, and, for working purposes, second to none in the world. It consists of more than fifty thousand bound volumes and nearly sixty thousand pamphlets on professional subjects. This has been collected under peculiarly favorable circumstances, and described with great care and skill by one of the most brilliant bibliographers of the age. The Surgeon-General is also the official custodian of more than sixteen thousand volumes of hospital records, and of immense quantities of original medical data, being the professional papers of the Civil War. These are in daily use for the confirmation or disproof of the numerous pension claims which for years to come must be adjudicated. Valuable as these are for the ends of justice, as historical documents, and for the study of military hygiene, medicine, and surgery, they are quite as important in connection with the general progress of medicine and its relations to the public health. Now, these three precious collections, whose existence affects in one way or another the whole country, are from necessity crowded into inadequate space in a single building—the theatre in which President Lincoln was shot. This, on its occupancy for public purposes, was insecurely remodelled; its walls are weak and out of plumb, and it is not only not fireproof, but surrounded and abutted by inflammable houses over whose occupants the Government has no control. It and its contents have already once narrowly escaped destruction by fire from without, and the whole may at any time be thus destroyed. When destroyed much that is of peculiar value can never be replaced. The Surgeon-General has repeatedly but unavailingly besought proper shelter for these treasures. The matter is again before Congress, and as $300,000 will buy the land and erect a plain and substantial repository, it is sincerely hoped that so modest an appropriation will not be withheld.

—A study of Census Bulletin No. 274, showing the first hundred cities in the United States according to population, reveals just ten cities above 200,000, and ten more above half that population. The names of the first nine on the list represent eight languages, and are measurably monuments of our polyglot origin. New York is English; Philadelphia, Greek; Brooklyn, Dutch; Chicago, Indian; Boston, English; St. Louis, French; Baltimore, Irish; Cincinnati, Latin; and San Francisco, Spanish. If we divide the East from the West by the old line of the Alleghanies, four of the first five are Eastern cities, while of the second five four are Western and one Eastern. Concerning Mr. Gannett's new grouping of our States we remarked (*Nation*, No. 866), that the populations of his five divisions, with the exception of the last, were not very dissimilar. But in regard to their *urban* elements they are quite unlike. In his first division of nine Northern Atlantic States we discover no less than forty-nine of our first hundred cities, while only nine of these (including Washington) are contained in the nine Southern Atlantic States. In his Northern Central group of eleven States there are twenty-eight of our foremost cities, and only nine in the eight States of his Southern Central group. The five remaining cities lie in three members of his Western group. A like disproportion is observable in the total urban population of the various groups. The census of our hundred largest cities was in 1880 a trifle over nine millions (9,076,564), a full sixth, and more, of our entire population. Of this total, 5,214,064 (more than five-ninths) were in the forty-nine cities of the Northern Atlantic division; only 726,621 were in the nine cities of the Southern Atlantic group; 2,250,668 in the Northern Central; 538,883 in the Southern Central; and the remnant, a little more than one-third of a million (846,331), were in the so-called Western department. Thus the urban dwellers in the two Northern groups are well-nigh seven and a half millions (7,464,752), in contrast with one and a quarter millions (1,265,504) in the two Southern.

— Fourteen of the hundred cities are in Massachusetts, twelve in New York, nine in Pennsylvania, seven in New Jersey, six in Ohio. Illinois (including Springfield, No. 100, pop. 19,743) and Indiana have four each; California, Connecticut, Georgia, Iowa, Kentucky, Michigan, Missouri, and Virginia three each; Minnesota, Tennessee, and Texas, two each. The remaining fourteen are scattered (one apiece) among the District of Columbia, Utah, and the States of Alabama, Colorado, Delaware, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Nebraska, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, South Carolina, West Virginia, and Wisconsin. In eight States, Arkansas, Florida, Kansas, Mississippi, Nevada, North Carolina, Oregon, and Vermont, there is no place with a population of 20,000. The largest town in any of them is Wilmington, in North Carolina, with 17,361 inhabitants. Its census number was No. 123, showing that twenty-two places larger than it were all too small to rank in the first hundred. It is further noticeable that our foremost cities are concentrated in a few States. A majority of the hundred, that is fifty-two, are situated in the six States of Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Ohio, and Indiana. Whoever will learn the names of the cities according to the Bulletin arrangement will correct many a misapprehension into which he and his friends have fallen concerning their comparative size. Let him remember that No. 10, New Orleans (216,090), is the smallest city over 200,000; that No. 20, Providence (104,857), is the smallest over 100,000; that No. 35, Toledo (50,137), is the smallest over 50,000; that No. 45, St. Paul (41,473), is the smallest over 40,000; that No. 63, Omaha (30,518), is the smallest over 30,000, and that No. 77, Lancaster (25,769), is the smallest over 25,000; and those six numbers will put into his hand a master-key to the size, both absolute and relative, of the "head-centres" of the whole country.

—A thousand pencils have marked in the third canto of the 'Purgatorio' the sententious saying of Virgil, in doubt as to the way—

"Chè il perder tempo a chi più sa più spiace"—

"For to lose time displeaseth most him who knows most." A singular emendation of this passage has been proposed, in No. 212 of the *Rassegna Settimanale*, by Prof. Giovanni Rizzi. He finds the verse quite intelligible by itself, yet irrelevant to the context, seeming to regard it as an allusion on Virgil's part to his own superior wisdom. He accordingly proposes "a chi più *va*" ("who goes furthest," or, with the strained meaning he attaches to *va*, "who has furthest to go"). This misconception is promptly exposed, and the correction rejected, by two writers in the succeeding number of the *Rassegna*, much in the fashion in which a rash Shakspere emendation is "sat upon" in the *Athenæum* or *Academy*, but with rather more courtesy. Foreign spectators of the controversy will be glad to have the integrity of the verse upheld, and indeed Prof. Rizzi admits that there is no support for his substitution in any codex. Whoever consults No. 213 of the *Rassegna*, by the way, will do well to read, in addition to the

rejoinders of Finzi and Borgognoni, Luigi Morandi's article on the difficulty of translating Shakspere. It is very much enlivened by liberal extracts from Baretti's forcible and *spirituel* discourse, in opposition to Voltaire, written in French in London in 1777, and unjustly forgotten. One of Baretti's theses was that Shakspere could not well be translated into any of the Romance languages, least of all the French ; the corollary being that even to judge him required a "britannization." This was developed with great ingenuity and critical virility, particularly in regard to Voltaire's implied assumption that no author who does not cut a good figure in a French version can be a great author. Baretti met this by showing how difficult it is to translate the commonest phrases, and, *e.g.*, how different is the conception involved in *Le Roi de France* for a Frenchman and in *Il Re di Francia* for an Italian.

—In No. 821 of the *Nation* attention was called to the *Archiv für Mittel- und Neugriechische Philologie*, published by Dr. Michael Deffner of the University of Athens, and to the contributions therein made to our knowledge of the dialect spoken by the Tsaconians. This interesting people, inhabiting a few mountain villages on the east coast of Peloponnesus, has preserved some peculiarities of the ancient language more perfectly than any other of the modern Greeks. Dr. Deffner has published recently the first part—Phonology—of his Tsaconian grammar ('Zakonische Grammatik,' Berlin, 1881), in which he presents in systematic form the results of his careful researches. All previous attempts at such a work have been either entirely unscientific or generalizations from a few imperfectly-known facts. This grammar, from a firm basis of facts, deduces in a scientific way the laws of the modification and loss of consonants in passing from the earlier stage of the Greek language. Never again can the claim be made that this is a Slavic dialect. The author not only aims to show that the Tsaconians are descended from the Laconians, but even thinks that he discovers from the modern phenomena peculiarities in the ancient Doric dialect of Sparta. The change of initial consonant from Lacones to Tsacones remains, however, without another example to support it. As the author rehearses the losses, gains, and modifications of words which have taken place in the dialect during this century, he emphasizes the importance of doing at once the work on which he is engaged, but makes us wonder that so much should have been preserved during 2,000 years. Many of his etymologies are bold, and some seem improbable, but most follow well-determined laws and are convincing. The ground had to be cleared of considerable rubbish before he could begin a scientific discussion of his subject, but the book as a whole is free from a polemic tone. This is the more creditable, as the author has been pestered with criticisms from men who could not forgive him for living in Athens, and yet believing that the classic Greek language did not have seven signs to express one sound. He touches on this in his 'Grammar,' where he says that the modern Greek has so changed its vocabulary that there is no preponderance of the *i* (ē) sound, although there are so many signs for it ; but that ancient Greek is monotonous and horrible (*eintönig und schrecklich*) when pronounced according to the modern Greek rules. It is strange that the question of pronunciation should so long have continued a subject of acrimonious debate. Dr. Deffner announces a volume of 350 quarto pages in the modern Greek language, illustrated with numerous woodcuts, to treat of the history and topography of the Tsaconian district, and of the life and manners of the people. This is to be ready in May of this year. The subscription price is twenty francs ; after publication the price will be raised to thirty francs. Dr. Deffner's address is Rue de l'Académie 29, Athens.

—Wagner's famous comparison of an Italian opera to a concert in costume was never more literally justified than by the performance on Monday evening of "Traviata" at the Germania Theatre. When Madame Patti appeared in this city some time ago on the concert stage, without costume, tickets were at a discount. Everybody wanted to hear her in opera, and in opera alone. A clever manager took the hint, hired a theatre with its scenery, picked up a few singers and instrumentalists, held a few rehearsals, announced his dates, and everybody flocks to hear "Patti in opera." And yet nobody has heard Patti in opera. Even the uninitiated must have known that no respectable opera company can be formed in a few weeks, and that hardly one of the vocalists engaged to assist Madame Patti is worth a row of pins. Alone, alone, all, all alone, she floated on a sea of monotonous and often discordant sounds, and neither her beautiful voice nor her refined phrasing and perfect execution of florid and melodious passages could arouse any genuine enthusiasm in the audience. There were some calls before the curtain and an abundance of flowers, but no encores; and probably few spectators were sorry when it was all over. The advantage gained by seeing Madame Patti in costume, and by the opportunity of estimating her powers as an actress, was fully neutralized by the disadvantage of having to listen to all the dreary work done by the rest of the company ; and Madame Patti, in spite of her mercenary aims, is yet too much of an artist not to be influenced, both physically and mentally, by such surroundings. The quality of her voice and her style of singing were fully characterized by us on occasion of her first concert, and we need therefore only add a word or two as to her conception of the part of *Violetta*. *Violetta's* name is Adelina Patti, and Adelina Patti is fond of jewels and trailing dresses, and does not succeed in reproducing emotions and pathos in such a manner as to affect the spectator. She is more successful in gay and playful characters than in tragic rôles, although she is said to prefer the latter. One thing we liked about her acting, and that was the absence of that exaggeration and affectation so common to Italian artists ; and she also deserves credit for not responding to ill-timed applause in the pathetic situation in which *Germont* leaves her after exacting the promise that she will renounce his son. Many years ago her friend Dr. Hanslick pointed out to her the absurd contradiction of the "*nuance*" of repeatedly introducing the cough of a consumptive patient while at the same time making a vocal display of the power of her lungs. This *nuance* she still stubbornly insists upon ; but we noticed it only once. Mention must also be made of the marvellous chiromantic powers of the Gypsies who in Scene x. Act ii. foretold the fortunes of *Flora* and the *Marquis* by inspecting the palms of their kid-gloves.

—Mme. Gerster appeared at Booth's Theatre on Wednesday week, in "Sonnambula," as *Amina*, which by many is regarded as her best rôle. The art which enabled her to assume the appearance of girlish simplicity and artlessness in the early part of the opera, no less than the refined portrayal of despair and pathos in the later parts, would have convinced any one not convinced before that she would have made her mark as an actress, had not the gift of a beautiful voice made it incumbent on her to become a prima donna. As Bellini's melodies are a much nearer approach to genuine inspiration than Donizetti's, she had a better opportunity, too, than in "Lucia" to infuse into her notes that emotional warmth which shows that they come "not from the chest alone, but also from the heart." Her vocalization, however, regarded from a purely technical point of view, was in the florid passages open to criticism. Her staccato notes have not the silver-bell purity and bird-like spontaneity of Patti's, nor is her trill so perfect in rhythm and intonation, and her rapid legato passages are sometimes slurred in a reprehensible manner. The fact that, nevertheless, precisely these passages were most enthusiastically applauded, shows how uncritical those audiences are which still cherish the old Italian opera. But we admire Madame Gerster none the less for these shortcomings in the execution of florid passages. These are but the theatrical embellishments of music—the powder on the face of a fair actress. It is the poetic contents of the melodies, their sensuous and emotional beauty that Madame Gerster succeeds in reproducing in a manner equalled by few living vocalists; and herein lies her true greatness. We shall remember three or four of her sustained notes of this evening as among the most beautiful we have ever heard; and we have heard a great many.

—While Handel's oratorio, "Israel in Egypt," has long been familiar to Bostonians through the performances of the Handel and Haydn Society, it had its first performance by the Oratorio Society, under the direction of Dr. Damrosch, on Saturday evening, in Steinway Hall. The greater attention which in Boston has for years been devoted to choral works was probably in some way connected with the inferiority of the local orchestras; but now that New York has been placed on a basis of competition through the rival efforts of the Oratorio Society and the New York Chorus Society we shall probably soon be able to claim preëminence in this department also. The performance of "Israel in Egypt" by the former society was, of course, by no means equal in merit to the recent performance of the "Messiah," since this is a work of which every bar is as familiar to the singers as Old Hundred. The ease and animation that can only be acquired through years of familiarity were absent, and the general impression given by the work was accordingly more wearisome than the character of the music warranted. The most notable exceptions to this statement were the chorus, "He sent a thick darkness," and the one immediately preceding, "He gave them hailstones for rain," which was so brilliantly executed that it was redemanded. In the first chorus of the second part the sopranos were shockingly out of tune, and there were various minor imperfections which it would be tedious to record; but nevertheless, taken as a whole, the performance of this difficult oratorio reflected credit both on the Society and its director. Of the soloists the only ones that deserve unstinted praise were Mr. Winch, from Boston, and Miss Henne. Mr. Remmertz's voice was rough, husky, and forced. The edition of the score chosen for performance was that edited by Mendelssohn in 1844 for the Handel Society in London, with the addition of the three trombone parts discovered by Chrysander and published in a later edition. In spite of the extravagant praise that has been bestowed on "Israel in Egypt" by Chrysander and Chrysanderites, we are not at all convinced that it is an art-work of the highest order. There are indeed in it numbers that rank with the finest creations of Handel and his successors in this department of music. But the first condition of a great work of art is an organic unity—a correlation of the va-

rious parts showing unmistakably that they belong to one and the same tone-body, as is the case, for example, with Bach's Passion music, Beethoven's Fifth Symphony, and Wagner's "Tristan and Isolde." Such an organic unity cannot be claimed for "Israel in Egypt," and it would be very strange indeed if it did exist, in view of the fact that not a few of its numbers were borrowed from other works of a totally different character, whether Handel's own or those of other composers—for Handel, it is well known, was a sort of musical Dumas in the way in which he plundered other people's orchards. In Mr. Dwight's analysis of this oratorio, which was printed at the head of the programme, nothing is so amusing as the enthusiastic language in which this arch enemy of programme music dwells on Handel's success in depicting the "small plague" of the frogs and the flies—a conception which no other composer could have handled "with any hope of not coming off flatly ridiculous." As "Israel in Egypt" is on the programme of the May Festival, more need not be said of it at present. Instead of the whole work, a selection of the best choruses, omitting the others and all the recitatives and airs, would be more enjoyable.

VOLCANOES.

Volcanoes: What They Are and What They Teach. By John W. Judd, F.R.S., Professor of Geology in the Royal School of Mines. [International Scientific Series.] New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.

No phenomenon in nature is so fitted to make a profound impression upon the mind of man as a volcanic eruption. It is a perilous spectacle, but the danger is seldom so imminent as to preclude an appreciation of its strangeness and sublimity. The conditions with which habit makes us familiar are reversed. The solid earth trembles, mountains may grow before our eyes or crumble away, the rivers are liquid fire, the clouds rain stones and scoriæ; and of familiar appearances only the lightning, otherwise so transient, hovers lingeringly about the centre of action in a congenial atmosphere. To the superstitious, eruptions have furnished images of horror which the imagination has been unable to surpass. Reason does not abate, but only gives a new direction to the interest which volcanoes excite in the untutored mind; for eruptions past and present offer almost the only opportunity for direct inquiry into the present condition of the earth at considerable depths below the surface, and of drawing inferences as to the earliest history of the globe. No better subject, surely, could have been chosen for a popular book of science, and Prof. Judd has written one which depicts and analyzes the phenomena in so graphic and vivid a manner that no one, to whom the contemplation of nature is not positively repulsive, can fail to find his interest sustained to the end. The almost certain popularity of the book renders it unnecessary to sketch its contents in detail, but makes it all the more important that the author should be held to a somewhat rigid accountability for the positions he has taken.

In spite of the interest which volcanoes have always excited, it is only within about half a century that any considerable advance has been made in elucidating their nature. Vulcanism embraces three grand divisions: the phenomena of eruptions, which are matters of observation and record; the products of eruption, of which the chief are the so-called "eruptive rocks"; and finally the causes of eruption, which lead to some of the grandest and most difficult questions in natural philosophy. Mr. Judd's descriptions are most excellent. Many of them are from personal observation; and from the large amount of literature on the subject he has selected further illustrations very happily. The least admirable portions of the book are those which deal with eruptive rocks. It is neither to be expected nor desired that the author of a popular book should lay aside his own peculiar views and present a mere colorless report on the opinions of other authorities. But the object of a popular treatise on geology is nevertheless to give an account of the views prevailing among specialists on the subject in hand; and when the author maintains peculiar hypotheses, it should be clearly indicated that he and not the body of his fellow-workers is responsible for them. In his lithological discussions Mr. Judd has failed to observe this evident principle. On page 211 occur the following sentences:

"In the same dyke or sheet, when it is of great width, we often find every variation—from a glassy material formed by the rapid cooling of the mass where it is in contact with other rocks, to the perfectly crystalline or granitic varieties which form the centre of the intrusion."

"One material is found, under varying conditions, assuming the characters of obsidian, rhyolite, quartz-felsite, or granite; another, under the same set of conditions, taking the form of tachylyte, basalt, dolerite, and gabbro."

Taken in connection with other passages (pp. 139–143), it is certain that Mr. Judd means to assert that he has observed, in a single dike, rhyolite passing into quartz-porphyry, and this again into granite. If a reader making his first acquaintance with vulcanology through Mr. Judd's book were to turn to any one of a number of text-books on geology for further information on this transition, he might be startled to find it stoutly maintained that granite is not an eruptive rock at all, but a result of metamorphism at a comparatively low temperature. No question in geology has caused more discussion, or is apparently further from a final settlement, than that of the genesis of granite.

The science of lithology has been revolutionized during the past dozen years by the introduction of the study under the microscope of extremely thin, translucent sections of rock as a working method of determination. Although field observation still is, and must always remain, an indispensable portion of the study of rocks, lithology has thus become a branch of applied physics. Though microscopical lithology is far from a perfect science, it has been so zealously pursued, especially in Germany and France, that very definite and well-established results have been reached. Its students have almost unanimously come to the conclusion that there is a large number of rock types or species of a very definite character, while exceptional occurrences manifest the peculiarities of more than one species, as if they were mixtures. One of the extraordinary facts developed by the study of hundreds of thousands of sections is the persistence of rock types throughout the world to their minutest details. A typical volcanic rock (say an angite-andesite) from the Sierra Nevada is often wholly indistinguishable from a specimen of the same rock collected in Transylvania or in New Zealand, even when the minutest and seemingly most fortuitous points of microscopic structure are compared. This persistence, which extends to all the more important rock species, is far more wonderful than any well-established and generally-conceded instances of mixture or transition. Among such instances is none which compares most distantly with the dikes Mr. Judd so often meets. A dike consisting of granite at the centre, enclosed by quartz-porphyry, and this again by rhyolite, involves no less than five transitions between rocks which elsewhere exhibit well-marked individuality, considerable differences in mineralogical composition, and genetic indications of great diversity. It is evident that only the most skilful application of the most rigid methods of determination will suffice to procure the general acceptance of so paradoxical a result.

The space which Mr. Judd devotes to the subject is unavoidably far too small to permit of the necessary amount of proof, and even the few indications of his methods which he gives do not altogether tend to inspire confidence. He speaks of the union of microlites to "skeletons of crystals," and asserts that, "by the filling up of the empty spaces in these skeletons complete crystals are built up." Skeleton crystals, either natural or artificial, are no novelty, but their endogenous growth is not a familiar fact. Mr. Judd speaks of "embryo microliths and perfect crystals"; and, again, he says, "we have a glassy ground-mass containing microliths (a 'crypto-crystalline base')." It is a pity that these expressions were not more carefully chosen, for they would almost lead to the conclusion that Mr. Judd failed to realize the nature of crystallization, which is a matter of molecular arrangement, not of external form. Nor are his remarks on decomposition altogether satisfactory. If, for example, as he suggests, the absence of leucite in the older rocks were due to the conversion of this mineral into other members of the feldspar group, the secondary feldspar would retain the external form of leucite, and the replacement would not escape careful observation in a moderately well-preserved rock. In short, better sustained as well as fuller proof of the identity of obsidian and granite is indispensable to the acceptance of the assertion as a statement of fact.

Mr. Judd's résumé of the views now prevalent with regard to the condition of the interior of the earth is clear and impartial. The immediate cause of the ejection of lavas, he and others seek in the absorption of different gases, especially of steam, by melted rock-masses. It is well known that certain metals, as well as sulphur and perhaps other substances, absorb many times their own volume of gas when they are fused, and that this absorption is promoted by pressure. When the pressure or temperature is diminished to a certain degree, this gas is again liberated, and often explosively. Mr. Judd cannot be said to misinterpret the general opinion of geologists in asserting that "it is to the violent escape of these gases from the molten rock-masses, as the pressure upon them is relieved, that nearly all the eruptive phenomena of volcanoes must be referred." It is somewhat difficult, however, to account for the relief of pressure, and observers are not wanting who deny that the escape of gases is an invariable accompaniment of eruptions. Mauna Loa, the greatest active volcano of the present time, is said to form such an exception, and some authorities consider the part played by absorbed gas a subordinate one.

The greater number of geologists have held that, while the known eruptions of the present time are confined to narrow vents or chimneys leading to the surface, eruptions in past geological ages have taken place in great part through fissures of considerable length, and have been accompanied by comparatively little explosive activity. The evidence of this is familiar to all who have examined the eruptive rocks of the western portion of this continent. It consists in the structure of the rock-masses and in the comparative absence of pumice, volcanic ash, etc. Mr. Judd's views on this subject are those of an extreme uniformitarian. In his opinion, all eruptions occur on fissures, but these are closed against the passage of ejecta except at certain points. He is, however, wholly unwilling to admit that the conditions now prevailing on the

surface of the earth can ever have varied during countless millions of years, even as to the extent to which volcanic fissures were obstructed; and he ascribes the failure to find the channels which supplied the eruptions of the ancient volcanoes, in the districts where the occurrence of massive eruptions has been asserted, to lack of care in examination. The absence of pumice, etc., he accounts for by denudation, yet the most delicate organisms have been abundantly preserved. Mr. Judd, indeed, states that scoriæ have occasionally been found in the Cambrian; but suppose it granted that there were explosive eruptions in pre-Tertiary times: does that prove that there were no massive outflows?

Geologists often take little interest in mineral veins, which are usually more or less directly connected with volcanic phenomena, and which possess as much scientific interest as economical importance. Considering, however, that Mr. Judd's chair is at a famous mining-school, his few remarks on the subject must be considered as somewhat naïve.

American readers outgrow in their early youth any touchiness with regard to the geography of their native land; but as this charming volume deals so largely in geographical matter, and will undoubtedly go through several editions, it may not be superfluous to note that Baron von Richthofen has written nothing on any region within 500 miles of the Rocky Mountains, and that the Yellowstone Park is a long distance from Colorado. "The great Comstock lode, in the Western Territories of the United States," too, might be more precisely placed; for, great as it is, it does not extend beyond the limits of a single State. Though, as has been explained, Mr. Judd's 'Volcanoes' is not a faultless book, comparatively slight alterations would suffice to correct its errors; while as an animated, and in most respects admirable, account of some of the greatest marvels of nature, it can be read with both pleasure and profit.

MEMORIAL HISTORY OF BOSTON.—VOL. IV.

The Memorial History of Boston, 1630–1880. Edited by Justin Winsor. 4 vols. quarto. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1880–81.

THIS volume completes the most extensive work of local history which has been attempted in this country, the four volumes containing 2,734 large pages, while a space not far from the equivalent of 300 pages is filled with illustrations in the text, in addition to the numerous heliotypes, which increase the number of leaves, and are not included in the above enumeration of pages. The work was completed in print in about twenty-three months from the first organization of the service upon it; and this staff consisted of nearly seventy writers, who, with engravers and printers, acted under the supervision of an editor, who had for counsellors a committee consisting of the Rev. Edward E. Hale, D.D., Dr. Samuel A. Green, and Charles Deane, LL.D.—all well-known historical students. Although Dr. Green has since been chosen Mayor of Boston, the auspices of the city as a corporation were in no way involved, the enterprise being strictly a private one, placed upon its business basis by Mr. C. F. Jewett, who had had some experience in publishing county histories. The occasion of the quarter-millennial celebration of the foundation of the city in 1630, which naturally incited in its people a review of their town's history, the recognition of nearly all the names among its contributors as being those of persons versed in the subject, together with the promise of the first volume, not gainsaid by the quality of the succeeding ones, have all contributed to make the experiment noteworthy; and the sale so far of nearly fifteen thousand volumes, or thirty-five hundred sets, has proved that a sufficiency of buyers can be found for an expensive book which can both create and satisfy a demand.

The auspices were doubtless favorable for making what may be called a new departure in the writing of history. In its coöperative character it was certainly not unprecedented. Cyclopædias, and even histories—like those of counties where different writers undertook each a town—had been tried not infrequently before, and the method was a familiar process. But to arrange the parts of one story so that special study at the hands of a recognized authority should develop this epoch or that episode, and each part supplement the others without essential omission in any, was never, we think, executed before on any scale commensurate with this. To do this, and do it well, required a body of trained writers, each familiar with his subject and not unfamiliar with his neighbor's. It was an advantage, too, that they knew each other in the councils upon historical matters which, under the auspices of the Massachusetts Historical Society, the American Antiquarian Society, and the New England Historic, Genealogical Society, are things of not infrequent occurrence in Boston. It was essential too that, besides having a reciprocal confidence in each other, they should feel a ready dependence upon their editor, even in his moods of heroic intercession, so to speak, and could submit without demurring to his control and direction. It is perhaps not too much to say that nowhere in America so well as in Boston could these conditions be readily found; nowhere else are the ties of literary association, which conduce to it, so perceptible and to be depended upon. Add to this an historical record to be worked over, which is of singular attractiveness, as all records are which cluster about ideas, even though they be unsavory ones (as many of those centring in Boston are to this generation), and we have another powerful help to this scheme.

It has happened that the annals of Boston and Massachusetts have been made conspicuous by a variety of causes. The attention which their own writers have paid to their story, and in no small degree its typical character, have served to produce this prominence. Then again even national events have been closely connected with their local chronicles. It is a clear succession from cause to effect, step by step, which makes, for instance, the Declaration of Independence the sequel of the incipient struggle against prerogative which was heard almost with the first footfall on the Boston peninsula. It may be that Virginia, let us say, sent greater patriots to Philadelphia than Sam Adams, but by him more than by any one else was independence organized. Toleration in Maryland represents an idea dearer to this generation than anything that came of the theocracy in New England, and there was not a little of the light and shade of romance about St. Mary's and Kent Island; but its story does not interest like the Boston story, notwithstanding all that there was of repulsiveness in the latter. And why? In part, doubtless, because it has not been so dwelt upon, and because the number of writers who lead the public have been far fewer in Maryland than in Massachusetts, but largely because of the actors themselves in the two scenes. It all traces back to the schoolmaster. The New England people wrote books, diaries, and letters, and poured their thoughts and manner of living into them, and they have been preserved. It is these things that fill the canvas and make a history interesting—not laws, charters, and official reports. Of the beginnings and progress of Boston we know very much in this way—of no other American city so much. Such, then, were the promises of a proved success.

In noticing the previous volumes we have given some enumeration of their contents, and will do the same by this last of the series. The two divisions of the volume are, first, the continuation of the different phases of the history and life of the last hundred years; and, second, a series of special essays, embracing topics which seemed better treated historically, as covering the whole range of the period gone over in the book, than by divisions of time.

The subject of the social life of the town, following the Revolution and going on through the Federalist period, is taken up by Josiah P. Quincy, and is illustrated by diaries and society-letters now brought out from family desks. The changes which the last hundred years have made in the externals of Boston are traced by Mr. Edward Stanwood, the new editor of the Boston *Daily Advertiser*. Colonel Wright, the State Statistician of Massachusetts, explores the growth of the industries of the later generations. Mr. Edward Atkinson, almost of course, tells of Boston as a centre of manufacturing capital. Charles Francis Adams, jr., traces the somewhat erratic development of Boston enterprise in canals and railroads—slow at home, but pushing at a distance. The monetary leaders in Boston, Messrs. Kidder & Peabody, tell the story of finance in Boston. The changes in methods of underwriting are followed by the Secretary of the Underwriters' Union, Mr. Osborne Howes, jr. Mr. Hamilton A. Hill, formerly Secretary of the Boston Board of Trade, recounts the story of those proud days—not equalled now—when the private signals of Boston merchants were seen in almost every foreign port.

Coming to the "Special Topics," the first is naturally that of "Education, Past and Present," described by Charles K. Dillaway, whose name is associated with the history of the Boston Latin School. The libraries of Boston are followed down from their beginnings by the editor himself. The growth and outcome of Boston Transcendentalism was assigned to the late George Ripley, who was at work on his chapter when he died, and Mr. George P. Bradford has completed it. Mrs. Ednah D. Cheney, the only lady on the staff of contributors, has naturally "The Women of Boston" to discuss. The historian of the Boston stage, and the most devoted of its daily chroniclers, Col. William W. Clapp, of the Boston *Journal*, discourses of the drama in Boston. What has been done in the fine arts is told by Arthur Dexter; in music, by John S. Dwight; in architecture, by Charles A. Cummings; in science, by Professor Lovering, the President of the American Academy; and in medicine, by Drs. Green and Oliver Wendell Holmes. Mr. John T. Morse, jr., brings before us the magnates of the Boston bench and bar; Col. Marshall P. Wilder depicts what Boston and its suburbs showed for gardens in past years, and what contributions to pomological science they have so prominently made; and, finally, the somewhat wonderful story of the "Charities of Boston" has been told by one whose name is linked with the organization of this service in Boston, Mr. George S. Hale.

The same wealth of portraits, views, maps, and autographs as in earlier volumes is bestowed upon this, and a full general index renders all more valuable and accessible.

A PENINSULAR VETERAN.

Letters and Journals of Field-Marshal Sir William Maynard Gomm, G.C.B. From 1799 to Waterloo, 1815. Edited by Francis Culling Carr-Gomm. London: Murray.

Sir William Maynard Gomm lived to the mature age of ninety-one; but in presenting a portion of his letters and journals to the public, the editor has exercised a wise discretion in limiting himself to those which refer to the great Napoleonic wars: "One crowded hour of glorious life is worth an age without a name." In the character of Sir William Gomm himself there was nothing sufficiently remarkable to justify a record of his life; but the first fifteen years of his long military career were passed amid a succession of exciting and perilous adventures, which would give attraction and interest to the most commonplace of men. Entering the army when he was only fifteen, he found himself at the age of thirty Sir William Gomm, K.C.B., and Lieutenant-Colonel of the Coldstream Guards. Those were days of rapid promotion for the soldier who had the luck to carry a charmed life amid the multitudinous perils of the battle-field. Such an one was Sir William Gomm.

His baptism of fire was in the expedition to the Helder, under Sir Ralph Abercromby. He was present at the combat of Roliça and the victory of Vimiera, under Sir Arthur Wellesley. He shared in Sir John Moore's retreat, and commanded the guard which attended when the English General was laid in his last bed on the ramparts of Coruña, and, like all who served under that peerless soldier, Sir William Gomm had a warm admiration for his great and chivalrous character. He participated in the ill-managed and disastrous Walcheren expedition, and after that he was transferred to Spain and the army under Wellington. Of all Wellington's victories in the Spanish campaign, Talavera and Toulouse were the only ones at which Gomm was not present. He was present at the battles of Busaco and Fuentes de Oñoro; he bore an active part in the storm and capture of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajos; he was in the very thick of the great battle of Salamanca; as Quartermaster-General to the division under command of Sir Thomas Graham, he conducted that force through the passes of the Tras-os-Montes, and took a conspicuous part in the crowning victory of Vitoria; he was present during the siege and blockade of San Sebastian, present in all the hard fighting among the valleys and defiles of the Pyrenees; he was at Quatre Bras, and passed, without so much as a graze, through the memorable 18th of June.

Experiences such as these lie so utterly outside of the track of ordinary existence that it is impossible not to feel an interest in one who has encountered them. A man whose business it has been to look death in the face, without quailing, for the space of sixteen years must, we are apt to imagine, have learned many things regarding the mystery of human life from which the world in general is cut off. Actually, however, these expectations are seldom realized in the biographies of soldiers. Nor is this strange. The men in whom the reasoning and reflective qualities are active and strong—who are careful to preserve their individuality, and value independence and originality of thought—are naturally the men who turn aside from a military life as the one, of all others, most unsuited to themselves. It is the active, unreflecting spirits—the men who can receive with unquestioning faith the conventional morality and the popular politics of the time—who accept commissions in the army. They experience no difficulty in making over their consciences to the keeping of the superior military authorities, and are ready to shoot anybody at the word of command, without asking if he has done anything deserving of death. Sir William Gomm was the most amiable and kind-hearted of men in all his domestic relations, but the "horrors of war"—provided that they were perpetrated by British troops—appear to have affected him no more than the firing of so much blank cartridge. It is different when the French are concerned. When they plunder and burn, he is excited to the liveliest indignation, and cries out that "the age of chivalry is gone," and that the French are "worse than Huns," and "have traced back every step that nations make toward civilization." This refers to the retreat of Massena's army from before the lines of Torres Vedras; but subsequently, when he has to tell of the unspeakable horrors which followed when British soldiers were sacking the town of Badajos, he describes them in this delicate fashion:

"Then followed the plundering scene, which was a jumble of all that was horrible and ridiculous. Our soldiers cannot shed blood when the occasion calls for it with half the enthusiasm of other people; but they enter with spirit into every other species of extravagance that they are tempted to by being placed in these situations, and when brutalized by drink they blunder into horrible absurdities."

What Sir William Gomm describes as "extravagance" and "absurdity" is said by the historian of the Peninsular War to have been "shameless rapacity, brutal intemperance, savage lust, cruelty, and murder." The fact was, that Sir William entered into this conflict with the simple and irrational belief that was characteristic of the immense majority of English gentlemen at that time. He regarded the struggle against the French Revolution as a sacred war, in which all the culpability was to be found on one side, and all the virtues on the other. The French Revolution was, in his estimation, simply an outburst of human savagery against a most chivalrous and beneficent order of things, and he appears to have expected to find in each individual Frenchman an incarnation of all the vices and the crimes which he attributed to the Revolution. When he is first brought into contact with this savage people, his surprise is considerable that his anticipations have not been realized. He writes apologetically to his sister upon the subject: "You will," he says, "think me a curious being for making such a confession; but I really cannot help telling you that the lower orders of them (I mean the soldiers) appear to me very amiable. They are civil, obliging, and gallant to a degree, and I don't believe half the stories that are told of them." But the effect of this first *rencontre* appears to have been speedily obliterated. He describes them shortly after as "worse than Huns"; and when he learns that Napoleon has abdicated, and that the Bourbons are about to be restored, his feelings are almost beyond the reach of words. "I have felt," he writes, "as if some piece of great good fortune had befallen me—something that was to brighten the prospect of all my future life. . . . *I think the restoration of France to order, and to its proper political place among the commonwealths of Europe, is like the redemption of man from a second fall.*" The man, said Canning, who says he likes dry champagne is capable of saying anything. The man who could bring himself to believe that the restoration of the Bourbons to the much-enduring French people was like the redemption of man from a second fall ought (to paraphrase a remark of Lord Beaconsfield's) to be made to drink dry champagne for the rest of his life.

It is, however, hardly fair to test the character of a soldier by his opinions on general politics, and, from a purely military point of view, there is much to admire in the character which is disclosed to us in these letters and journals. This is the third biography of a Peninsular soldier which has recently been published. The two preceding ones were those of Gen. Sir Thomas Graham and Lord Clyde (Sir Colin Campbell); and now, comparing the three biographies together, the reader is struck by the various characteristics in which the heroes of them resemble one another. If there were many such men in the armies under Wellington, the secret of his almost unvarying success is in a great measure explained. There was nothing which contributed so powerfully to the expulsion of the French from Spain as the bitter dissensions amid the French marshals. At Fuentes de Oñoro the British army may almost be said to have been saved from defeat by the flat refusal of General Reynier to carry out the orders of Masséna; and Wellington could not have driven Soult across the Pyrenees if Suchet had not obstinately refused to coöperate with or in any way assist his brother-Marshal. This spirit of unscrupulous egotism is at once the offspring and the ultimate destroyer of a system of military imperialism. Under such a system devotion to an individual is made the ruling principle of action, to the sacrifice of loyalty to the country or obedience to the laws; and the consequence was that where Napoleon was not himself present to enforce his authority, each French marshal considered himself independent of any other. The egotism of the master was caught up and faithfully imitated by his lieutenants. In contrast to this, what strikes the reader in the character of the English officers to whose biographies we are referring, is their loyalty to their chief and their unquestioning devotion to the common cause. Wellington could count upon his lieutenants for the execution of his orders with almost the same confidence as if he had been executing them himself—a fact sufficient in itself to double his strength in the field.

In addition to this, there would appear to have been, in the British officer of those days, a simplicity and manliness of character which enabled him to achieve great things without the consciousness of doing anything specially noteworthy. The letters in this biography of Sir William Gomm are letters addressed to his sister. They were written from day to day, amid the fatigues and excitements of pursuit or retreat—fresh from the storming of some fiercely-defended breach, or with the thunder of some great battle still sounding in the brain of the writer. Nevertheless, from the first of them to the last, there is hardly a reference to the part played by the writer himself in the great events of which he was a sharer and a witness—hardly an allusion to the perils he was daily passing through, and never a word in complaint of hardships or fatigue. But he is never slack to express his admiration of others, and here and there we get some interesting glimpses of the "Iron Duke" and the chief among his lieutenants. Of Sir Thomas Graham he writes:

"I dined yesterday at Gallegos with General Graham. I do not know whether I have mentioned to you that he had several narrow escapes at this siege [Ciudad Rodrigo]. All the world would say that he exposes himself too much on all occasions, if he did not make such good use of his time while he was exposing himself. He is one of those men who set us in good humor with ourselves, and with the times we live in, as often as we approach them; and while we honor them for their own merits, we feel a secret pride at the recollection that we belong to the same order of being with themselves, and we are glad to witness the elevation of which our nature is susceptible. This is a safe sort of vanity, and such men do more good among us than they ever calculate upon."

Here is his account of Salamanca:

"Never, I believe, was success anticipated to the degree that it was in the English army when the advance was ordered. Had an indifferent person come among us while the French were continuing the heaviest of their cannonade upon us, and observed our soldiers preparing for the advance, he would have said: 'Whatever these men are going to attempt, they *must* succeed.' The scene, too, was of all others the most animating. The country was such that the fifty thousand men of either army could move in all directions, and from many points be in view almost at the same moment. . . . The destructive fire of the French artillery grew more deadly as we approached it. But the spirit of our people rose in proportion, and when they reached the enemy's solid columns, which opened a fire like a volcano upon them, there was not a moment's hesitation—no check along the whole line, but a general shout of exultation was echoed from all quarters. The enemy wavered, retired from height to height, till at length it was impossible to withstand the ardor of our soldiers, which seemed to increase with every fresh assault, and complete rout ensued. . . . I have told you on other occasions that, if I had any faith in sorcery, I should incline to think that I bear a charmed life. But I do not thank Heaven with half so much fervor for having suffered me to pass without injury through this day, as for having suffered me to bear a part in more than one of the most important of this day's feats."

Major Gomm (as he then was) was attached to the Fifth Division, by which the battle was virtually won. General Leith, who commanded, had his arm shattered by a musket-ball toward the close of the engagement, and regarding him the gallant and enthusiastic Major writes as follows:

"General Leith is surpassing our most sanguine expectations in the promise he is giving of a speedy recovery. . . . At headquarters they are full of his praises; he was the Bayard or Gaston de Foix of this battle, 'the observed of all observers'; he threw a truly chivalrous spirit into all those who were about him. The wits say that while he was advancing he looked like the presiding spirit of the tempest; his division the thundercloud that he rolled after him; and his staff were flashes of lightning that he scattered about him."

The battle of Waterloo was the last of Sir William Gomm's battles. The remaining sixty years of his life and his military service were passed in the discharge of peaceful duties. The last position of importance that he filled was the Commandership-in-Chief of India. His five years' tenure of this charge constituted one of the few and brief intervals of peace which are to be found in the annals of British rule in India. It was destined to be broken by the mutiny of the Sepoy army, and the rebellion which followed it. Sir William laid down his command almost on the eve of this catastrophe, which was as little anticipated by him as by men of larger experience of India, and greater knowledge of its people. He handed over the Bengal army to his successor with an emphatic eulogy on the discipline and assured loyalty of the native regiments. Four months later a small body of British troops were desperately clinging to the ridge before Delhi, and daily attacked by thirty thousand rebellious Sepoys. Sir Charles Napier had predicted this occurrence so far back as 1853; but Sir William was not the order of man capable of such feats of prophetic divination. He was a loyal-hearted, courageous, manly soldier, as these letters abundantly show, but he rose to high command, not in virtue of any natural gifts, but by the fortunate accident of being bullet-proof during a stirring period of rapid promotion.

Social History of the Races of Mankind. Fifth division: Aramæans. By A. Featherman. London: Trübner & Co. 1881. 8vo, pp. xvii.–664.

Mr. Featherman comes to the execution of his ambitious task with decided self-confidence and with a well-defined scheme. Man, according to him, came into existence under varying conditions, in different countries, and at different geological periods, and the race now includes six stocks. The Nigritian arose in Africa, the Melanesian in Borneo and the adjacent islands, the Maranonian (American Indian) in the valley of the Amazon, the Turanian in Siam, the Aramæan (Semitic) in Syria, and the Iranian (Indo-European) in Georgia. He gives no reasons for the adoption of this scheme, perhaps reserving his grounds for a later volume. He has selected the present volume as the first of his series for publication because the Semitic nations and tribes "have already attained a high degree of civilization," and "the work will present a high interest not only to scientific men, but to the general reader; while it furnishes valuable information as regards the Semitic question which has recently been raised in Hungary and Germany." We have been unable, however, to get any light from our author on the "Semitic question," and we fear it is only a painful interest his work will excite in scientific men. His procedure is the reverse of scientific. He makes statements of disputed points with the most assured calmness, without hinting that any doubt attaches to them, and generally without assigning any reasons for his statements. He prefers the term "Aramæan" to "Semitic" as a designation of race or stock, apparently on the ground that the Syriac is the oldest of the Semitic family of languages, which is a grievous misconception. In this Aramæan stock he includes the Egyptians, Berbers, and other North-African peoples, and describes their migrations and early history as if all this was an assured fact. He rounds and embellishes all the early periods into symmetry by ungrounded assumptions.

His book is so far an admirable specimen of what such a book should not be. The execution is, however, unequal. His accounts of modern Semitic and other communities, such as the Nestorians, Berbers, Wahabees, Druses, and Falashas are usually correct, being taken from books of travel, though not always from the most recent authorities; but in the history of the ancient nations his lack of thorough acquaintance with the subjects, and his desire to smooth everything into good shape, lead him into so many blunders that this part of the book can hardly be said to be worth anything. In respect to the Phœnicians, along with a good deal that is correct, we are informed that they were the first race of "Syro-Aramæans" who attained a high degree of culture; that through Cadmus they introduced civilization into Rhodes and built a temple to Neptune; that they formed a new nationality (Carthage) on the west coast of Africa; that they adored the secret and inherent forces of nature, and that their religion at its rise was distinctly Sabæan in its ritualistic forms and principles. The linguistic information that our author gives is quite new and very surprising. The Phœnician alphabet, he says, was composed of twenty-two letters, which were delineated in the quadrate form of the Hebrew type, but it originated with the Babylonians, and the language of the Phœnicians formed a connecting link between the Hebrew and the Chaldee; but, as its literature has entirely perished, the nature of its internal construction can never be known with any degree of certainty. In Assyria and Babylon, he further remarks, two methods of writing were in use—the cuneiform, which was of Aryan origin, and a cursive form, strictly alphabetical, whose characters resembled the Phœnician and Hebrew letters, and were undoubtedly of Phœnician or Babylonian origin. Elsewhere (p. 102, foot-note) he adds that the old written characters of the Hebrew language were partly Phœnician and partly Babylonian, and that the alphabetic forms which have come down to us were introduced only after the building of the second temple, and were in use at that time in the provinces bordering on the Euphrates and the Tigris, and are therefore of Assyrian origin. A greater medley of nonsense it would be hard to concoct.

It is a still graver fault that in our author's account of the customs of the Hebrews he utterly neglects historical progression, leaving the unwary reader free to credit the men who came out of Egypt with ideas and usages that belonged only to the generation that lived ten centuries later. He sometimes attains unconscious humor, as when he says that the Hebrews were distinguished for frugality, sobriety, and temperance (one wonders if he has ever read the Prophets), and that the women were far more addicted to flattery than the men. He gravely states (p. 100), as an inference from Ps. xvi. 4, that they were not permitted to pronounce the names of foreign deities. He identifies (p. 89) the John Hyrcanus who conquered the Idumæans (B.C. 129) with him of the same name who called in Pompey to his aid (B.C. 63). Even where he makes no bald misstatement, he frequently gives a false coloring to his description, and this happens so often that we can only caution the reader against the book. It contains a good deal of useful information, but one must watch for errors on every page.

Coffee from Plantation to Cup. A Brief History of Coffee Production and Consumption. With an Appendix containing Letters written during a Trip to the Coffee Plantations of the East, and through the Coffee-Consuming Countries of Europe. By Francis B. Thurber. New York: 1881. 8vo, pp. xiv.–416.

It is between four and five hundred years since coffee first began to be cultivated in Arabia, and for a long time its production and consumption were confined to that country and Persia. The first coffee-house in Europe was opened at Constantinople in 1554. Another century elapsed before it reached western Europe. "The first coffee-house in London was opened in Newman's Court, Cornhill, in 1652, by a Greek named Pasqua Rossie." The first coffee-house in France was opened at Marseilles in 1671; a year or two later one was opened in Paris. It will thus be seen that two hundred years ago the use of coffee in the countries of western Europe had just commenced. Now the average annual consumption of coffee in the non-producing countries of the world considerably exceeds a thousand millions of pounds. No trustworthy statistics—in fact, in most cases no statistics at all—can be obtained of the amount of coffee consumed in the countries where it is produced. Hence all our statements in regard to the consumption of coffee must be understood as referring to non-producing countries.

The Hollanders are the greatest coffee drinkers in the world, their annual consumption being about 18 lbs. per head of the whole population. The principal cause is the fact that Amsterdam has long been one of the great coffee marts of the world, and, being admitted free of duty, coffee is very cheap. Next come Belgium and Denmark, in which the consumption per capita is about half that of Holland. Next come the United States, in which the consumption per capita in 1880 was 8.8 lbs., in 1881 somewhat less, being 8.4 lbs. per head. By a calculation founded on the data furnished in Mr. Thurber's book, the present consumption of coffee in the United States may be stated at a little over one pound per week for each family in the nation. In the use of tea and coffee the people of England and the United States present a most remarkable

contrast. The annual consumption of the people of England is just about a pound of coffee per head, or about one-eighth of that of the people of the United States. Comparing the consumption of tea with that of coffee, it will be found that while the people of the United States use about five pounds of coffee to one pound of tea, the people of England use five pounds of tea to one pound of coffee.

There are fashions in coffee, as in almost everything. Mr. Thurber gives many curious examples, of which we have room for only one. In his chapter on Mocha coffee he says (p. 62):

"At Aden and Alexandria the coffee is carefully picked over and assorted in compliance with the singular fashion in trade which creates a demand in Europe for the larger beans, while the United States will have none but the smaller ones. In point of fact, the larger beans are the best, being fully developed and more perfect both in appearance and flavor."

The whole amount of coffee consumed in the United States in 1880 was, in round numbers, 440,000,000 pounds. Where does it all come from? Probably in regard to no question of fact is there such widespread popular delusion as to this. If all the retail grocers in the United States were to be asked of what kind of coffee they sold most, undoubtedly a large majority of them would answer, "Java." Mr. Thurber's statistics, taken from the official returns of custom-house officers, afford the means of answering the question correctly. If we include under the general name of "American coffee" the coffee produced in South and Central America and the West Indies, it will be found that in the year 1880, of the 440,000,000 pounds entered for consumption more than 360,000,000 pounds, or nearly five-sixths, was American coffee. Of this enormous amount 259,000,000 pounds came from Brazil; in other words, more than four-sevenths of all the coffee used in the United States is "Rio"; but nearly all is sold and consumed under some other name. Mocha coffee is very generally considered the finest, and large quantities are sold under that name at a price higher than ordinary. The whole amount of coffee imported into the United States under the name of "Mocha" in the year 1880 was 4,535,040 pounds. Of this not more than two and a quarter millions of pounds was genuine, the rest being coffee imported into Arabia from other countries and then exported to the United States as "Mocha." It will be seen that the amount of genuine Mocha imported into the United States is about one pound in two hundred of the total import. Practically this is all consumed in the great seaports where it is imported and in their immediate vicinity. Thousands of retail grocers in the United States sell, and their customers use, what both believe to be genuine Mocha. Yet it may be well doubted whether outside of the great seaports there are a hundred grocers who have a pound of genuine Mocha in their stores. But they may comfort themselves with the assurance that the coffee they sell under that name is, if anything, a little better than the genuine article.

The total amount of coffee imported under the name of "Java" in 1880 was, in round numbers, 41,000,000 of pounds, less than one-tenth of the total import; "and yet," says Mr. Thurber, "the fragrant Java is the favorite berry throughout a large part of the United States, and every storekeeper in sections where it is in favor believes he has the genuine article. If we deduct the low grades of Java imported, we discover that a very small quantity of fine brown old Government Java is consumed in the United States." Nevertheless, the reader may enjoy his coffee in peace, and comfort himself with the assurance that the deception is in name rather than fact, and that the average quality of the coffee used, apart from adulteration with other substances, is quite as good as if it were all truly labelled. We leave statistics with the remark that a little over one-half of all the coffee consumed in the world is produced in Brazil.

Mr. Thurber treats very fully of the adulteration of coffee, and gives many recipes which may be used by dishonest grocers, or by honest consumers who may prefer to adulterate their coffee themselves. There is one absolutely certain rule to follow for those who are willing to buy the adulterated article: Buy handsomely-labelled packages of ground coffee. You will never go wrong: they are, without exception, adulterated. There is only one equally certain rule to secure pure coffee: Buy the bean, and grind it at home, or have it ground by the grocer in your presence. It is of course safer to roast it also yourself, but adulteration of the roasted coffee before it is ground is so easily detected that it is almost never attempted.

We have room to notice but one more point, but that is the most important: how to make a good cup of coffee. Of course a good quality of the coffee bean and thoroughly clean utensils are indispensable. Then there are three requisites to perfection—namely, that it be fresh roasted, fresh ground, and fresh made. Mr. Thurber gives a large number of recipes, accompanied with instructive comments. We give two: Into a large cup of coffee ground moderately fine break one egg with shell; mix well, adding enough cold water to wet the grounds thoroughly; pour on a pint of boiling water; boil slowly for ten or fifteen minutes; let it stand three minutes to settle; pour through a fine wire-sieve into a warm coffee-pot. This will do for four persons. This is the "Thurber recipe." The following method is due to that "king of cooks" Soyer. If simplicity is an evidence of genius, it is worthy of its author: "Put two ounces of ground coffee in a stew-pan set on the fire, and stir with a spoon until quite hot. Pour over a pint of boiling water; cover over closely for five minutes; pass it through a cloth, warm again, and serve."

Mr. Thurber's chapter on the chemistry of coffee contains nothing new; neither does he present any systematic treatment of its effects on the human system. It is, however, evident from scattered remarks, and from his chapter entitled "The Tropics' Best Gift," that he is himself very fond of this "fragrant infusion," and regards its use as healthful. The book contains a great mass of statistics, the more trustworthy because evidently not compiled for the purpose of supporting any particular opinions.

Original Portraits of Washington, including Statues, Monuments, and Medals. By Elizabeth Bryant Johnston. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1882. 4to, pp. xxii.–257. 32 plates (mostly heliotype).

THE first thought suggested by a collection like this is of the small dependence to be placed on contemporary judgments of portraiture. We cannot, indeed, adopt the opinion of any eminent person familiar with Washington's features without rejecting testimony equally respectable in opposition or exclusion. The chances that Custis's and Marshall's and Jefferson's advantages as connoisseurs were outweighed by a natural incapacity for "seeing a likeness," or that Lafayette's ready approval was prompted by the courtesy of his race, combine with the great diversity of the artistic performances themselves to make us doubt whether we can at the present day, by any reasonable induction, determine the real Washington amid so many counterfeits. There is no doubt that in this case, at least, the sculptors are more trustworthy than the painters; and the authoress decidedly pronounces in favor of Houdon's as the standard head. Nevertheless, she herself exhibits very little critical capacity, as will appear from a single instance. What is called the Manley or "Blacksmith's" medal, she says, "demands attention, not only because it was received by contemporaries of Washington as a striking representation of the President, but because it was issued in 1790, and is one of the first medallic works known to have been executed in this country. It is," continues the writer, "doubtless after the head of Washington by Joseph Wright; for the lines are strong and realistic, as was the manner of that artist." Without inquiring whether Wright had a monopoly of "strong and realistic lines," it is to be observed that the three samples of his work here given—a profile drawing and two medallions—are as distinct as possible from the alleged copy, which is strongly prognathous. In fact, if there is any one test better than another of the comparative value of the portraits in this volume, it is the facial angle.

We see this, for example, in the two very interesting paintings made in the same year (1789), while Washington was at the East—namely, Edward Savage's, now in the Harvard Memorial Hall, and Christian Gülager's, now privately owned at Bristol, R. I. There is a strong resemblance between them in the nose, mouth, chin, and in the projection of the lower part of the face, while the total impression produced is by no means the same in each case. These two portraits—with which may be compared for the facial angle the three silhouettes on plate xxi., one being a shadow-picture—we regard as on the whole the most interesting in the book, though Peale's portrait of the youthful Washington (of which a fine heliotype serves as a frontispiece) and the Copley miniature (if it could only be proved to be Copley's) are intrinsically more precious. It appears that the monumental strivings of the American people have resulted in but four equestrian statues of Washington—H. K. Brown's (New York, 1856), Thomas Crawford's (Richmond, 1858), Clark Mills's (Washington, 1860), and Thomas Ball's (Boston, 1869). Of these the first and the last are easily the best.

The various heliotype reproductions are designated by the name of the artist placed below, with a simple reference to the page of the text on which each is described. This seems to us a faulty arrangement, in so far, at least, as the date is not added. In practice we have found it a hindrance to speedy enlightenment, especially as there is no regular or even frequent reference from text to plate. In no one place are we sure of finding date, artist, and present owner explicitly set forth; the table for the plates supplies two of these facts and omits the third. As a rule, the heliotype is from the original canvas, ivory, metal, stone, or paper, but sometimes (as in the case of the Savage Mt. Vernon family group in the Boston Museum) the difficulties of lighting the picture could only have been overcome by electric illumination, and in such instances engravings were resorted to. Whether some such obstacle prevented the portrait in the New York City Hall from being copied, we are not informed. It should be remarked, by the way, that not every portrait catalogued is represented here. Such as it is, with its pleasantly written and gossipy histories and its profuse array of illustrations, this volume will find universal acceptance, and is worthy of the pains that have been bestowed upon it.

The Marriages of the Bonapartes. By the Hon. D. A. Bingham. Two vols. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Harper & Bros.

BESIDES the variety of popular history which is

most esteemed in this country, and which is designed chiefly for youthful readers with no knowledge of the subject, and written by persons who regard the investigations of scholars as either useless or impertinent, there is a kind, written for English circulating libraries, of which the works of Mr. Hepworth Dixon are the best-known examples. The merits of the Hon. Mr. Bingham's book are chiefly negative, but they are sufficiently numerous to make it an unusually good specimen of its class. It is transcribed from works no more inaccessible than the memoirs of Metternich, Madame de Rémusat, Count de Melito, Victor Hugo, and Lanfrey; but the patchwork is very well done, and the style, though anything but careful, is easy. It would be difficult indeed to make a book which should describe the picturesque and amusing incidents with which the lives of the Bonapartes and their dependents teem and not be entertaining, and the Hon. Mr. Bingham deserves credit for giving his readers much less than is usual of what they would have to unlearn. He does not treat Josephine as a martyr, nor blink the eccentric morals of Hortense. But he certainly praises Eugène more than he deserves, and that gentleman would have been surprised to learn that he indulged in no intrigues after 1814. Louis Bonaparte, on the other hand, gets less credit than he deserves, probably because his merits were political rather than personal. The time-honored fables about the Duke of Reichstadt are not repeated, but neither is the well-vouched-for story of the Princess Borghese and Canova. There are omissions of various other interesting episodes, such as Joseph's life in this country; but, to offset this, it should be said that the story of Miss Patterson is well told, and no attempt is made to show that her marriage was legal, or supposed to be legal, in France.

In a work of this kind one must be satisfied with tolerably true outlines, and not look for accurate details. We have therefore spared the reader an enumeration of the incorrect statements we have noticed, remarking merely on the peculiarities of the honorable author's nomenclature, due apparently to the exclusive following of French authorities. "Caspar Hauser," for instance, is more familiar than is Gaspard Hauser, and we fail to see why the holder of a German duchy should be styled Duc de Leuchtenberg, or German castles and mansions called châteaus.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Koolman, J. ten D. Wörterbuch der ostfriesischen Sprache. Part 14, Lomigheid–Muksen. Norden: H. Braams.
Mackenzie, R. America: a History. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
McCabe, J. D. New York by Sunlight and Gaslight. Philadelphia: Douglass Bros.
Metternich, Prince R. Memoirs of Prince Metternich, 1880-35. Vol. iii. New York: Harper & Bros.
Minor, Ellen E. Murillo. New York: Scribner, Welford & Co. $1.
Mollett, J. W. Meissonier. New York: Scribner & Welford. $1.

HENRY HOLT & CO.

WILL PUBLISH SATURDAY:

John Stuart Mill.

A Criticism. With Personal Recollections. By Alexander Bain, Emeritus Prof. of Logic, University of Aberdeen. 12mo, $1 25.

James Mill.

A Biography. By Alexander Bain, Emeritus Prof. of Logic, University of Aberdeen. 12mo, $2.

C F Bickford 2so 27 1882

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The Nation.

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The Week.

MR. CONKLING has now definitively declined, in a letter to the President, the appointment to a seat on the Supreme Bench. This is undoubtedly the most satisfactory conclusion of the unfortunate affair. From the reception the nomination of Mr. Conkling for a high judicial office met with, President Arthur has had an opportunity to perceive that it would have been much better for him to follow the example set by himself in the appointment of Judge Gray, than to make a selection which everybody recognized at once as a political one. Some of the good opinion won by the appointment of Judge Gray and lost again by that of Mr. Conkling the President may retrieve, by now sending to the Senate the name of a jurist whom everybody will recognize as a fit man for our highest judicial tribunal, and whose nomination nobody will suspect of having been made for any other object than to serve the public interest. The nomination of Mr. Conkling has also served to show that what may be called the Garfield feeling, which, whether justly or unjustly, appears to be mainly directed against Mr. Conkling, is by no means dead yet. Neither is it confined to the Western Reserve in Ohio. It cropped out in more or less angry demonstrations all over the country when the news of Mr. Conkling's nomination went forth, and there is good reason to believe that it is just as strong in the rural districts of New York as in General Garfield's native State. The quiet citizen does not shake off strong impressions as easily as the active politician. This would very conclusively appear if, as has been suggested by some, the people were given an opportunity to vote directly for or against Mr. Conkling at a general election. The existence and strength of such a feeling may be deprecated, but it must be recognized as a fact. The talk of Mr. Conkling declining a seat on the Supreme Bench for the purpose of returning to active public life is therefore mere talk and nothing else. The first serious attempt would quickly convince him that his political future lies, for a considerable time at least, in the vast solitude of his grand and desolate self-appreciation.

The floods in the Ohio and Lower Missouri Valleys have passed out of those rivers, doing comparatively small damage, but have concentrated their devastating effects on the greatest cotton-raising region of the Southwest, which extends from Memphis southward to Natchez. Some thirty counties in the States of Arkansas, Mississippi, and Louisiana, bordering the Mississippi, White, and Red Rivers, are more or less submerged. The official reports from the State Commissioners of these States to the Secretary of War show that in these thirty counties there are now about fifty thousand people who have been driven from their homes, and are so destitute that they will have to be fed at the Government's expense for probably forty days. The effects of this disaster upon the next cotton crop can scarcely yet be estimated. The cotton crop of the thirty counties in question is on the average from year to year greater than that of any other thirty counties in the South, and is all of the low grade which makes up the great bulk of the American cotton supply. The cotton crop of all that part of the South is usually finished—or "laid by," as it is called—preparatory to picking, early in July. Consequently, there are only four months in which to repair damages, plant and cultivate to maturity a crop of cotton. The great destruction of fences, houses, cotton gins, agricultural implements, mules, etc., etc., will, in a large area of the flooded country render this impossible, and the yield of cotton from the thirty counties will unquestionably be so greatly diminished as to have an effect on the prices of the next crop.

The indictment against General Curtis for collecting assessments from Custom-house and Post-office employees has been handed into court, and he will accordingly soon be tried. The sums he thus obtained ranged from five to eighty dollars, and presumably came in every case from poor men, and were paid under duress. Not one of these would probably have felt, were he in the employment of a private firm, that he could afford to pay anything toward campaign funds, or at all events so much. Not one of them ought to have had the slightest private interest in the result of the election. No man's bread should be directly dependent on any election, or dependent on it at all except in so far as it is likely to affect legislation. General Curtis's defence is said to be that he is not an officeholder or employee of the United States Government within the terms of the statute, but it will disgust Mr. Thurlow Weed and all the Stalwarts if he puts in any such plea as this. He ought to take higher ground, and maintain, as Mr. Weed does, that the levying of assessments on officeholders is a noble and holy work, and that if it be necessary to suffer for it, he will be proud to do so.

The decision of the Supreme Court in the sugar case is of great importance to those sugar importers from whom the Custom-house has extracted about $1,500,000 of duties, which are now pronounced illegal, and will have to be returned. To the sugar trade in general it is doubtless not of much importance, at least as regards the future, as Congress will probably now make the change in the test of quality which Secretary Sherman undertook to make for himself. But it is of very great importance to the whole community, as a check on the tendency to arbitrary practices which has prevailed in the administration of the customs ever since the war broke out, and which is the result in part of the protectionist prejudice against all importers, and in part of the war-begotten feeling that the collection of revenue for the Government was too important to allow of any nice or delicate consideration of private rights which seemed to stand in its way. The matter, stripped of details, is simple enough. Congress has since 1861 prescribed a mode of ascertaining the value of sugar, which makes the color of the sugar the standard; the lighter the color the higher the value as a basis for duties. In the intervening years, however, manufacturers have managed to make the strength of the sugar, to a certain extent, independent of its color, so that, in short, a dark sugar shall really be as good a sugar as a much lighter one used to be, though still paying the old duty. The Custom-house undertook to meet this by substituting a new test, examination by the polariscope, in order to ascertain the strength of the sugar, and then tax it on the strength instead of the color. The Supreme Court now says that the Custom-house has no right to prescribe a new test, even if the old one is defective, and even if duties are evaded under it. This is the business of the Legislature, not of the Executive, and the Treasury must not attempt to remedy defects in legislation. Consequently all the duties levied under the polariscope test have to be returned, and the color test must still be used till changed by Congress.

The exports of domestic products during the week were not sufficient to furnish enough foreign bills of exchange to meet the demand for remittances to cover merchandise imports and the imports of securities, and the result was that it was necessary to export $2,501,600 more specie, the larger part of which was gold. This brings the specie exports since January 1 up to $11,291,340. At the close of the week the indications were that gold exports for the present were stopped, although the rates current still warranted them. The New York banks, although contracting their credits and reducing their deposit liabilities, again lost so heavily in reserve that they were short by the sum of $2,618,050 of the 25 per cent. reserve which the national banks are by law required to keep. The Treasury, which for a long time has been taking in more money than it has paid out, began about the middle of the week the prepayment without rebate of the $20,000,000 of 3½ per cent bonds included in the 107th call, which matures on the 13th instant. Thus far less than $4,000,000 of these bonds have been presented for prepayment; but the money on this account and for interest on the public debt, of which interest $2,800,000 was due on the 1st, have been sufficient to make the loan market easier for borrowers. During February the public debt was reduced $9,783,511, making the total decrease since June 30 last $97,869,442. At the Stock Exchange there was a strong market for securities early in the week, but later this was lost, and the suspension of the prominent banking and brokerage firm of C. A. Sweet & Co., of Boston, on Monday, added to the prevailing weakness. This firm was clogged with securities of new railroads, and was borrowing between $2,000,000 and $3,000,000 cash on them from the Boston banks; the demand

of the latter for more "collaterals" was the cause of the failure. It is thought that the firm will pay in full, the senior partner being reported to have $1,000,000 outside the business. In the foreign financial markets money is steadily becoming more plentiful, and rates for loans are declining, as is natural after such a collapse of speculation as was brought about by the failure of the Union Générale.

Mr. Miller, of California, made a great mistake in giving his Anti-Chinese Bill a preamble, because it makes the bill a little ridiculous. The bill forbids the immigration of Chinese laborers into the United States, because, says the preamble, "the coming of Chinese laborers to this country endangers the good order of certain localities." In other words, the country which owes a large part of its material greatness to the welcome it has accorded to foreigners, now proposes to pass one of the most exclusive laws ever put on the statute book of any country, directed against one of the most peaceable and industrious peoples on the globe, on the ground that their presence is in certain places likely to cause disturbances requiring the interference of the police. Doubtless Mr. Miller means a good deal more than this—that is, really believes that the Chinese work far more mischief in the United States than is involved in local disorder; but if so, he ought to have put all his fears in his preamble. The United States can hardly afford to put on record that, in order to keep the peace in certain localities, they had to pass a law of non-intercourse with a large and friendly empire. The bill which the preamble suggests would be a bill for the better protection of foreigners against native mobs, either by an increase of police, or an increase of the penalties now prescribed for assault and battery and riot. The presence of free negroes at the South after the war "endangered the good order" of a great many "localities," but no one proposed to meet the trouble by inviting the negroes to evacuate the country, or forbidding the entrance of all colored laborers from abroad. It was met by more stringent legislation for the protection of the blacks against white mobs, and by "waving the bloody shirt" at every election.

Moreover, how can we find fault with the Russian Government for permitting the maltreatment and expulsion of the Jews, if we ourselves proclaim that a popular race prejudice releases us from our obligations toward an obnoxious class in the matter of internal police? The truth is, that the bill is passed to carry out the treaty lately concluded with China for the restriction of Chinese immigration, and that treaty was called for by the hostility of the white population of the Pacific Coast, to the Chinese immigrants, on account of the cheapness of their labor, their alleged immorality, and the impossibility of their assimilating with or being absorbed by the Caucasians and Africans who are already in possession of the country. It is desirable both for our own credit and the truth of history that, in making such a marked change in our policy toward foreign immigration as this legislation involves, the true reasons for it, if any whatever, should be given. There should be no evasion of the real issue, because the legislation in question recognizes in the broadest way the political and social importance of race differences, which all through the controversy over the negroes the Republican party at the North has steadily denied, and insisted that the South should ignore in reconstructing itself after the war.

In the debate on the Anti-Chinese Bill Mr. Farley denied that the Chinese had ever shown any aptness in the arts and sciences or any inventive faculty, and was apparently cornered by Mr. Hoar, who asked who invented the printing press, the mariner's compass, and gunpowder. It seemed at first blush as if escape was here impossible; but Mr. Farley is a man of resource and not to be caught in that way, and he promptly replied that by Chinese he meant the Chinese laborers—in other words, the class whose coming to this country is prohibited by the pending bill. Of course this floored Mr. Hoar, who could not maintain that Chinese laborers had attained to any proficiency in the arts and sciences, and that it was a horny-handed Chinaman who had invented gunpowder and printing and the compass. Mr. Jones, however, got the better of Mr. Hoar more completely, for he denied that the world was indebted for these things to Chinamen of any class; for, he said, the Chinese had stolen them from Caucasian travellers who happened to be in their country, but he shrewdly declined to give the names of the travellers, or to mention the date at which the Chinese had played this trick on them.

Mr. Montgomery Blair has written to Mr. Miller in support of the Anti-Chinese Bill, in the character of a "thoughtful lover of his country," and gives as a reason for not "countenancing this Mongolian invasion" the assertion that it "involves primarily the subversion of our civilization," and says that Mr. Hoar seems "intent on submerging us with Asiatics." A "thoughtful lover of his country" is always a respectable character, though he is sometimes both a blockhead and a bore. But then a well-informed lover of his country is something much more useful. We regret to say that we cannot place Mr. Blair in this last-named category. He has written about "the Mongolian invasion" without knowing what he was talking about. There are, according to the best authorities, not more than 100,000 Chinamen in the United States, and their number has sensibly decreased since 1870, and is likely to decrease. It is not in the power of 100,000 men of any race to "subvert the civilization" of 50,000,000. There has never been anything in recent politics so absurd as the terror, real or affected, about the numbers of the Chinese, except the pretence of the San Francisco hoodlums that they compete with them in the labor market. There is hardly a lazy vagabond or tramp in the United States who does not try to believe that the Chinaman is keeping him out of work.

The Coinage Committee of the House of Representatives have reported a curious bill, accompanied by a still more curious report, on the subject of silver dollars and gold dollars, silver bullion and gold bullion, silver certificates and gold certificates. The bill first makes the standard silver dollar the "unit of value." There is an existing statute, by the way, which makes the gold dollar the unit of value, and this statute is not repealed by the proposed bill. The bill then provides that holders of silver bullion may deposit it at the Sub-Treasury in any amount, and receive "the market value thereof" in silver certificates, in denominations not less than five dollars, these certificates to be receivable for customs duties and taxes of all kinds. Under the operation of this bill, if it should pass, the first question would be: "What is the market value of silver bullion when the silver dollar is itself the unit of value?" Can it be anything else than that 412½ grains are equal to a dollar? Evidently the Committee thought it would be something different. Otherwise they would have said nothing about market value, but would have provided that holders of silver bullion might deposit the same at the Sub-Treasury and receive certificates therefor at the rate of one dollar for each 412½ grains. In order to give any point or efficiency to their proviso regarding the market value of silver, the unit of value must be something different from silver. In making silver itself the unit of value, and then providing for its acceptance at the Treasury at its market value, the Committee have perpetrated an Irish bull of the most muscular sort, and we need not remind them that such an animal is never more out of place than in the public mint. Their ignorance is equally well advertised in the report accompanying the bill.

The exposure of frauds in the government of Philadelphia may be expected to move more rapidly now that the reformers have got possession of the local legislature. It appears from the report of an investigating committee that a citizen, whose tax-bills during the last eight years have amounted to more than $100,000, upon making sale of a piece of property discovered liens for unpaid taxes upon it of more than $750. The citizen produced receipted tax-bills, but the ward collector had returned the property as delinquent. This theft by a minor swindler suggests the possible magnitude of the operations of the greater rings. The Gas Trust has been more than suspected, and the late election was a desperate effort, happily unsuccessful, to guarantee the further concealment of its doings. Philadelphia is sometimes regarded as a jealous rival of New York. In municipal mismanagement she certainly has held her own. In the continuance of outright stealing—as in this matter of tax thefts—she has fairly outstripped us. The fact that Philadelphia is a Republican city while New York is Democratic shows that administrative corruption is not a party matter. In one respect we have had the advantage of our neighbor—or ought to have had. A party in power at the State capital might be expected to exert a restraint upon the opposite party in power in the city, and to expose its shortcomings. As a matter of fact, however, the Republicans at Albany have not held this wholesome relation to the Democrats in New York; and even at this late day the former are found in a real or suspected alliance

with the Tammany ring, which makes any movement for municipal reform almost hopeless, if, as in the case of the firemen and police salary job, it does not actually make things worse than they are.

The list of governments, corporations, firms, and individuals engaged in settling the trouble between Chili and Peru is a long one, but it has been increased during the past week by the addition of Peter Hevener, who "claims" to be the principal owner of both the Cochet and Landreau claims against Peru. This new mediator has intervened in the quarrel by beginning proceedings for embezzlement against Mr. James B. Mantrop in the courts of Pennsylvania. Mr. Hevener, who is described as "a fine-looking man about sixty years old," tells on the whole a very straight though rather pathetic story of his Peruvian adventures. He did not himself invent the guano claims, but "for more than a quarter of a century he was the most prominent and active contractor in South America," which is saying a great deal, but not a word too much when we learn that under his supervision millions of dollars were expended in building reservoirs, driving tunnels, erecting public buildings, and constructing railroads, to say nothing of "laying water-mains across miles of arid plains to the tops of waterless mountains," perhaps for purposes of irrigation; while at one time, in addition to all this, he owned "five wholesale stores" in Lima. In 1840 Cochet discovered guano, and thereby became entitled to the reward of one-third of the value of the discovery offered by the Peruvian Government; but, like so many other discoverers, he never realized anything from it, and died in an almshouse in Paris, leaving an only son, who fell heir, of course, to his poor father's claims against Peru, amounting when he came of age in round numbers to $500,000,000. To this son there now appeared a benevolent friend in the person of Hevener, who advanced him sums of money from time to time to push his claims, when, after $50,000 had been spent in this way, Landreau suddenly turned up, stoutly insisting that it was he and not Cochet who discovered guano—though whether the same guano or some other guano does not clearly appear. At any rate, Hevener, who evidently knows all that there is to be known about the philosophy of claims, came to the conclusion that it was better to lend Landreau money than to "antagonize" him; and in this way he became in a short time the owner of nearly all the Landreau claim. What has become of young Cochet is not stated, but apparently he has no longer any interest in the Cochet claim, which has passed, like that of Landreau, into the hands of the benevolent Hevener. He says that the whole is "ready for collection," and adds: "If Peru is smart, she will pay the $900,000,000" (this probably includes the interest account) "at once, and not allow the debt to accumulate."

It seems doubtful whether the man who fired at Queen Victoria on Thursday really intended to kill her. He says himself that he was led to the act by hunger; in other words, he knew that if he could get himself arrested he would be sent to jail and so get some food. No bullet marks were found on the Queen's carriage. The man, whose name is Roderick MacLean, is described as a miserable looking object, and suspicions of his sanity were at first entertained. He has, however, been pronounced sane by the physicians who have examined him. He is twenty-four years old, and calls himself a "grocer's assistant." His punishment will probably be severe flogging and imprisonment. The affair, of course, has not the slightest significance, and the Queen does not seem to have even been frightened by the attempt. Messages of sympathy have been telegraphed from the Russian, Austrian, and German courts, and the feeling which led to them will be shared by everybody in this country. The event vividly recalls the warm-hearted expressions of sympathy by the Queen herself over the murder of the late President, and would half incline us to exaggerate the danger to which she has been exposed in order that we might the better express our gratification at her escape.

The reëlection of Bradlaugh by his old constituency is an embarrassing thing both for the Ministry and for the Opposition. Mr. Gladstone cannot any longer treat the matter as an indifferent one, on which his supporters can follow their own bent. Bradlaugh at first refused the oath on the ground that it would not be binding on his conscience, but offered and was allowed to affirm. The courts decided he had no right to affirm, and, his seat being declared vacant, he was reëlected. On coming up the second time he offered to take the oath, and said it would be binding on his conscience. But the Tories, and many Liberals, now said: "No; we will not let you take it now, for it would be profanation. What you said about it the first time was true; what you say now is false; besides, you are a wicked man, and we will not let you sit, if we can help it, in this religious assembly, where everybody believes in God and leads a pure life." And Mr. Gladstone said in substance: "This is very silly; you have no right to judge whether this man is sincere in taking the oath or not, and if I were you, I would let him in; but you may do as you please about it." And the result was that Bradlaugh was expelled, and has been a third time elected, and the Ministry must now take control of the matter, either by insisting that Bradlaugh be allowed to take the oath or by bringing in a bill providing a form of affirmation for all—and not Quakers only—who refuse to take an oath, and making its passage a test of their strength. On the other hand, the Tories are placed in the very awkward dilemma of having either to maintain persistently that it is for the majority of the House and not for the member himself to determine whether the oath is binding on a member's conscience, or to acknowledge, by now admitting Bradlaugh, that their previous opposition to him was frivolous.

Lord Redesdale is apparently about to try to settle the Bradlaugh question by bringing in a bill excluding atheists from Parliament. There is not much chance that anything of the kind would pass, even if proposed by a person whose judgment was in better repute than Lord Redesdale's. There are probably no atheists in the House of Commons, meaning by that persons who deny the existence of a God as an article of faith; but there is undoubtedly a very large number of Agnostics, or persons who declare themselves unable to say whether there is a God or not, and a still larger number who are utterly opposed to making professions of religious belief a qualification for office of any kind. In fact, Bradlaugh draws a great deal of whatever strength there is in his position from the widely diffused belief of the public that the House of Commons will not bear examination as a religious body. The House of Lords would doubtless fare better, as far as profession goes—most, if not all, peers feeling it to be due to their position to cultivate a believing frame of mind, and being deeply sensible of the dependence of the throne on the altar. It has always been difficult to get them to agree to the abolition of any religious qualification for office—even that sacramental test which long made it necessary for a man to take the communion from an Anglican minister before he could fill certain places.

Mr. Lowell has got into a "dungeon" trouble with an American Fenian named MacSweeny, who returned to his native country to engage in political agitation, and was arrested under the Coercion Act, and was, when he brought his case to Mr. Lowell's notice, confined in what he called "Victoria's dungeon," at Dundalk. Whenever an American Fenian is arrested by the British Government he is, curiously enough, always put into a "dungeon," the ordinary jail being apparently reserved for British subjects; and when he begins to call for deliverance at the hands of this Government, by the invasion of England, or the bombardment of London, as may be deemed most expedient, it is from a dungeon that his cries always issue. Mr. Lowell's reply to MacSweeny was in substance that when he began agitating in Ireland he was aware that the Coercion Act was in force; that in being locked up, he was, barring the dungeon, treated like the Queen's own subjects, and that he must have known before he began his work the perils to which he was exposed. This MacSweeny treated as the mockery of "an American citizen in chains," and drew from Mr. Lowell's talk the bold inference that he (Mr. Lowell) "held that if an American should in Ireland take part in a public meeting—say a prayer meeting—or engage in a public discussion with an Englishman, or a Frenchman, or a Zulu, he would forfeit the right to an appeal even to the courtesy of the Government." This startling proposition Mr. Lowell did not attempt to deny, but said he had tried vainly to get Lord Granville to let MacSweeny out of the dungeon, or to say why Victoria had put him into it. The result was that MacSweeny passed sixteen months in chains, and naturally feels sore about it, and wishes that some arrangement could be made under which Irish-Americans could go back to Ireland and set the British Government at defiance without exposure to dungeons and fetters.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC

On Thursday afternoon the Senate, by a vote of 39 to 12, confirmed Mr. Conkling's nomination to the Associate Justiceship of the Supreme Court. On Monday the President received a letter from Mr. Conkling declining the office.

It was reported on good authority in Washton on Tuesday that the President had offered the position of Associate Justice of the Supreme Court to Mr. Edmunds, and that he had declined it on the ground that his health would not permit him to undertake the arduous duties of the position.

Mr. Miller's Anti-Chinese Immigration Bill has occupied the attention of the Senate during the week. On Wednesday Senator Hoar delivered a long speech in opposition to the bill. On Thursday Senators Grover, of Oregon, and Farley, of California, spoke in favor of it. The debate was continued on Friday, Monday, and Tuesday. The Senators from the Pacific slope are all in favor of the bill, and some of the Eastern Senators, including Mr. Bayard, take the ground that Congress ought not to disregard the substantially unanimous wish of the people of California, as expressed at the polls, for absolute prohibition of Chinese immigration. Mr. Edmunds, too, has spoken on the same side.

Captain Eads's proposition to carry vessels across the Isthmus of Panama on a railroad, as embodied in a bill to incorporate the Inter-Oceanic Ship Railway Company, has been favorably reported to the Senate from the Committee on Commerce. It is stated that opposition to the bill in the committee was withheld as a compliment to the introducer, with the understanding that Senators who were opposed to it should have an opportunity to manifest their opposition by speech and vote.

On Monday the Senate passed the joint resolution for the return and remission of duties on the revised New Testament.

The House passed the Indian Appropriation Bill on Wednesday. The total amount appropriated is $4,920,203, an increase of $351,600 over the bill of last year.

The bill introduced by Mr. S. S. Cox, and which passed the House, to promote the efficiency of the Life-Saving Service, was passed by the Senate on Thursday, with amendments which provide for pensioning employees of the service.

A resolution reported from the Committee on Rules, providing for a joint committee to attend the celebration at New Orleans next month of the two hundredth anniversary of the discovery of the mouth of the Mississippi River by La Salle, was laid on the table by a strong majority on Tuesday.

The Tariff Commission Bill, reported by the House Committee on Ways and Means, will probably not come up for discussion until very late in the session, as it has been ruled that it is not a bill for raising revenue and cannot, therefore, take precedence of appropriation bills, but must wait its turn on the general calendar of the Committee of the Whole.

The House Committee on Foreign Affairs began on Monday the investigation, under the Kasson resolution, of the alleged abstraction of certain papers from the files of the State Department. The committee conducted the investigation with closed doors, but the Democratic members of the committee desire to have a public investigation, and it is thought possible that a resolution to this effect may be adopted.

On Tuesday the President received Baron Ignatz von Schaeffer, the new Austrian Minister, and Mr. Romero, Special Envoy of the Mexican Government, who is in Washington with a view to entering into negotiations for a treaty of reciprocity between Mexico and the United States. It is understood that Mr. Romero, within the limits of certain instructions, has been accorded full discretionary power to act for his Government.

The President has approved the Immediate Deficiency Bill, the Act to establish post routes, the Act to establish a port of delivery at Denver, Colorado, and the Act authorizing the Secretary of the Interior to furnish impressions of the cards of invitation to the Garfield memorial services.

The Treasury Department was informed on Tuesday of an attempt to smuggle about a ton of opium, on board the steamship *City of Tokio*, through the San Francisco Custom-house, and that when the offenders were arrested they offered to give the whole quantity of opium and $10,000 in addition to be released.

Postmaster-General Howe has transmitted a letter to the House in reply to the resolution calling for a list of all resignations, removals, and appointments made in the Post-office Department since March 4, 1881. Mr. Howe says that promotions, so far as he has been able to learn, have been uniformly made with regard to the merit and capacity of the employees. All candidates for promotion or appointment above the grade of a thousand dollars have been examined by a board to ascertain their qualifications, and in several instances these examinations have been competitive.

The contract division of the Post-office has sent out nearly 3,000 notifications to successful Star-route contractors, informing them of the acceptance of their proposals for service. The aggregate sum of the bids is about $4,000,000. A. E. Boone, one of the contractors now under indictment for conspiracy, has secured a large number of the awards.

The Washington Grand Jury brought in a second batch of indictments in the straw-bond and Star-route cases on Wednesday, and on Saturday the indictments for conspiracy in connection with the Star-route mail service against Brady, the Dorseys, and others, were formally presented in the Criminal Court. Colonel Bliss will endeavor to have the trial set for as early a day as possible, and hopes to begin it next month. It is thought that the defendants will move to quash the indictment and ask that an investigation be made to discover whether the evidence was properly presented to the Grand Jury. The prosecution, however, state that the hearing was properly conducted in every way, and that they have left no loophole of escape. The evidence in the other cases will be laid before the new Grand Jury which comes in this week.

The Board of Army Engineers appointed to consider the matter have made a preliminary report recommending the reclamation of the Potomac flats. It is estimated that the cost of the whole work will be $2,500,000.

The Mississippi River continues to rise, and more levees are giving way every day. The Secretary of War and the State Governments of Mississippi, Arkansas, and Kentucky are sending supplies and doing all they can to aid the sufferers by the flood.

A large meeting of Kentucky Republicans was held in Louisville on Thursday, at which resolutions condemning the coalition with the Anti-Bourbon Democrats were adopted.

The Executive Committee of the Republican State Central Committee of Tennessee have unanimously recommended Republicans to vote for a Constitutional Convention to settle the question of the State debt. The Republicans of the State are said to be generally in favor of settling the debt on the best terms that the creditors may voluntarily offer.

The sub-committee of the Finance Committee of the City Councils of Philadelphia, which has been engaged in investigating the Tax Office defalcation, has made a report to the full committee, from which it appears that a system of peculation has been carried on for years by nearly all of the clerks employed in the Tax Office, resulting from the "negligent, if not criminal manner, in which the department was conducted."

It is thought probable that Governor Cameron, of Virginia, will call an extra session of the Legislature for the purpose of acting upon Senator Mahone's scheme for redistricting the State so as to give the Readjusters at least eight out of the ten members of the House of Representatives to which Virginia is entitled.

The Republicans of South Carolina held a conference at Columbia on Thursday to consider questions affecting the rights and interests of the Republicans of the State. It was decided to ask the Federal Government to make suitable provision to obtain legal registration, under the Federal election law, of all the voters in the State. The State Executive Committee will probably draw up a memorial to Congress on the subject.

The court-martial which has been trying Sergeant Mason for his attempt on the life of Guiteau completed its labors on Thursday. The proceedings of the board will be submitted to Major Gardner, Judge-Advocate of the Army, who will review the evidence and findings, and will submit the record of the case, with such comment as he sees fit, to General Hancock. It then rests with General Hancock to approve or set aside the verdict rendered by the court-martial.

The death rate in New York city has increased five hundred a month for the past two months, which is far too large to be accounted for by any increase in the population, nor can any satisfactory reason for the increase be given, since January and February are usually healthy months.

Steps are being taken in this city to provide properly for the Jewish refugees who are expected soon to reach this country from Russia. Already nearly 3,000 of these exiles have come to New York from southern Russia, and nearly 1,000 are now on their way, and before the summer the number of arrivals is expected to be increased to 10,000.

The six days go-as-you-please walking match in New York was finished on Saturday. Hazael won the race by covering 600 miles. He will probably get about $19,000 as his share of the prizes and gate money.

The Inman line steamer *City of Berlin*, which was nine days overdue, was towed into port at Boston on Sunday by the Cunard steamer *Samaria*. The screw shaft of the *City of Berlin* became disabled on the 22d of February, and from that day until the 27th, when she was sighted by the French steamship *Ville d'Alger*, she drifted about under sail. The *Ville d'Alger* gave her some assistance until the following day, when the *Samaria* was sighted, which took her in tow for Boston.

FOREIGN.

Queen Victoria was fired at as she was entering her carriage at the Windsor railway station, on Thursday evening, but escaped unhurt. The would-be assassin, who is represented as a miserable-looking object, was at once arrested. An attempt was made by the crowd to lynch him, but the police succeeded in carrying him off. His name is Roderick MacLean, and he is said to be a grocer's assistant. His family solicitor writes that he possesses certificates of eminent physicians of the existence of mental aberration in the prisoner, of long standing, and that there will be no difficulty in establishing the fact of his insanity. He adds that MacLean is the same person who attempted to wreck a railway train in 1874, and that the report that two doctors at Windsor had declared him sane is untrue. Meanwhile congratulatory despatches have been pouring in to the Queen from all parts of the world. In the House of Commons on Monday, Mr. Gladstone, in moving the address to the Queen, said that similar attempts upon the lives of rulers in other countries had been associated with some grievance or discontent, whereas the attempt upon the Queen

was prompted solely by a morbid desire for notoriety in an intellect of the narrowest kind.

Mr. Forster, Chief Secretary for Ireland, was invited by the House of Lords Committee to give evidence at the inquiry of the committee into the working of the Land Act. The invitation included an important statement in regard to the scope of their inquiry, which was designed as a basis of agreement on the issue raised between the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The Cabinet held a special meeting to consider the matter, and decided that neither the form nor the substance of the communication justified their acceptance of it as a settlement of the question raised by the House of Lords, and Mr. Forster was directed to decline to give testimony before the committee.

The statement included in the House of Lords committee's invitation to Mr. Forster was that the committee do not consider it within the scope of their inquiry to discuss the correctness of any of the commissioners' decisions. This is looked upon in some quarters as a practical surrender of the original position taken by the House of Lords.

The debate on Mr. Gladstone's resolution was continued on Thursday. Mr. Sexton made an attack on the administration of the Land Act. He stated that out of 70,000 applications to the Land Court, only 1,313 cases had been decided within the past three months, the result being that it would take years to adjudicate the entire number, and that meanwhile the tenants whose cases remained undecided would be forced to pay back rents.

The election at Northampton on Thursday to fill the vacancy in the House of Commons caused by Mr. Bradlaugh's expulsion, again resulted in his return. The vote was 3,798 for Mr. Bradlaugh, against 3,687 for Mr. Corbett. At a meeting of the Opposition members of the House of Commons on the same evening it was decided to resist any attempt on the part of Mr. Bradlaugh to take his seat.

On Monday in the House of Commons Sir Stafford Northcote moved that the House reaffirm its resolution of February 7 that Mr. Bradlaugh be not allowed to go through the form of repeating the words of the oath. Mr. Majoribanks then moved an amendment in favor of legislation permitting affirmation. Mr. Gladstone supported the amendment as the best means of relieving the House from its increasingly painful position, but notwithstanding this it was defeated by a vote of 257 to 242. Sir Stafford Northcote's motion was then carried without a division. Mr. Majoribanks then gave notice that he would ask leave to bring in a bill amending the law in regard to the oath.

There was a "scene" in the House of Commons on Friday in consequence of the admission of Mr. Johnson, Attorney-General for Ireland, that a warrant under the Coercion Act existed against Mr. O'Connor, Home Rule member of the House for Queens county. Mr. O'Connor moved an adjournment, and inquired with what offence he was charged. Finally an endeavor was made to exact a pledge from the Government that it would not cause the arrest of members visiting their constituents, but Mr. Gladstone refused to grant such immunity or to give any further information.

Mr. Forster, Chief Secretary of Ireland, has been making a tour of inspection through the disaffected districts, and it is expected that it will be productive of substantial benefit. The fearlessness with which he moves about is everywhere commended. In a speech at Tullamore, County Kings, on Monday, Mr. Forster said that he had come to the disturbed districts to see for himself whether the reports of outrages were correct. He announced that as soon as the outrages ceased the suspects would be released.

A Parliamentary return shows that up to February 24th, 72,408 applications had been made to the Land Court to fix fair rents; that the parties agreed between themselves in 2,180 cases, and that 2,365 cases were decided by the Court.

A judgment was recently given by the Court of Appeals at Dublin, in the matter of the appeal from the decision of the commissioners under the Land Act, on the reduction of a tenant's improved fixed-lease rent, the principal effect of which will be to limit the improvement for which a tenant cannot be charged increased rent to works actually executed by him.

A deputation "representing thousands of unemployed persons" waited on the Lord Mayor of London on March 1st, to ask his advice and aid in regard to emigration. He advised them to confer with Sir Alexander Galt, High Commissioner for Canada, and promised his assistance if any scheme of emigration was devised.

The Russo-Jewish Committee in London has prepared a statement, founded upon letters from persons occupying high official positions in the Jewish community and upon personal evidence of Jewish refugees. It confirms the reports of the outrages upon the Jews which were discredited by the recent British consular reports.

The Queen's monument to Lord Beaconsfield has been erected in Hughenden Church. It bears the inscription, "This memorial is placed here by a grateful and affectionate sovereign and friend. Victoria R. I. 'Kings love him that speaketh right.'"

The returns issued by the Board of Trade show that during the month of February British imports had decreased, compared with the same month last year, by £600,000, and the exports had increased by £2,100,000,

The latest in regard to General Skobeleff's famous speech is that it was submitted to General Ignatieff before it was delivered, and that he struck out several pages. Skobeleff, however, "allowed himself to be carried away by champagne, and took no account of the erasure when he delivered the speech." The Czar is reported to be very much "distressed and annoyed" by the effect of the speech, and has written to the Emperor William explaining the whole matter. Skobeleff has been "interviewed" a number of times on his journey to St. Petersburg in regard to it, and expresses great surprise that his remarks should have created such a sensation, and repeats that he spoke only as a private individual, and that the same sentiments are expressed every day in all parts of Russia without any notice being taken of it.

Advices from St. Petersburg state that General Ignatieff's policy is so distasteful to M. de Giers, of the Foreign Office, and M. Bunge, Minister of Finance, that they have tendered their resignations, and that the fact that Count Valuyeff has recently had private audiences with the Czar, has given rise to rumors that he is to become Minister of the Interior to succeed General Ignatieff.

Russia has demanded priority for her claim on the Rumelian treasury of 23,000,000 francs for the maintenance of the Russian army of occupation. The Porte contends that it is for the powers who signed the treaty to decide as to the amount due Russia, and also that the amount of revenue the Russians collected while occupying the province should be deducted from the claim.

A Berlin correspondent writes that emigration from Germany to America promises to be very much greater this year than last.

During the months of January and February 12,655 emigrants left Hamburg for the United States.

The opposition displayed in the Prussian Economical Council to the Tobacco Monopoly Bill has surprised and annoyed Prince Bismarck, who counted upon the Council's vote as a standpoint to be used in the Bundesrath against the opposition of the South German States.

A despatch from Belgrade announces that on Monday, at the unanimous invitation of the Skuptschina, Prince Milan accepted the title of King of Servia. The diplomatic body was thereupon acquainted of the fact, and the Austrian Minister soon afterward conveyed to Prince Milan the congratulations of the Emperor Francis Joseph.

It is understood that Russia, Austria, and Germany assented to the elevation of the principality of Servia to a kingdom, and that Italy and Germany have recognized the kingdom.

It is officially announced from Vienna that the Austrians have captured Ulog after a desperate resistance.

The Austrian military authorities in the insurgent provinces have received strict orders to prevent the despatch of any reports whatever, except such as are official, in regard to military movements, and it is stated that the correspondent of the Manchester *Guardian* in Dalmatia (Mr. Evans, son-in-law of Mr. Freeman, the historian) has been ordered to quit Austria within three days. Two persons have been arrested at Ragusa for assisting Mr. Evans to spread news of insurgent victories.

The Cyril and Methodius Slavic Society of Odessa, in order to testify its sympathy with the Herzegovinians and Krivoscians, has unanimously elected a prominent insurgent leader an honorary member, and has applied to the Government for permission to organize subscriptions in aid of the refugees in Montenegro. Generals Gourko and Skobeleff were also elected honorary members.

A despatch from Tunis says that the insurgents have reappeared in the vicinity of Sfax, where they have raided on the tribes which have submitted to the French. The news from the Regency is, however, on the whole, satisfactory. Two battalions of troops have returned to France. M. Roustan has requested the liberation of Taid Bey, who is imprisoned for conspiracy against the Bey.

On Monday the French Chamber of Deputies voted to consider a proposal for the abrogation of the Concordat. M. de Freycinet approved its consideration.

A despatch from Paris states that the French Cabinet has approved the plan of Admiral Jauréguiberry, Minister of Marine, for a scientific expedition to the south pole in coöperation with other powers.

A meeting of Socialists is to be held in Paris to protest against the sentences recently passed on the Nihilists at St. Petersburg.

Four hundred rifles have been discovered in connection with a plot in Catalonia, Spain. They are believed to be the property of Carlists.

A decree has been published convoking the Spanish Cortes for the 20th instant.

In the Spanish Cabinet on Monday the bill of the Minister of Justice introducing the provisions of the press law into the penal code, and repealing special legislation in regard to press offences, was discussed.

The Greek Chamber, after a three days' debate, has invalidated the seat of the Minister of War by a vote of 144 to 99.

The twin monuments erected over the graves of the poet Keats and his friend Joseph Severn were unveiled at the Protestant Cemetery at Rome on Sunday. Mr. T. A. Trollope presided at the ceremony, and Mr. Story, the American sculptor, delivered a speech. There were many English and American residents present.

A meeting is reported to have taken place in Lima, Peru, with a view to the organization of a new Government, of which Pierola is to be a prominent member. Dr. Antonio Arenas is spoken of for the Presidency. An executive committee, composed of prominent men, was appointed to start a popular movement in favor of a new and strong administration.

TUESDAY, March 7, 1882.

A "SPIRITED FOREIGN POLICY."

THE Consular and Diplomatic Appropriation Bill gave occasion in the House of Representatives for what is figuratively called "letting off steam." This bill has not unfrequently served to open the floodgates of gorgeous and harmless blood-and-thunder eloquence, and it might this time, as frequently before, be passed over without serious notice were we not informed by reports from Washington that the speech of Mr. Whitthorne of Tennessee was to sound the "keynote" of a new departure, a living issue to be made by the Democratic party. It appears that the Democratic party seriously thinks of giving the country a "spirited foreign policy," the principal modern features of which it has borrowed from Mr. Blaine. This is the subject upon which Mr. Whitthorne grew eloquent. The impression he evidently desired to convey was that Mr. Blaine's way of carrying on our foreign policy was "the thing," and that Mr. Frelinghuysen's was not, being governed by "the shadow of Wall Street's speculative capital," and that the Democratic party was therefore bound to have the former.

It will be useful to our Democratic friends, before they commit themselves, to inquire what kind of a "spirited foreign policy" will commend itself to the good sense of the American people. If it is one which will resent an insult when it is offered to us; which will protect the rights and safety of American citizens abroad whenever and wherever they are threatened; which will clearly ascertain what our interests are, and then enforce them with justice, intelligence, and dignity; which will maintain friendly relations with weaker states, and use our influence for their benefit when they call upon us to do so, and when it can be done without prejudice to their rights, then we are all agreed. Such a foreign policy we ought to have. But when a "spirited foreign policy" means that we should construe every difference of opinion as an insult for the purpose of having something to resent; that we should constantly carry a chip on our shoulder, daring anybody to knock it off; that we should use every possible occasion to "twist the tail of the British lion" for the fun of it; that we should have our finger in every quarrel merely to make our influence felt, and act the universal bully, shaking our fists in everybody's face to inform the world that we can "whip all creation," then the sober judgment of the American people will be that the less we have of such a "spirited foreign policy" the better for our good name as well as our true interests.

The fact is that the indiscriminate screaming of the eagle could really gratify the American people only in their boyish days, when a lingering doubt of their own strength impelled them to force the respect of foreign nations by frequent and vociferous self-assertion. We have got beyond that now. The American people have grown to man's estate. When a business man is rising in fortune, but is not yet recognized, he may think that blazing diamonds on his shirt-front will impress others with his wealth. When his success is sufficiently established and known, the same man will feel that it becomes him to be simple, and that ostentatious display will injure his reputation for good sense. The American republic has grown so great that it can afford to maintain the self-restraint and undemonstrative dignity of conscious strength without being misjudged by anybody as to its power. That power is universally recognized, and no intelligent European statesman would think for a moment of disputing its superiority on this continent. If we, after the tremendous change of circumstances which has taken place, still exhibit the same sensitiveness and alarm about the possibility of European encroachment on this side of the Atlantic which with greater reason we might have shown forty or fifty years ago, we shall only persuade European powers that we ourselves are not so sure of our superiority here as they have thought us to be.

Of the practical working of the "spirited foreign policy" in the boyish sense, we have already had some instructive illustrations. We, too, think that this republic should have predominant influence over an inter-oceanic canal when it is built, and that the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty should be and will in the course of time be modified. But when Mr. Whitthorne speaks of the "steps taken by Mr. Blaine to modify the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty," it may justly be said that Mr. Blaine has really taken steps to prevent its modification. For, while British statesmen may have come to the conclusion that the exercise of controlling influence by the United States of an inter-oceanic canal may in the course of time be inevitable, and while they may be willing to "be let down easy" in that respect, Mr. Blaine put the matter before them in language unnecessarily offensive to their self-respect, which makes an early accord more than usually difficult. We, too, are in favor of exercising a conciliatory influence in the quarrels of our sister republics, and even of mediating between them when called upon by them to do so. But we do not consider advisable the "spirited policy" of uncalled-for meddling which came near involving us in a most unnecessary war, and has resulted in the necessity of severely checking one of our foreign ministers who was negotiating for a railroad, and of investigating the proceedings of another whose business house made contracts the execution of which was conditioned upon the success of diplomatic action he himself was engaged in. We, too, think that a war may sometimes become necessary, but we are also convinced that a war is not a good thing for a republic, and ought, whenever possible, to be avoided. We, too, think the commercial interests of the United States deserve intelligent consideration. But we are sure that every attempt to restore the foreign commerce of this country by diplomatic tricks instead of sensible economic legislation will prove delusive and futile.

What the American people want is a just, sober, sensible, and dignified foreign policy. If the Democrats think they can carry public opinion, and thereby a Presidential election, by presenting a programme that is "spirited" enough to disturb our peaceful relations with the world, they only prove again that whenever there is a blunder to be made the Democratic party is sure to jump at the chance.

ENGLISH AND AMERICAN MINISTERS.

IN a recent interview, the Rev. Dr. Bevan, of the Brick Church of this city, gave the reasons for his approaching return to England, his native country, after five years' residence here. It will probably take most people by surprise that he should think of returning, in view of the readiness with which several English and Irish ministers have of late years accepted calls addressed to them by churches on this side of the water, and in view also of the fact that similar invitations from England to ministers here have not been successful. Most, if not all, of the English ministers who have been called by American congregations have been Dissenters, and have come to take charge of churches which in England would be Dissenting churches. The American notion has hitherto been that English Dissenting ministers were glad to escape from the position of social, if not political, inferiority in which the existence of the Established Church and the traditions of English society place them, and get to a country in which one minister or one denomination is as good as another. This same view has, we believe, prevented any American minister (not an Anglican) of note from accepting any offer, however flattering, of a settlement in England. No American minister cares to leave a society in which he is as good as the best, for one in which he would occupy a distinctly second-rate position socially, and in which the upper clergy of another denomination would think and talk of association and coöperation with him as signs of unusual liberality of mind. Some of the recent pastoral utterances on this subject of the broader English bishops have in fact been, in their very effusiveness toward Dissenters, what an American might consider a little insulting.

Dr. Bevan, however, seems to take no account of this whatever. His reasons for going back are two: one, that he likes the London climate better than this, believing it to be a climate in which a man can do more work with impunity; the other, that in London the minister of any denomination has a much wider sphere of usefulness open to him than in New York. The meteorological reason we shall not undertake to discuss. The second is very interesting. He said:

"Your professional men, especially clergymen, seem to be restricted to purely professional work in a fashion that we do not dream of in London. Here it seems to be understood that a clergyman cannot go outside of his strictly professional work without doing wrong. He is outside of politics entirely; he is not expected to lecture much, not expected to concern himself with social questions, and not expected to concern himself much with education, justice, or temperance. To a Londoner this seems all wrong, but it is useless to question it. Any attempt to break through these lines results in unpleasantness. Clergymen are well paid, and kindly treated, but they are not expected to work for the good of their fellow-men, except in certain defined lines. In England the clergy of the Establishment are frequently justices of the peace. We of the Non-Conformist party are members of the School Board, Public Works, and so forth, and take a part in all public movements. The London School Board has a number of clergymen; I was the member for Marylebone for some years. I took the greatest interest in my work, and all who have looked into the question know what a perfect school system we have in London. Every

child in the city has to attend school or explain its absence. I believe even the Prince of Wales's children were called upon. I feel the want of such employment here to some extent, although I have not been idle by any means as pastor of the Brick Church ; but it would not be liked, I am sure. You Americans are far more conservative than Englishmen, and we, who feel it in every-day life, do not always like it. I was asked to go to a great meeting on a public topic soon after I got here, and went to find that all I was expected to do was to open the meeting with a prayer and close it with a benediction. I was dumfounded."

There are probably few American ministers who would not take exception to every one of these generalizations We suspect that there is, neither in England nor in America, anything like positive expectation on the part of the public, or on the part of his own congregation, that a minister's activity shall display itself in fields outside his professional work. We question much whether in either country a congregation has ever been dissatisfied with a minister on this score. There are and have been in London several eminent Dissenting ministers who have displayed no such activity—Mr. Spurgeon is one—without causing any apparent disappointment to their admirers. Is it not true that in both countries the matter is left to the minister's own temperament, and ambition, and intellectual needs? If he busies himself with politics or philanthropy, the congregation says, Well and good. If he confines himself to purely professional work, it also says, Well and good. In this country, ministers who have the health, the capacity, and the overmastering impulse to go outside their churches and occupy themselves with education, charities, and temperance abound everywhere. Every city of any size can show some. In New York there are many. We suspect that the churches of both the late Dr. Bellows and of Henry Ward Beecher have been rather disposed to think that their pastors did too much during the last twenty years of the very kind of work which Dr. Bevan complains that he cannot get at all. But it is a kind of work which neither in this country nor in England is forced on any man, either lay or clerical. Every professional man gets as much of it as he asks for—no more, but no less. If a minister goes to many public meetings without being invited to do more than pray and pronounce the benediction, he may be sure that it is because he has given no recognizable sign of desiring a more prominent part. The American demand for oratorical thunder and organizing activity is practically unlimited.

As regards clerical participation in politics, Dr. Bevan's remarks have a good deal of force. There is little question that in the large cities, and especially in this city, the caucus is an all but insurmountable barrier to anything like active participation in politics on the part of educated men of any calling. In the first place, the platform talk of a man who neither goes to caucus nor controls the daily press has comparatively little weight with the class who make up political conventions. It goes in at one ear and out at the other, and they privately ridicule him as a theorist or doctrinaire. In the second place, an honorable and educated man cannot participate in a New York caucus without exposing himself either to humiliating defeats, or to apparent participation in acts and practices which are revolting to his moral sense. If he continues to attend it constantly without lowering his standard both of private and political integrity, he rapidly becomes an object of ridicule to the "workers," and, if he is worth much to the community, soon reaches the conclusion that his time can be far better employed in his study than at the primary. In England, where the caucus is not yet established, and the office-holders do no political work, volunteers of all classes are more necessary and more welcome in politics than here, and ministers may if they please be as active politically as they used to be in New England, and in some parts of it are still. In fact, it is of the utmost importance to every democratic community that its professed moralists should not be excluded from politics, but should, on the contrary, take an active part in them. Nothing but good can come of it if the machinery is such that it can be worked just as easily by the honest men as by the knaves.

THE VACCINATION QUESTION.

The recent epidemic of smallpox has had the usual effect of calling public attention to the merits of vaccination, and of producing a large amount of discussion upon the subject. The parties to this discussion represent every possible shade of opinion. Some declare that vaccination has not only not diminished, but has actually increased, the virulence and fatality of smallpox, while it has been the means of spreading syphilis, scrofula, and other similar diseases. Others assert that it is an almost specific preventive of smallpox—that a person properly vaccinated is safe in a smallpox hospital filled with the worst form of cases, and that the operation is so simple and certain that it should be made compulsory and universal. The non-professional man is sometimes much puzzled to decide between these conflicting statements, and as to the reliability and true significance of the voluminous statistics which are produced on either side ; and although in most cases he follows the majority, and has himself and his family vaccinated, or revaccinated, as the case may be, he nevertheless has some lurking doubts and fears as to the result, and as to whether the amount of protection obtained is worth the trouble and cost which it involves.

It seems worth while, therefore, to state briefly the opinions which prevail upon this subject among those physicians and statisticians who are generally recognized as scientific investigators, and as authorities in their respective departments. We must be guided by probabilities in this matter ; and as we find that such physicians and statisticians as we have referred to are almost unanimous in their views upon certain points, and are only opposed in them by men who are not specially known as scientific men, but rather as popular agitators, the probabilities are largely in favor of the opinions which we summarize as follows :

Smallpox is a specific disease, produced by a special contagium which never arises spontaneously, but is always derived from a case of the disease. No combination of filth, overcrowding, bad food, temperature, moisture, etc., will produce smallpox in the absence of the specific contagium. Persons who have had the disease once rarely have it a second time, yet in violent epidemics the number of cases of second attacks may be as high as 6 per 1,000 of all cases, and 10 per cent. of these second attacks prove fatal. Persons of all ages and conditions of life seem to be equally susceptible to the disease ; but prior to the introduction of vaccination about 80 per cent. of deaths from smallpox occurred in children under 5 years of age. Smallpox, during the last century, caused about one-thirteenth of the total number of deaths, taking the statistics for long periods of years, and its epidemics swept over Europe at intervals varying from 5 to 10 years ; that is, about as often as a fresh stock of susceptible material was produced by births.

Vaccination began at the commencement of the present century. At first it was supposed to be an absolute preventive against smallpox, and that if a person had the disease after vaccination, it was a proof that the operation had not been properly performed. It is now, however, well recognized that the protection produced by a perfect vaccination is not so thorough as that produced by an attack of smallpox, and that properly-vaccinated persons may not only be attacked by smallpox, but may die of it. Nor is the effect produced by vaccination a permanent one, its mean duration being usually estimated at from 9 to 10 years. Of 731 deaths in the Leipsic epidemic, there were 9 in persons under 10 years of age who had been vaccinated. Of 48 deaths in the Riverside Hospital, New York, 44 were unvaccinated, three were doubtful, and one had been vaccinated. In all countries where vaccination has been general, when an epidemic of smallpox occurs, the larger part of the cases are in vaccinated persons, the reason being that there are present a very much larger number of vaccinated than of unvaccinated persons. In such communities the greater number of deaths occur in persons over 25 years of age, instead of in children, as is the case in unvaccinated communities. Systematic revaccination renews the immunity for a term of years, and has a powerful influence in reducing the mortality among adults in communities where it is practised. This is conclusively shown by the statistics of the armies of the United States and of other countries.

Vaccination in some cases produces immediate bad results, but these are rare exceptions. It must be remembered that vaccination is usually performed in infancy, when disease and death are more frequent than at any other period of life, and we cannot expect that vaccinated infants will present any immunity from disease and death except so far as smallpox is concerned. It must not be concluded, therefore, that all cases of sickness and death following vaccination are caused by it ; this is the old fallacy of *post hoc ergo propter hoc*. But in a very few cases vaccination produces disease. During the year 1877 there were in Prussia 1,252,554 vaccinations, and 44 deaths followed in these cases. An official investigation showed that in 42 cases this was merely a coincidence ; in 2 cases the death was really due to the vaccination. The English reports show that in 2,000,000 vaccinations death resulted from the operation in 64 cases.

The greatest danger from vaccination is from the use of impure virus, and especially from virus taken from persons affected with syphilis. The total number of cases in which the transmission of syphilis by vaccination has been reported is about 750, and this in more than 100,000,000 cases of vaccination during the last 80 years. This danger is now totally avoided by the use of bovine virus. The possibility that bovine virus may be the means of transmitting tubercle has been suggested, but as yet there is no known authentic case of such transmission, and the danger must be very small. The chief evil to be feared from the use of bovine virus is erysipelas, and this may be due either to impure virus or to the condition of the person operated upon. There is

a very considerable quantity of impure virus in the market at the present time, more especially in the form of what are termed patent vaccine-cones and vaccine-powder; and in this country there is no satisfactory supervision of the quality of the virus used, except perhaps in the city of Providence.

The remote effect of vaccination is to increase the mortality from diseases other than smallpox: the children whom it preserves furnish additional material for the ravages of scarlet fever, measles, etc. It prolongs life, but, taking long periods of years into account, it does not diminish the total mortality. Those who do not die of smallpox must, sooner or later, die of something else. We have examined carefully the statistics presented by the anti-vaccinationists, and especially those given in the works of Prof. A. Vogt, of Berne, but we have found them entirely unreliable. In some of the few cases in which the references to the original data are given, the figures are incorrectly quoted; in others the calculations of ratios do not give the results claimed. For example, on page 168 of his larger work, 'Für und wider die Kuhpockenimpfung,' etc., he gives the following table:

MORTALITY FROM SMALLPOX AT GENEVA DURING 180 YEARS (1580 TO 1760).

Age.	Mean population.	Mean number of deaths per annum from smallpox.	Proportion of deaths in 10,000 inhabitants (as given by Vogt)	True proportion.
0-5 years	1,383	30.37	87.6	219.6
5-10 "	1,163	5.88	20.2	50.6
10-15 "	1,058	0.70	2.6	6.6

The fourth column shows Vogt's calculation of ratios, and the fifth shows the true ratios. It is impossible to have the slightest respect for an author who is either so ignorant or so mendacious as to assert that the ratios stated in the fourth column are correct; and yet Vogt is the statistician *par excellence* of the anti-vaccinationists.

It seems clear enough that vaccination has preserved and prolonged many lives, and prevented a vast amount of bindness, deafness, and other afflictions which smallpox is so apt to produce when it spares life; and also that the evils which result from it are so very small in comparison with the good it has produced that no one need hesitate to avail himself of the protection it affords. On the other hand, there is no immediate prospect that it will enable us to stamp out smallpox, nor is it by any means an absolute safeguard; and when it comes to the question of making vaccination compulsory, we have to take into consideration a number of other things besides the mere efficiency of the vaccination itself. We cannot undertake to discuss the merits of compulsory vaccination within the limits of this article, and would only suggest at present that it is far more necessary in this country to provide some means by which all persons can obtain thoroughly reliable, pure vaccine, and also for the prevention of the sale of impure virus, than it is to secure compulsory vaccination; and that it is inexpedient to demand the latter until the former has been satisfactorily provided for. It is the compulsion that has produced most of the controversy. No doubt if a law had been passed forbidding vaccination, a certain number of the people who now oppose it would have organized into a society, started a journal, and vaccinated themselves and their children once a year, or oftener if necessary, to prove their abhorrence of compulsion.

THE ORGANIZATION OF COLLEGE FACULTIES.

THE growth of some of the larger of our universities is beginning to give especial interest to a question which for some years past has been receiving the thoughtful attention of the university authorities in the Old World. The multiplication of branches taught on the one hand, and the tendency toward a concentration of individual energies to the prosecution of special studies on the other, give rise to some considerations of not a little importance. What ought to be the organization of a large academic faculty? Should it be divided into separate schools, each school having plenary jurisdiction over the students and the affairs of that school, or should it maintain its organization in its integrity? Ought all of the numerous questions coming up for decision to be referred to the whole body of instructors, or ought the faculty to be subdivided into groups, to each one of which alone the particular questions appropriate to that group should be referred? Is it wise to encourage the organization of separate schools analogous to the Sheffield and the Lawrence Scientific Schools, or, on the other hand, is it better to keep all the officers of instruction within the general jurisdiction of a single organization? The importance of the subject increases as the number of officers in a faculty multiplies; and consequently, in some of the universities of Germany, where the philosophical faculty numbers a hundred or more members, it has become one of the vital educational questions of the day. As we go to Italy for the study of art, and as we go to England for the study of constitutional government, so we go to Germany for the study of educational theories and methods. The subject having recently attracted so much attention in Germany, it may be well to present some of its most important features.

As early as 1832 the several questions involved were discussed by Robert von Mohl in the first edition of his 'Polizei-Wissenschaft.' The ground was taken that studies in science and studies in philosophy and philology are so radically different that, sooner or later, those in control of educational matters would come to see that the interests of education require the organization of separate faculties. The next impulse to the policy of division was given at Giessen in consequence of the prominence to which scientific studies were raised by Liebig. In 1855 the Ministry addressed a note of inquiry to the philosophical faculty of that university, asking the members to consider whether the cause of education would be enhanced by a division of that body into two or more schools. The question was carefully discussed, and was decided in the negative. But the University Senate took the opposite view, and, by a very small majority, decided in favor of a division into three schools. The Ministry, however, took no action on the subject. But in 1863 the same question was successfully revived in the very university in which the first word had been spoken in its behalf. The party advocating division carried the day; and from the inaugural address of Hugo von Mohl, a brother of the famous economist and the first dean of the new scientific faculty, we learn that the division was brought about in consequence of a movement in the faculty of medicine.

The policy of division, however, though entered upon with enthusiasm by the University of Tübingen, was not adopted by the other universities. The Austrian Government inquired of the philosophical faculty of Vienna whether a division would be advantageous. The proposition was rejected by a large majority. The university at Breslau also considered the question with the utmost care: for two full years it was under discussion. The policy of division at one time was adopted, but when the details came to be decided upon there was so much difference of opinion that the majority was reduced to a minority, and the proposition was at last rejected. Other universities considered the question with the same result. Although in several of them a strong party in favor of separate organizations was developed, yet in no one of them was the advocacy of change strong enough to overthrow the established order of things. Nevertheless, when the new University of Strassburg came to be established, the advocates of division once more carried the day. Though it might not be wise to change radically an organization already established, it still seemed best to the Government in the founding of a new institution to recognize the force of the argument in favor of separate organizations. The new university, therefore, was given not only a philosophical faculty, but also a faculty of mathematics and the natural sciences.

The universities of Tübingen and Strassburg are the only ones in which a complete division into separate faculties has taken place. In four of the universities the question was decided by adopting what may be called a medium course. These were the universities of Munich, Würzburg, Bonn, and Leipsic. At Munich a plan was adopted by which the faculty was to maintain its integrity for the discussion and decision of all questions of general policy, while at the same time it should be divided into two sections for the purpose of administering affairs of more specific interest. One section has charge of all matters pertaining to philosophy, philology, and history, while the other devotes itself to the interests of studies in mathematics and the natural sciences. Each section is organized under the direction of a dean; and the senior of the two deans presides at the meetings of the general faculty. A similar method of organization prevails at Würzburg, except that one dean only is chosen, whose duty it is to preside not only over the whole faculty, but also over each of the two sections whenever they are called upon to act in their separate capacities. The dean is chosen alternately first from the one section and then from the other. At Bonn and at Leipsic the question of organization was settled in a somewhat different manner. As early as 1834 a number of embarrassing questions touching the privileges of certain departments of study led at Bonn to a careful consideration of the matter of faculty organization, and the differences finally resulted in a compromise which, from that day to this, has remained undisturbed by any modification. The faculty preserves its integrity as a whole for the transaction of all business of a general character. For the superintendence of the work in the several branches of study, however, it is divided into four sections, each one having its presiding officer. Of these sections, the first has charge of all matters coming under the head of philosophy; the second, those pertaining to philology; the third, to history and political science; and the fourth, to mathematics and the natural sciences. At Leipsic the division is the same, except that philosophy and philology are grouped into one section or school. It is worthy of note that this plan of organization, in the course of the forty-five years that have elapsed since its adoption, has been so successful in its workings that no official proposition for changing it has ever been made.

At the inauguration of Prof. Hofmann, not long since, as Rector of the University of Berlin, the subject of his address was "The Question of Dividing the Philosophical Faculty" (*Die Frage der Theilung der philosophischen Facul-*

tät). The several phases of the subject were considered at length. The author had sent letters of inquiry to members of nearly or quite all the faculties of the German universities, the replies to which are published as an appendix to the second edition of his address. They are of very considerable general interest; but the matter of especial importance for our present purpose is the fact that the whole tone of the correspondence lends itself to the advocacy of the method of organization that originated at Bonn. Prof. Hofmann recognizes this drift of what may be called university opinion, and not only falls into the current, but advocates the popular doctrine with characteristic energy and eloquence. He is opposed to the division of the corps of instructors into distinct faculties, for the reason that such a division tends inevitably to intellectual narrowness and bigotry. The chief part of his argument may be described as an elaboration of the thought so well expressed by Goethe in his well-known line:

"Im engen Kreis verengert sich der Sinn."

But while the author deplores the policy of complete division and separation, he fully recognizes the imperative necessity of some change. He insists that it is impossible for a large faculty sitting as a whole to consider adequately and wisely the necessities of individual branches of study. In seeking for a solution which shall at the same time promise the greatest amount of good and threaten the least amount of evil, he arrives at the conclusion that the middle course is the one which ought to be adopted. The integrity of the faculty ought to be maintained for the purposes of general legislation, while the more immediate supervision of the several branches or groups of study should be entrusted to subordinate sections or schools. This method, moreover, has the advocacy of nearly fifty years of most successful experience.

THE FRENCH PANIC.—THE NEW CABINET.

PARIS, February 16, 1882.

WE are going through an extraordinary financial crisis. It has this peculiarity, that it is almost a social crisis; at least, it affects a great part of what is called society—the most frivolous part: the portion of society which is composed of the devotees of chance, which is seen at the races, in the best clubs—the *fast* people. It has also this character, that it affects the women as well as the men, as some ladies had been seized by the mania of the Bourse speculations. Pailleron, the author of the "Monde où l'on s'ennuie," and who depicts the follies of the present day, will have a fine subject if he undertakes to touch this ground. I will not, even by allusion, speak of some of the heroines, who are known to all Paris: it is enough to know that there never have been so many fine collars of pearls and diamonds pawned or sold; that some of the greatest hôtels are to let; that some persons who were the leaders of fashion and who were a part of "all Paris" have ceased to make their appearance; that some of the boxes at the opera are empty, or filled by unknown faces. The women had gone on in this line with their usual want of prudence and their wonted passion; they are the fair victims of the famous "Union Générale." As for the men, they are legion—ignorant clubmen who thought that it was as easy to play at the Bourse as at the card-table; gentlemen who expected to retrieve their fortunes, credulous people who really believed that the new bank could make gold out of nothing.

How can the best heads resist the emotions of the gentleman (he is well known in Paris) who went through these successive stages of fortune? I cite this case only because I happen to have very trustworthy information on the subject. This gentleman was leading a quiet, easy, lazy life, with his paternal fortune of about 600,000 francs placed in five-per-cent. stocks. The Union was founded; he saw in the board of directors some of the best names of France—names which had hitherto been spotless. He took 5,000 shares, on which he paid one-fourth, which was called. This absorbed 575,000—that is to say, his whole fortune. The shares rose, rose, first gradually, then feverishly, under the excitement of a wild speculation. The "Jews" sold; the Union bought its own shares; the shares rose to 3,000 francs. My gentleman was then able to realize 15,000,000 of francs. All his friends urged him to do so. No; the shares would rise higher; he had faith in the enterprise and its leaders. They rose to 3,500 francs, when suddenly the panic came; the Union had bought so many of its own shares that all its resources were gone. Its enemies were advised of it; they sold and sold, and literally threw out of the window, shares which the Union could no longer buy. In a single day the shares fell by the thousand francs. The unfortunate millionaire saw his millions dwindle under him, and in the course of a week he was ruined. He never sold; the crisis was so sudden that he had no time for reflection, and his stupid faith only vanished when everything had vanished. And what is his position now? The syndics of the failure will be obliged to realize the assets, and to make a call for the three-fourths of the shares still unpaid and still subject to call. They will demand from him alone the sum of 2,175,000 francs, which he is absolutely incapable of paying. What will he do? Blow out his brains, like the nineteen men who have already done so since the crisis? A paper keeps the table of mortality of the Union: he would make the twentieth.

Alas! this is one case among hundreds and thousands. Here is a man who, in the course of a few months, rose from ease to great wealth, and sank from this artificial wealth to absolute and irremediable misery. And the crisis is not over; the Union was the drop which made the overflow. It produced a very severe crisis at the Bourse, in the focus of speculation. What must happen now is this. Within a few years a large number of banks of credit and deposit have sprung up everywhere; the eye is met at every corner by magnificent houses, which are the new banks; some are real palaces. These establishments are really no banks at all, in the old sense of the word; they made their profits out of the creation of shares, sold at a premium. These shares represented all sorts of new affairs—mines, railways, etc.—some real, some half-real, some imaginary. The general impetus given to business for a number of years favored this movement; people were talking in hundreds of millions; it seemed as if capital were a thing which was created by spontaneous generation, not by economy and by work. Now this state of things is reversed; universal confidence has been replaced by universal fear. It would be impossible to float new shares, to attract the money of the public to any new enterprise.

What will become of these new banks of credit? Such as have received deposits from the public will see all their deposits withdrawn, either slowly or rapidly, according to the degree of confidence which they inspire; their profits will become reduced to nothing, and their general expenses, which are enormous, will remain the same. It is impossible that all of them should withstand the pressure of these adverse circumstances. We are, therefore, likely to see a bank crisis coming after the present Bourse crisis. The third act of these natural evolutions is generally a crisis in real estate. During the last few years Paris has built for itself new quarters; the price of land has increased enormously. Many men with borrowed money, many companies formed with the money of the public, have built gigantic houses, great streets lined with modern palaces. The rents asked for the apartments in these new houses are very large, as they must cover the interest and the sinking fund of an extravagantly large capital. At the present moment there is a great number of these apartments still unoccupied. The proprietors counted upon the continuation of the extraordinary prosperity which the country has enjoyed during a few years; but a crisis at the Bourse, a crisis of the banks, will soon force them to reduce the price of rents. Many of the new building-companies will become bankrupt, and there will be a depreciation of the value of real estate in Paris in a year or two. These grave events have completely thrown politics into the shade. Their consequences come home almost everywhere; the financial "Krach" has produced much more effect than the political "Krach." Gambetta has vanished almost out of people's minds; he has gone south, as if he wished himself to be forgotten, at least for a little while.

How much philosophy there is in the exhibition of caricatures in the kiosks of the boulevard. I remember that after the amnesty, when all the Communists and exiles came back, the Gambettists were very bitter against the author of the *Lanterne*, Rochefort, as if they feared his influence over the people of Paris. One of Gambetta's organs published a letter written by Rochefort to M. Thiers, when Rochefort was in prison at Versailles and appeared before a council of war. A violent quarrel broke out on account of this letter. Rochefort denied its authenticity; said that it was a mere draft of a letter which was taken from him by his lawyer, but which was not to be delivered to M. Thiers. The Gambettist papers insisted that Rochefort had intended to beg M. Thiers to pardon him. In one of the caricatures of the time Gambetta was seen, in the dress of *Hamlet*, holding in his hand the head of Rochefort, looking, as usual, very worn and ghastly. "Alas! poor Yorick!" said Gambetta. My eyes fell, a few days ago, on a paper in a kiosk. There was now Rochefort, with a plume in his hat, and a flowing mantle; he had in his hand the head of Gambetta, with one eye dilated and almost falling out, the other eye gone—"Alas! poor Yorick!" Such is the mutability of history. There is no doubt that Rochefort made a terrible war on Gambetta and the school of the Opportunists; he was unsparing, ferocious, like a red Indian. Gambetta was attacked with more art and apparent moderation by Jules Simon, his old adversary at Bordeaux. Jules Simon took, for this object, the editorship of the *Gaulois* (the paper which is publishing the new novel of Zola, 'Pot-Bouille'), and every day he wrote an article against Gambetta. These articles were, in a literary sense, very curious. Their form was quite new; they were not dry and dogmatic; they assumed the tone of an easy conversation at the fireside. Some of them had almost the brilliancy of Prévost-Paradol.

Still, the opposition of Rochefort and of Jules Simon would have been of little avail against Gambetta, if the latter had not turned against himself the Chamber of Deputies. He offended the Chamber in its dignity and in its interests. By attacking the *scrutin d'arrondissement*, he offered the Chamber an insult which it would not forgive. He said one day, in a moment of anger, that the Chamber was composed of "sous-vétérinaires" (assistant horse-doctors), meaning that the *scrutin d'arrondissement* had brought to the surface only mediocre men, under-educated, ob-

scure, with no general views. It is quite true that the Chamber is chiefly composed of the politicians of the provinces, who have most of them their fortune to make, and only four years to make it in. But if under a monarchy it is necessary to put up with a bad king, it is necessary under the Republic to bear with a bad Assembly. Gambetta could not dispense with this Assembly, and he showed too soon his contempt for it; he incurred its ill-will instead of ruling it and conducting it. He thought himself too strong, too indispensable; the Chamber soon proved to him that the instinct of self-preservation was much stronger than the devotion and admiration which the Republicans had professed for Gambetta during the elections.

The new Cabinet has inherited a very delicate situation. Its strength is purely negative: it will live by the fear which the *scrutin de liste* has created in the ranks of the majority; it will live by the fear of a possible return of Gambetta, by the alarm which his active foreign policy has created in the community. If there is a strong sentiment in the nation, it is the dread of any complication outside. The Freycinet Cabinet has straightway turned the Egyptian Question into a European question: it will not send a soldier or a ship to Alexandria. We continue with England the financial *condominium*, but the Controllers have virtually ceased to be the masters of Egypt. Arabi Bey and the National party will have it all their own way. France falls back and says to Europe: "Egypt is not on my frontier; it is not Tunis. I will remain in Tunis, but do as you please in Egypt; you will have my good offices, but nothing more."

THE FIRST DEBATES OF THE SESSION.

LONDON, February 23.

PARLIAMENT had been sitting for nearly a fortnight before the debate on the Queen's Speech, which, as you know, is delivered at the opening of each session, could be brought to a close. In better and less troubled days it was generally despatched in a single evening; but we have changed all that, and now make it an occasion for attacks on the vulnerable points of ministerial policy and demonstrations against all the rest. This year, like last year, Ireland has been the main theme of discussion. Those who thought that the Land Act of last year had procured for England and Scotland a respite from Irish questions for some time to come, and that we should be left free to attend to domestic legislation, are already beginning to realize their mistake. Ireland is still with us and upon us, an ever-pressing difficulty. Irish members and subjects are likely to go on absorbing a large part of the time of the country and its Ministers. As regards its Irish policy the Government has been subjected to a cross-fire. The Parnellite or Nationalist party complain bitterly of the fact that 512 persons, arrested on suspicion under the act of last session which suspended habeas corpus, are now lying in various Irish jails, and threaten that their continued detention will only more inflame the country. While not venturing openly to justify the outrages on private individuals, chiefly farmers who have paid their rent or taken farms from which others have been evicted, they represent these lawless acts as the natural consequence of the irritation produced by the severe action of the Government, and especially of the popular distrust in the good intentions of those who have imprisoned such leaders as Mr. Parnell and Mr. Dillon. So far from professing gratitude for the Land Act, they declare it to be a wholly inadequate remedy; represent the reduction of rents as insignificant; insist on the hardships of tenants already in arrears whom the landlords may evict. And behind all, they not only repeat the old demand for a separate Irish Parliament, but intimate that even the separate Parliament may not be a sufficient concession, and that, in the long run, nothing less than absolute independence will solve the problem. Such language is, of course, seized on and used by the Tories, who attack the Government from the opposite point of view. According to them, the mistake of the Government has been, not severity, but leniency—misplaced leniency in the first instance, which permitted the land agitation to rise to proportions so formidable that even the recent severities have not availed to stop it. "If habeas corpus had been suspended earlier," they say, "if the Land League had not been encouraged by the language which members of the Government employed, our present troubles might have been avoided, and such a revolutionary measure as the Land Act would not even have appeared to be needed."

In condemning the Land Act itself they add two new arguments against it, both of which have produced some effect on public opinion, at least in the upper classes. One is drawn from its working. The judges of the Land Court and assistant commissioners working under them are accused of having dealt harshly with the landlords, of having gone quite too far in reducing rents—of having, in fact, behaved rather as political partisans than as judges. And the other is founded on the fact that, despite the Land Act, the country remains disturbed. "The only ground, say they, "on which you obtained from Parliament this extraordinary change in the law—this measure which unsettled the rights of property and violated plain principles of political economy—was your declaration that nothing less could satisfy the Irish people, your promise that it would act as a sedative under whose genial action sedition and murder would decline and vanish. No such effects have followed. Things are as bad as they were before. You have to keep over five hundred people in jail. Your military and police garrison in Ireland is larger than ever. You have incensed and plundered the upper classes without satisfying the lower. We have sacrificed our brother landowners in Ireland, we have abandoned our cherished principles of legislation, and all in vain. Life and property are just as insecure; the cry for separation becomes louder; you have exhausted your prescriptions, and have no further remedy left." These reproaches produce some impression, and would produce a much deeper one if the Tory leaders had any alternative policy to suggest. But this they neither have now nor have had at any time during the last few years. They say, of course, that it is not their business to do so; that the duty of an Opposition is merely to criticise. Still, as an Opposition is always a government *in posse*, it becomes material to know what the present Opposition would do if it were placed in power; and this they have hitherto not indicated, except by general declarations that the unity of the Empire and the sanctity of property must be upheld.

Whether they would even adhere to the Land Act of last session seems doubtful after the last move which the Conservative leaders have made. The Land Act has now been in operation since last October. A great army of assistant commissioners have been appointed and set to work in hearing the applications of tenants for a reduction of rents—applications based usually on the allegation that they, and not the landlords, have improved the land. In a large majority of cases the rents have in fact been reduced, and ample evidence has been produced that in many cases landlords had screwed up the rents to a point at which the tenant could barely exist. So far, the Act has been justified, and the conduct of the commissioners approved, by those who passed it. But the landlords of course look on the result with far different eyes. They had already suffered seriously in pocket by the default of many tenants to pay rent during the last two or three bad seasons. They now see their income permanently cut down by the reductions which the commissioners are carrying out, while not only the cost of living remains the same, but the charges payable out of their lessened incomes, such as the interest on mortgages, or annuities to brothers or sisters, have not been proportionately reduced, and press very heavily on them. There has been a great deal of positive distress among the minor landlords, which furnishes some palliation for the impatience and violence with which the Land Act and those connected with it have been assailed. Some have urged that compensation should be made from the public treasury to those whose rents are reduced; but as this would involve the absurdity of treating best those who have raised their rents highest, it is felt to be impracticable. Another suggestion is to diminish the interest on mortgages and other similar charges in proportion; but the practical difficulty of doing this so as to be fair to everybody would be immense, and people recoil from so great an interference with ordinary contracts as the reduction of interest on a mortgage loan.

In this state of general discontent and irritation, the Irish landlords, who are, with few exceptions, strong Conservatives, moved in the House of Lords for a committee to inquire into the working of the Irish Land Act. The Government opposed the proposition, declaring not only that it was ridiculous to pull up the young plant before it had begun to strike root, but also that such an inquiry could not fail to alarm the minds of the Irish tenants, and still further unsettle the country. However, the motion was supported by the Conservative leaders, who always command a large majority in the House of Peers, and carried easily after one night's debate. When it had been carried, people began to perceive what serious consequences it might have. The House of Lords is, of course, quite powerless to reverse any legislative action of the House of Commons—so powerless that it did not even venture last year to reject the Land Bill, which it heartily detested. All it could do in this case would be to inquire—that is, to appoint some of its number to call witnesses from Ireland, landlords and tenants, commissioners and assistant commissioners, question them, and report the results of the evidence it had taken, with such suggestions as it pleased to add. No change in the law, or in the action of the Executive, need follow. But the committee would have virtually erected itself into a sort of court of appeal from the Land Commission, would have interrupted its work by summoning its officers as witnesses to London, would have created a feeling that the commissioners were liable to be interfered with, would have made the tenants think they held their lands and paid these lower rents under the old insecurity. In fact, the objections to such an inquiry as the House of Lords had decided on were recognized by moderate men of both parties to be so grave that it was thought the Lords would perhaps repent and recede.

They were not allowed much time for repentance. Their resolution was passed on Friday night, and on Monday Mr. Gladstone gave notice that he would move a resolution in the House of Commons disapproving of any such inquiry at present, as calculated to increase the difficulties of governing Ireland. Such a slap in the face by one House to the other, although not quite without precedent, is rare in modern times, and has, of course, intensified the already prevailing excite-

ment. The House of Commons has a strong corporate spirit which makes it rather enjoy a tussle with the Lords, and the conduct of the latter is generally thought unwise, so that the Ministry may count pretty confidently on the support of their followers. But people ask whether it would not have been better to defeat the committee in some quieter way: whether obstacles could not have been interposed to its sittings, or to its getting the assistant commissioners to come over from Ireland as witnesses; whether, when a little time had elapsed, the project would not have been suffered to drop by its own promoters. "Is not this," they say, "another instance of Mr. Gladstone's impetuosity, which goes too quick, if not too straight, to his mark?" Of course he may be able to show that the state of Ireland is so delicate that an immediate demonstration against the evident wish of the Peers to reverse the policy of the Land Commission is necessary. But in any case the expenditure of time which the discussion of his resolution will involve, must add to the perplexities of the Government. They have kept back all their important bills until the new rules for the procedure of the House of Commons shall have been passed. The first of these rules, that providing a means of putting an end to a debate similar to your "previous question," has been just introduced. It meets with great opposition, and will be discussed for several nights. Other rules sure to provoke long debates follow. The Easter vacation may arrive before these rules have been disposed of, and they will not be finished even then if a great debate on the Irish land question is interposed. Now, the one thing by which the Ministry must preserve, or regain, its credit is the passing of some substantially useful measures. All that goes wrong is charged on the Ministry in power; excuses, however just, are unheeded, results alone impress the public mind. If, therefore, the present Government fails to carry through a good part, at any rate, of the reforms which it promised, that reaction which is always more or less in progress against the Executive will advance apace, and the next general election, reducing the Liberal majority, will leave the two English parties equally balanced, and make the Parnellites, whose numbers a general election would doubtless swell, masters of the situation. This is a prospect that might be expected to mollify the minds of English Tories and Liberals, and dispose them to arrange their differences. But party feeling is far too bitter now for that, nor are there any signs that its bitterness will lessen. Y.

THE CHANGE OF MINISTRY IN EGYPT.

ALEXANDRIA, February 14.

THE fall of Sherif Pasha's Ministry will have been known by telegram long before this letter appears, but the telegraph never proves its insufficiency as a means of communication more remarkably than when it endeavors to convey Egyptian news. In the first place, it tells either too much or too little. In the second place, it necessarily omits all the qualifying circumstances and subtle modifications which are the main staple of Oriental politics. In the third place, the telegraph is usually resorted to while the news is yet only half-fledged, and has not had time to prove that it is no news at all. During the late political crisis nothing could contrast more signally than the complacent temper and undisturbed repose of the European population in Egypt—that is, both in Cairo and Alexandria—and the alarm of readers of English newspapers in England. Though, however, there never was any cause for a moment's real disquietude for the safety of the European settlers in this country, the late events have such an important bearing on the state and near future of Egyptian politics, that it is well worth while examining them with some care, and describing the condition of European opinion here in respect of them.

It will be remembered that Sherif Pasha's Ministry, which has just fallen, was the creature of the military *émeute* which took place last September. It was supposed to be the chosen instrument of the military leader, Arabi Bey, and his friends, and to express their dislike to Riaz Pasha, as representing preëminently the political intervention of France and England. I mentioned in a former letter that it was expected that the session of the Assembly of Notables would result in a conflict of opinion regarding the financial administration. This Assembly has been somewhat magnified in the English papers, and elsewhere, into a popular representative Legislature, and Sir Charles Dilke, not to say the authors of the Queen's speech, showed some disposition to pat Egypt on the back as making its first playful sallies in the direction of popular government. Indeed, the pretentious name, "the National Party," has, like other misleading political titles in other countries, done much to foster a wholly ungrounded belief that party organization in Egypt has reached something more than the most embryonic, not to say the most microscopic, of forms.

The fact is that the elections to the Chamber of Notables were conducted in the most high-handed and superficial of methods, the electors caring little and knowing less about the matter, and the elected, as likely to incur considerable inconvenience from their forced residence in Cairo, being therefore the reverse of solicitous about the matter. I am told on good authority that a very small proportion of the House, of something less than a hundred members, can either read or write—though, of course, this incapacity means less in an Eastern than it would in a Western country. Nevertheless, this body undoubtedly got to work in a business-like sort of way, and, after complimentary and ceremonious overtures on the part of the Khedive, they addressed themselves to the problem of their own permanent constitution and powers. In this way two constitutional factors were brought into opposition: the one, that of this newly constituted body, with its powers and position yet undefined; the other, that of the executive government, led by Sherif Pasha, and weighted by its relationship to what is known as the European Control.

This Control is exercised by French and English representatives, according to the terms of the Decree of November 15, 1879. The Controllers-General "have in financial matters the most complete powers of investigation into all the public services." They "have the rank of Ministers at the Council, and a seat and consultative voice there." The Minister of Finance is bound to "furnish the Control every week with a detailed statement of all receipts and expenditure." This being so, Sherif Pasha, with every desire to gratify those who are adverse to European interference—that is, the strictly limited, but very noisy, number of persons known as the National party—had his hands tied, and could do no more than concede to the new Assembly such powers as could by no possibility interfere with the Control as guaranteed by the Decree of 1879. However, Sherif Pasha and his Council and Ministers did their best, and on a joint committee being appointed to discover terms of arrangement, finally offered as his ultimatum the following concession: Ministers were to be jointly and severally responsible to the Assembly for all acts which might infringe on its rights. The Assembly was to be at liberty to discuss and vote all laws submitted by the Ministry, and to express an opinion on the Budget. No new tax, direct or indirect, could be established in Egypt without having been voted by the Assembly. "Neither Tribute, Public Debt, nor any charges on the country arising out of the Law of Liquidation or any international contract, were to be discussed." The issue was taken on the clause excluding the Assembly from the abstract right to plenary financial interference, and Sherif Pasha resigned.

A new Ministry was immediately formed, and it might be supposed that it entered upon its work prepared to make all the concessions to the Assembly which Sherif Pasha resisted. But, so far as any light is thrown on the situation at present, it does not seem that the terms of the new Constitution will threaten the guarantees for the Public Debt. In estimating the constitutional and political relevancy of this crisis, it will be a great mistake to make a free use of the analogies supplied by more advanced constitutional countries in the West. It is believed here, among persons well able to form an opinion, that little more is meant by the change of Ministry than a desire on the part of the incoming Government to take the place of the outgoing, and a successful raid accomplished in pursuit of that desire. The new Ministry and the leaders of the Assembly, in their public utterances, have striven with each other to manifest their respect for the financial obligations of the state. In fact, it is creditable to Sherif Pasha that he honestly adhered to the only admissible programme, and he is the unfortunate victim of what seems to be little better than a vulgar personal conspiracy.

The general movement, however, has called out the expression of various opinions on the part of the different representatives of European countries in this city, and also in Europe. It is generally felt that the change is a manifestation of hostility to the Anglo-French Protectorate of Egypt. The Italian organs here, and the Italian Government at home, somewhat rejoice in this. The French colony here have little cause for affection for Sherif Pasha, though its members are careful as to how they express themselves in view of the susceptibilities which are aroused in connection with French aggression in North Africa. The English public here and its organ, the *Egyptian Gazette*, seem quite prepared for the obtrusion of any amount of English influence, and regard the loyal support of the Control as the first duty of the new Ministry. But this policy seems hardly to be favored by the English Government at home, if Sir Charles Dilke, the Parliamentary Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs, is its adequate exponent. He, in a recent speech, justly imputes the creation of the Control to Lord Salisbury and other Conservative adversaries. He regards the growth of what he fondly believes to be popular institutions as likely to hasten the time when Egypt can stand alone, and he looks with hopefulness on England's being able to withdraw from Egypt all intervention beyond what is needed for the absolute security of the route to India.

For my own part I do not believe in there being any National party in the sense which this expression carries to the Western mind. But I believe that the happy use of this form of speech, and the opportunity which the military party, led by Arabi Bey, has to do significant and lasting acts in the name of such a party, however fictitious, may possibly operate as a bulwark against a recurrence to merely despotic institutions. Sometimes a bare accidental anticipation of a great idea, though premature, becomes a substitute and real preparation for the establishment of the idea as a fact. The vision becomes true: the dream of freedom and of greatness makes the nation free and

great. In the present case, the cloud on the horizon, which, already much larger than a man's hand, threatens abundance of rain (a reminiscence which, by the way, the unprecedented downpour this year at Alexandria makes especially congenial), is the usurped military power which really controls the civil Government. If the new Assembly succeeds in vanquishing this, the reign of constitutional government is really begun. If it succumbs before it, or acts only as its tool, the miserable tale of a régime of military nominees will be reënacted as in Rome of old, and must sooner or later compel active European interference. A.

Correspondence.

THE AGNOSTIC'S RELIGION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your apparent inclination (*cf.* editorial on "Agnostic Worship" in *Nation* of Feb. 23) to limit religion to recognition and worship of a personal Deity, as well as your correspondent's ("Agnostic") distinction between religion and ethical culture (*Nation* of March 2) raise the general question of the meaning of religion. Sakya Mouni is said to have defined religion as "the perfect agreement of the will with the conscience"; and it is generally recognized that the philosophical basis of the Buddhist religion is agnostic. John Stuart Mill said:

"The essence of religion is the strong and earnest direction of the emotions and desires toward an ideal object, recognized as of the highest excellence, and as rightfully paramount over all selfish objects of desire. This condition is fulfilled by the Religion of Humanity in as eminent a degree, and in as high a sense, as by the supernatural religions, even in their best manifestations, and far more so than in their other."

The late Chauncey Wright, to whom the highest honor has been accorded by philosophical students for fairness and penetration of judgment, gave the following definitions of religion:

"Religion (subjective) means a man's devotion—the complete assent and concentration of his will—to any object which he acknowledges to have a right to his entire service, and supreme control over his life. Religion (objective) means the object or objects whose claims to this supremacy are acknowledged. An irreligious man is, then, first, one who acknowledges no supreme end or objects; or, secondly, one who, though he acknowledge, does not habitually submit his will to such a power" ('Letters of Chauncey Wright,' ed. by J. B. Thayer).

Dr. G. Stanley Hall, in the January *Princeton Review*, without essaying any complete definition, gives an admirable statement of what is, to our mind, the common and essential as opposed to the variable and secondary features of religion, in the view of it as "the popular culture of the highest ideal as opposed to material utility, which dominates so many of our intellectual interests, by reconformity of life to it. It may be formulated as unity with nature, as the readjustment of conduct to conscience, as restored harmony with self, reunion with God, newly awakened love for Jesus, fresh insight into his mind as new impulse to do his will. *The common element is obvious.*" (The italics are ours.)

Is it, then, impossible that men, though agnostic as to the ultimate nature of things, may agree as to the binding character of the moral law and give an absolute loyalty to the ideal for life and society which it enjoins, and, in obedience to such convictions and purposes, form what may properly be called a religious society? Because Christianity has formulated religion in one way—viz., as involving a relation between man and a personal Deity—is it impossible that it should now be formulated in some other, more consistent with the intellectual temper of the age, and yet be as truly religion? W. M. S.

New York City, March 4, 1882.

[We print our correspondent's letter, while denying that we have said anything to call for it. We have said nothing showing an inclination "to limit religion to recognition and worship of a personal Deity." We have not discussed the question—What is religion?—at all. What we have been discussing is Agnostic prayer. We have maintained that prayer is a petition addressed to a power which can grant or deny it; that there is in the Agnostic system no such power; and that, therefore, Agnostic prayer, like Mr. Miln's, is either an imitation or reminiscence of the old worship, or simple ejaculation describing a sensation felt at the moment of utterance—such as, "Oh! for a little rest," or, "If it would only stop raining!" There doubtless may be a "religious society," or a society "for ethical culture," without such prayer or ejaculation, but on this point we have nothing to say.—Ed. Nation.]

PARTIAL PAYMENT OF FIRE INSURANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of February 9 you suggest the possibility of introducing in this country the plan in use by French fire-insurance companies of paying no insurance upon the house in which a fire originates. It seems to me that a compromise between this and the usual plan would act almost as powerfully—one may say practically quite as powerfully—as an incentive to care on the part of the proprietors, while sacrificing far less of the benefits of fire insurance than does the French plan. If the company paid only half the loss sustained on the premises in which the fire originated, the proprietor would feel hardly, if at all, less anxious to adopt all necessary precautions than if the loss would be total; and probably even the deduction of one-fourth of the amount of loss would be quite sufficient to serve the purpose. Of course, a very grave objection to the French rule is, that it goes a great way to destroy the security which is the cardinal object of insurance; a compromise such as has been suggested above might reduce this objection to a minimum, while effecting almost as fully the purpose for which the rule is designed.

Yours, very respectfully, F.

Baltimore, Feb. 28, 1882.

INSURANCE OF ANIMALS AGAINST ACCIDENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The insurance of animals against accident is a regular business in our times. I am not enough of an antiquarian to know whether there is any recorded instance of the practice older than that mentioned in the following instrument, now in my possession (the Norwich mentioned in the agreement is in Connecticut).

Very faithfully yours,

Edward S. Holden.

Washburn Observatory, University of Wisconsin, Madison, March 2, 1882.

"This agreement or Covenant made & Concluded This first Day of June 1790 Between Doctor Lemuel Buswell of Norwich on the one part & Ph. Holden of sd Norwich on the other part Witnesseth—That the sd Buswell on his part hath This Day Delivered to the sd Holden Two three year old Cows of a midling size & Bigness without Calves to be sd Holdens proper Estate and he sd Buswell Doth hereby—Warrent Their Lives against Lightning—and that only for the Space of six years from the above Date—Said Holden on his part Doth promise Bind and oblige him Self and heirs to Deliver to the said Buswell four Cows not Less then three years old nor more then Seven yer old of a midling Size and bigness to be sd Buswells proper Estate. Said four Cows to be Deliverd to Said Buswell or heirs at the End of Six years from the above Date and to be without Calves—and for the True performance here of We have hereunto Interchangably Set our hand ye Day & year above Writen.

"Phinehas Holden
"Lemuel Buswell

"Signed & Deliverd }
In Presence of us }
"Jonathan Smith
"Anne Buswell."

THE PENSION ARREARS ACT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following facts, in a somewhat different form, have already been brought to the notice of two members of Congress; but I have thought it advisable to lay them also before the public in the columns of a paper which has never yet shrunk from the disagreeable task of exposing fraud in all its forms. It is certainly the duty of every right-minded citizen to do all in his power to prevent the consummation of this stupendous raid upon the national treasury, the prospect of which is serious enough to fill every mind with alarm. Writing from a village of barely 150 houses, the number of facts which I present must of necessity be small, but I am confident that if the same inquiry were extended to other places, the results would be the same. Moreover, it does not need many facts to prove what might easily be reasoned out *à priori*.

There are three families in this town whose claims upon the Government purse admit of no dispute. One of the soldiers representing these families was killed in battle, a second died at Andersonville, and a third was severely wounded and disabled. To none of these families has the Arrears of Pensions Act been of the least benefit, for the simple reason that they experienced no delay in securing their pensions. Their claims being admitted from the first, and promptly granted, there was no "back pay" to call for when the act was passed. It is safe to say that, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, the same is true of all those families who have rendered unquestioned service to their country, and whose members yielded up their lives and health in its defence.

I come now to a class of cases where the Pension Arrears Act was of benefit; and what are they? A person returns from the war, and after a few years dies of consumption; another discovers on his return home that he is subject to epileptic fits; a third comes back minus two or three fingers, which he had lost while cleaning his gun. In all these cases there was of course considerable delay, partly for the reason that the claims were not immediately pressed. Indeed, in most cases of this kind it will be found that it was the pension agent himself who took the initiative in proffering his services. Then there was the difficulty of proof, which in some of them was by no means small. It is a significant fact that one of them was considered too desperate to attempt seriously until the Pension Arrears Act itself, with the large sum involved, made all obstacles seem light. Now, whatever delay there was in all these cases was owing to the uncertain character of the claims themselves, the one being proportionate to and a direct index of the other. The Pension Arrears Act ignored this fact, and placed both doubtful and valid claims upon the same footing. It

needs no argument to show the great difference between the services rendered in the two classes of cases, and yet the reward was in the end the same ; with the odds even in favor of the latter, because the money came all at once. The delay was not felt by the claimants themselves to be an injustice. They were abundantly satisfied with what they had secured, and the arrears of pension came to them in the shape of an unexpected boon.

I have a single case that may at first sight seem an exception to the above. It is that of a person whose son died, or was killed, in the war. Here, certainly, any delay was unjust. But let us see. The father was one of the class of poor whites common enough in New England, who brought up his children with as little trouble as possible, and got rid of them at an early age. The son in question had not been under his father's roof for twelve or fifteen years, had moved to a distant part of the country, and it was only by chance that the father learned of his death. The mere fact that he was his father entitled him to a pension, although what difference it made to him whether his son was alive or dead would puzzle any one to say. It is one of the many cases in which the spirit of the law was sacrificed to the letter ; in which the suffering was as remote as the connection of interest.

I now come to the third and last class of cases, the direct product of the Act itself. The passing of that Act was like the sowing of the dragon's teeth. An army of applicants has sprung suddenly into existence, demanding a sum of money large enough to form the nucleus of a new national debt. Of this army this community furnishes four, which, considering it includes all the remaining soldiers but one or two, is doing pretty well. Three of these have absolutely no claim whatever. None of them can show a wound or even an "injury to health"; and in one case at least the connection with the army was decidedly remote. None of them ever thought of applying for a pension until the Act was passed, when the success of previous applicants and the large sum at stake emboldened them to make the attempt.

The fourth case deserves a special mention. It is that of a person eighty years old. How he ever got into the army is a mystery. He claimed to have been hit by a shell, but, as his bodily vigor remained undiminished up to the last year or two of his life, the damage could not have been very great. His mental powers somewhat failed him of late years, so that he had forgotten even the officers of his own regiment. The obliging agent opened the book and read out the list of names, to which he willingly assented. He died lately, of sheer old age, but his heirs, I believe, hope to "realize."

Nor have the large sums of money paid out proved in all cases an unmixed good. A single instance will suffice. One of the persons referred to above received $1,700 in a lump. What was the result? Six months of idleness, at the end of which all the money was spent, with almost nothing to show for it. Nor can anything better be promised in case the present applicants are successful. Such large sums of money, for which so little service has been rendered, cannot fail to exert a demoralizing effect upon the recipients. Originating, then, in a false conception, intended to remedy an injustice where none existed, the Pension Arrears Act has worked nothing but mischief from the start ; but whatever effect it has produced up to the present time sinks into insignificance compared with the evil which it threatens to accomplish. If some of the claims already granted have a doubtful ring, what shall we say of those which the Act itself has created? If delay is indicative of more or less fraud (and all the facts mentioned above confirm it), then, in the face of the seventeen years that have rolled by since the war, the great majority of the 300,000 to 400,000 claims now pending stand condemned. The more we study the evidence before us, the more the conviction deepens that we stand upon the eve of one of the greatest swindles the country has ever witnessed ; and for this state of things the Pension Arrears Act is alone responsible. No half-way measures will remedy the evil. To post the names of the applicants in a conspicuous place would have but little deterrent effect, nor will it be safe to leave it to the public to expose the fraud. The Act itself is a direct bribe to deception. Every consideration of justice and economy, of wisdom and patriotism, demands its repeal.

E. S. Cowles.

Farmington, Ct.

Notes.

It is good news that the Rev. B. F. De Costa, D. D., will become the responsible editor of the *Magazine of American History*, having as his assistant Mr. Henry P. Johnston of the New York Free College. We must not, however, forget the eminent services to the magazine and to American history of the late editor, Mr. John Austin Stevens. May we bespeak the attention of the new conductors to the unlovely aspect of the standard page of the magazine—faulty, as it seems to us, in its proportions and in the typographical character?

Charles Scribner's Sons have in press Mr. Froude's biography of Thomas Carlyle, for simultaneous publication with the English edition. In their pretty series of uniform reprints of Dr. Holland's complete works the story of 'Sevenoaks' is the latest issue.

The fourth volume of the "Geoffrey Crayon" edition of Irving's 'Life of Washington' has now left the press of G. P. Putnam's Sons. The Stuart portrait and the Ceracchi bust are among the numerous illustrations on steel of this part of the work. They have added to their previous list of the works of Edmondo de Amicis his 'Morocco,' published by Cassell & Co. some two years ago.

The Messrs. Putnam's new announcements include the long-expected work by Lieutenant-Commander Henry H. Gorringe, on 'Egyptian Obelisks: Their History and Characteristics.' The size will be folio, and the number of plates forty-nine, two-thirds of which are full-page artotypes. The removal and setting up of the Central Park obelisk will naturally be minutely described. The edition will be limited. Another significant work will be 'Our Merchant Marine : its Rise, Progress, and Decline,' by David A. Wells. Add also the following: Alphonse Courtois's 'Political Economy in One Lesson,' translated by Worthington C. Ford, who is preparing for the same publishers an 'American Citizen's Manual'; 'The Present Religious Crisis,' by Augustus Blauvelt ; Leslie Stephen's new treatise, 'The Principles of Ethics'; and S. S. Cox's 'From Pole to Pyramid.'

D. Lothrop & Co., Boston, announce 'The Mother's Record of the Mental, Moral, and Physical Life of Her Child,' apparently a modification of Dr. Fonssagrives's 'Livret Maternel,' already englished in the 'Mother's Register.'

George W. Harlan has in press a translation of Georg Horn's 'Count Sylvius,' this novelist being little known to American readers ; and 'Last Days of Knickerbocker Life in New York,' by Abram C. Dayton.

We have received a touching memorial of the late celebration of Longfellow's seventy-fifth birthday (February 27) in the shape of the programme of the order of exercises at the Perkins Institution for the Blind, at South Boston, Mass., and a dialogue prepared to be spoken by the inmates by Mrs. Julia R. Anagnos. Both these pieces were printed in raised letters on the Howe Memorial Press. The dialogue involves the whole or portions of the poems "Prometheus," "The Building of the Ship," and the "Psalm of Life."

Hardly inferior in curiosity to the foregoing is the Sale Catalogue of the late Prof. Dr. Bluntschli's library, which comes to us from Heidelberg. This octavo volume, of more than 200 pages, is autographically lithographed, but happily in Roman and not in German script. The last number is 2,141, and in the confusion of the entries it appears to be also the highest. Five pages at the end enumerate the works composed by Bluntschli himself, and his learned addresses. Among the latter we notice 'The Formation of the American Union,' 'The Services of Francis Lieber to Political Science and International Law,' and 'The *Alabama* Question.' It were greatly to be wished that this fine collection of works could be secured for America. Of the nine classes into which it is divided, eight are legal, historic, politico-economical, metaphysical, Belles-lettres and miscellaneous fill nearly twenty-four pages. English works are almost wanting.

We have still something to learn of the Germans in the production of cheap books. It is easy to lower the price, but to maintain style and quality and not to forsake cloth covers for paper, is as yet difficult for our publishers. Spemann's one-mark volumes are still an unsurpassed model in this regard, and now the great Stuttgart house of Cotta has begun a 'Library of Universal Literature' (*Bibliothek der Weltlitteratur*), which will embrace in uniform style the works of Goethe, Schiller, Lessing, Shakspere, Molière, Calderon, Dante, Platen, H. von Kleist, Chamisso, Körner, and Lenau. Mr. Christern sends us the first volume, neatly bound in wine-colored cloth, and sold here at forty cents as the equivalent of the mark, with transportation and duties thrown in. It is one of thirty-six to be devoted to Goethe, and makes a beginning of the poems. The form is handy enough for a coat-pocket, the print clear, the paper excellent, the whole tasteful and a real book. The library will be complete in 110 volumes, and subscribers to the whole will receive gratis four volumes of Goethe, Schiller, Lessing, and Shakspere biography; but subscriptions can be partial, or single volumes will be sold, still for one mark each.

From the Messrs. Rivington, London, we have a plump school edition of the First Part of 'Faust,' which many a solitary reader will find helpful, so copious are the notes—too frequent and too minute, one would think, for the best discipline in the language. They are, however, filled with many interesting comparisons, and there are various historical and chronological appendices, with some attempts at poetical renderings. The various stages of the drama are introduced by "arguments."

—The Federal structure of the nation sometimes perplexes science, as well as politics, seeking a desirable end. Just now the National Board of Health, acting in coöperation with the American Public Health Association and with the American Association for the Advancement of Science, is trying to devise a practical method of establishing a general and efficient system of vital statistics. The collection of these incidents—that is, of births, marriages, and deaths—serves two objects: first, they are social statistics, identifying the individuals for judicial purposes—that is, for purposes of record; and then they have a scientific value, in that the individuals appear simply as units, and, being discussed in the aggregate, illustrate the great vital and eco-

nomic curves of national progress. With registration for identification the general Government has no concern: that affects only the States and their subdivisions. But it is of national interest to preserve the other phase of those facts, and to have them arranged for intelligible comparison, not only reciprocally, but with similar figures collected in other lands. Dr. Billings, charged with the study of this matter for the National Board of Health, has reported to that body his conclusions, as follows: That it is best to use the State machinery by paying to the States at the rate of $2,500 per million inhabitants for such statistics as are required. This he estimates to be about half the cost of collection—the States now bearing the whole cost. He would not pay for imperfect work, the receiving authority being the judge. He would make the National Board of Health, or a permanent branch of the Census Bureau, the recipient, and he regards $25,000 as sufficient to begin the work if Congress will authorize it. One great difficulty is that only about half a dozen States have anything like satisfactory registration laws, and for a long time to come the returns cannot be national. But as it is the first step that costs, it is the first step that begins a great work. Nothing will be accomplished if we wait until a perfected system can be applied. There is every reason to believe that the American and British registrars are in substantial accord as to the nomenclature and classification of diseases, and that a report now in preparation when published will supply a uniform plan to be used by the English-speaking and ultimately by the Continental nations. Of the value of trustworthy vital statistics to sanitary and political science nothing need be said; and if the general direction of the project remain with the gentleman whose name has been mentioned, it is pretty certain that the most intelligent and at the same time most practical scheme will be evolved.

—The numerous instances of late in which the Signal Service has predicted (for New England, for example weather) the precise opposite of that which happened, suggests the query whether such misleading is not unnecessarily increased by the present manner of connoting the subdivisions of the national domain. A prophecy applying to a very small area is more liable, if wrong at all, to be completely wrong, than one which covers a larger territory, some part of which may conform approximately to its terms. It will not from any cause be questioned that a uniformity in size of subdivisions is desirable. The difficulty would arise in drawing boundary lines. Should boundaries be geographical and follow divides (as on the present weather maps), or social and political (as in our atlases), or meteorological, with reference to the average direction of atmospheric movements; or should they be opportune to what is likely to prove lucky? As between these four conflicting methods, the real purpose of the service would be best subserved by what might be denominated opportunism. But, before this could be adopted, the style of subdivision third in the order just enumerated would most likely have to be experimented with. Its application would consist in paying exclusive heed to the quarters from which storms first enter the United States, and naming subsequent regions by eight-hourly progress from these starting points. Thus, in winter, when storms originate on the water, and therefore the Pacific and Gulf States have the initiative in them, the first eight hours' average journey from either coast might be termed the Windward District; and the last eight hours', comprising, perhaps, the eleven States northeast of a line drawn from Cleveland to Washington, the Leeward District. In summer, Kansas, Nebraska, and Dakota would constitute the Initiative District. But no system can succeed under the present arbitrary custom of "reducing" barometric readings to what they "would be" if a place were at sea-level and of standard temperature. Under this custom, areas of low pressure will always seem to suffer grotesque changes of all kinds—direction, size, and unity—whenever they advance to regions where conditions will require them to incur a great "reduction." So long as this manipulating of the figures is considered necessary, the safest manner of dividing (safest not merely for the reputation of the leaders but for the profit of the led), would be empirical: let districts where experience has shown most errors to be made be either cancelled, or apportioned out among the neighboring divisions—as in political gerrymandering.

—It has been difficult to make out from the accounts of Mr. Wilde's appearances in Western cities whether he was really having a nice æsthetic time, or whether the coarse, unfeeling vulgarians among whom he was laboring were "making it hot" for the æsthete "under the old Flag." All doubts, however, have been set at rest by the æsthete himself, in a pleasant letter addressed by him to Joaquin Miller, whom he met and loved in this city, and now, it seems, even in far St. Louis, yearns to meet again. For himself and "the cause" he says he has "no fear as regards the future," and the reasons he gives are strongly put. He admits that in one or two insignificant towns there has been some "petty and profitless vulgarity," but he declares that he should think it as absurd to regard this as an indication of the "real spirit of a sane, strong, and simple people" as to "judge of the strength and splendor of sun and sea by the dust that dances in the beam and the bubble that breaks on the wave." "Slaver and folly," says Mr. Wilde in his simple early-English way, "have their way for a season," but his time is much occupied, and he has none to waste on "the few provincial newspapers which have so vainly assailed me." He has a few incidental remarks to make, however, on an "ignorant and itinerant libeller of New England," who, it seems, has been "lecturing from village to village in ostentatious isolation," though in connection with what lyceum bureau Mr. Wilde does not say. He does not mention his name either, but describes him as a "literary gamin," and his talk as mere "brawling," "mouthing," and "chatter." He expresses a desire to know who "this scribbling anonymuncle" is, that he "should write of him"—a question which, however, hardly calls for a reply from Mr. Miller, as it is unlikely that he can furnish any information of which Mr. Wilde is not already in possession. In fact, what Mr. Wilde does not know about him may be described as not worth knowing. He is, it seems, an "apostle of inhospitality," and, worse than this, "delights to defile, desecrate, and to defame the gracious courtesies he is unworthy to enjoy"; and Mr. Wilde asks Miller to tell him how, "youth being so glorious, art so godlike, and the very world about us so full of beautiful things, and things worthy of reverence, and things honorable," one should stop to listen to the "lucubrations" of this person. How indeed? But his name ought to be given. He cannot really be an anonymuncle. There can hardly be more than one such creature in the lecture field in what Mr. Wilde handsomely calls "grand old Massachusetts." If the following rather pointed inquiry addressed by Mr. Wilde to Mr. Miller—"Who are these scribes who, passing with purposeless alacrity from the police news to the Parthenon, and from crime to criticism, sway with such serene incapacity the office which they so lately swept?"—is intended to cover his case, it would look as if the fellow stuck at nothing. His being a criminal is not, perhaps remarkable, and that may account for his interest in police news. But why should he sweep out offices? Can Mrs. Howe throw any light on these points? The letter will be interesting to her, for it contains not only this strong, manly denunciation of his Massachusetts slanderer, but a suggestion here and there of possibilities in the way of that charming innocent prattle which so delighted his Boston hostess. But at this, of course, he is better when anonymuncles do not rouse him to indignation.

—A law passed some years ago to define more particularly the status of the staff corps of the navy has recently been the subject of administrative interpretation, with the result of causing such a rearrangement of the junior medical officers as could not have been originally contemplated, and as works in the case of many a grievance and, it would appear, in the eyes of nearly all, an unfortunate change. It has been the custom, founded on orders and enactments, since 1824, for newly-appointed assistant surgeons to take rank with each other according to the time at which they passed the examining board, all those entering within one year being regarded as the class of that year. After three years they are reëxamined to determine their fitness to remain in the service and to receive further promotion. They thus become "passed assistant surgeons." Now, it has been the custom to make this examination also a test of the comparative as well as the absolute merits of these officers, and to assign them positions of relative seniority by commission accordingly. Of this they were apprised upon entering the service, and it is supposed that the prospect of gaining or losing rank, as the case might be, has had a beneficial influence upon their habits of study and their professional life. The legal question, however, having been raised, the Attorney-General decides that the law of 1871, enacted for a different purpose, by its terms forbids any rearrangement among themselves of those once commissioned. As they were appointed in the order of time, so must they remain, irrespective of the action of any later examining board, only provided they can reach the minimum degree of merit that permits their retention. Hence, to take a suppositive case, the man who enters in February of one year must take precedence over him who entered in November of the same year by as many numbers as there have been successful intermediate candidates, although the November man may stand first and the February man eighth in order of merit as determined by the triennial examination. Naturally, those who lose rank by this new reading of the eleven-year-old statute feel aggrieved—for the whole list of passed assistant surgeons is being rearranged—and, as becomes high-spirited men, it is said that most of those who would be helped by it are indisposed to avail themselves of its provisions. The officers interested are seeking legislative action to make the existing law conform to the ancient usage, which it would seem the interest of the service requires; and, as no appropriation of money is involved, it is probable that a temperate and simple explanation of the facts would lead to the asked-for relief at the hands of Congress.

—The Cologne *Gazette* of February 11 contains an article on Berthold Auerbach by one of his most intimate friends, Paul Lindau, in which the following points are of interest. Until within two or three years, Auerbach had preserved a youthful freshness and vigor quite remarkable for his years. Then suddenly, almost in a day, he became a decrepit old man, propped on a heavy cane, short of breath, and evidently de-

sirous of the end. Hardly another man was so painfully affected by the anti-Semitic agitation as he, the Jew and German poet. To this topic he ever recurred with fresh complaint. At one of their last meetings Lindau urged him not to make it so much a personal matter; but Auerbach replied, "You cannot really understand how it does affect us. Here we have toiled all our life in the service of the German spirit, only to be told at the end, by the first vagabond: 'Pack up your bundle and clear out; you are not one of us.'" It was characteristic of Auerbach to attach importance to seeming trifles and make them an object of serious consideration. To this peculiarity his conversation owed much of its charm and suggestiveness. It was impossible to be with him five minutes without getting a picturesque simile, clever comparison, or happy thought to carry away in the memory. And these suggestive expressions were not in the nature of *aperçus*, but the product of incessant mental activity. Careless, every-day observations never crossed his lips. All he spoke was manuscript ready for the press. His invitations, congratulations, condolences were not of the stereotyped pattern, but partook of his individual peculiarities. Although hardly more than of medium size, there was something patriarchal about his whole appearance. He spoke slowly and cautiously, and even in a tête-à-tête he appeared to be addressing a large circle of hearers. In his dress he was peculiar—his coat always buttoned up to the neck—and Lindau says he could hardly imagine him in an overcoat of the period. Among his friends whose memory he especially cherished were Uhland, David Strauss, the sculptor Rietschel, and Ferdinand Hiller; and he was intimately associated with all the artists and authors in Berlin. He did not undervalue his own gifts, and often manifested his convictions on this point in a harmless and naïve manner. His slightly South-German accent he carefully and intentionally preserved to the end of his life.

—In the issue of January 28 the *Gegenwart* begins a series of articles in which prominent politicians, authors, savants, and artists are to give accounts of their experiences—their successes and failures, the circumstances under which their principal works were executed, their general aims, etc. The first of these *Autokritiken* is by Ernest Legouvé. It is entitled "Von meiner Collaboration mit Eugène Scribe," and gives some interesting details concerning the manner in which Scribe received and acted upon the advice of his friends in dramaturgic matters. The principal advisers of Scribe and of Legouvé himself were the young Mahérault, son of the director of the Théâtre-Français, and Germain Delavigne, brother of the distinguished dramatist. Germain and his brother Casimir used to meet Scribe every Thursday to discuss plans for new plays, criticise manuscripts, and exchange hints or even subjects—as, for instance, the "Diplomatist," the plot of which Scribe had obtained of Casimir in return for his "Princesse Aurélie." One day Casimir came to Scribe in great mental agony because he could not find a situation for the last act of one of his plays. Scribe replied that he was just completing a vaudeville the dénouement of which would equally suit his piece. It was accepted, and the public did not discover the fraud, although the comedy failed, whereas the vaudeville proved a success. Scribe was always ready to profit by every good piece of advice, but impatiently rejected whatever seemed to him trivial or inconsistent with his talent and style. Germain, after hearing a new piece, was immediately ready with his criticisms, whereas Mahérault always took the manuscript home and made a careful examination of it. Legouvé is in possession of a number of note-books containing his analyses, often of ten or twelve pages, of manuscript plays by Scribe.

—The meeting of the Royal Astronomical Society in January was largely devoted to the discussion of a paper by Mr. Maunder, of the Greenwich Observatory, on the employment of photography in observing the transit of Venus in December next. Attention was called to the fact that the coming transit would occur at very nearly the epoch of the maximum solar activity, with every probability, therefore, that there would be a fair number of spots and faculæ—the chief feature of Mr. Maunder's paper being the suggestion that these markings should be used as reference-points for the planet, instead of measuring the distances from Venus to the sun's limb, as was done with the photographs of the transit of 1874, which (in the case of the English parties) gave most discouraging results. It does not appear, from what the Astronomer Royal said on that occasion, that the British expeditions would not employ the photographic method at all. However, from the *Procès-verbaux* of the International Conference for the Transit of Venus, 1882, held in Paris in October last (recently published by the French Ministry of Public Instruction), this method of observing the transit was plainly in disrepute with the members of the Conference, and photography was not recommended, *although it was recognized that it might prove useful at certain stations.* If by "photography" was meant the form of its application in the British observations of the transit of 1874, we should unhesitatingly commit ourselves to this same conclusion, which, nevertheless, could not have been reached by any but a conference which closed its eyes to the results obtained from the employment of the photographic method which is distinctively American. All this is very easy to understand, however, on the simple statement of the fact that the United States had no representative in this conference.

—At its second session, the President, M. Dumas, announced that the French Government intended to occupy stations in Florida, Cuba, Martinique, and Mexico, and four others in South America; Dr. Foerster, of Berlin, stated that Germany would occupy two posts in the Southern United States, one in the Argentine Republic, and one at the Falkland Islands; the Danish Government and that of the Netherlands would each equip a single party; Spain intended to organize two stations, one at Porto Rico and the other in Southern Cuba; the Austro-Hungarian Government would send an expedition to South America; observations would be made at Coimbra and Lisbon, and perhaps also in one of the Portuguese colonies; and, finally, Mr. Stone, of Oxford, the Chief of the British Transit of Venus Commission, made a report of the stations proposed by the English Government, sixteen in number, the principal centres being the Cape with three stations, Australia with the Observatories of Sydney and Melbourne, New Zealand, and the Antilles. Expeditions were also proposed for the Bermudas, Madagascar, and possibly the Falkland Islands. The most important outcome of the Conference, however, is probably that suggested by M. Hirsch, of Neuchâtel—viz., the advisability of creating an international *bureau des calculs*, to discuss not only all the observations of the coming transit, but those of the transit of 1874 as well. The Conference finally expressed the wish that the French Government would consent to communicate, through diplomatic channels, with such other governments as were represented in the Conference, or who might be interested in the transits of Venus, in order to submit to them the proposition for convoking an International Conference on the Transits of Venus, after the return of the 1882 expedition, that an understanding might be established as to the means to be adopted to obtain the best and promptest use of the observations of the transits of 1874 and 1882, and in particular to inquire if it would not be well to create a temporary international bureau for that purpose.

—Madame Patti, "the Paganini of vocal virtuosity," as a Russian critic has justly called her, was never heard to such advantage in this city as on Thursday, when she appeared at the Germania Theatre as *Rosina* in the "Barber of Seville." The history of music records many operas which were composed with especial reference to the gifts and peculiarities of some distinguished prima donna. Rossini's popular comic opera was not written for Adelina Patti, but all its vocal and dramatic traits are so admirably adapted to her style and manner that no one would be surprised if he were told that she sat as a model before the Italian master while he sketched his score. It was difficult to decide what most to admire in her *Rosina*, whether her gay, mischievous, coquettish conduct in general, or the occasional expression of pouting impatience at the impertinence of her guardian. For once she disdained to distract attention from her features and her singing by the constant change and display of elegant and expensive toilets and jewelry. In the simple girlish attire of *Rosina* she looked again as she must have looked in the prime of her youth and beauty; and as she lightly tripped across the stage, warbling with all the ease and freedom of a canary bird, the most austere critic must have forgotten for the moment the æsthetic objections that can be urged against her art-career. It is all nonsense to talk about the lost beauties of Patti's voice. We did not hear her ten years ago, but we cannot believe that her voice was more perfect than it is to-day. Of course no singer's voice at forty is the same as it was at twenty; but in Patti's case the probable loss of some of the sparkle of the higher notes is more than compensated by the sonority and richness of the lower notes. Her registers are so beautifully equalized that a superficial observer may easily be led to assume that their clang-tint is identical and invariable. More careful attention, however, shows—what the use of a Helmholtz resonator would doubtless prove with scientific exactness—that whereas her matchless high staccato notes have the soft and simple tone-quality of a flute, her middle and lower notes are characterized by the presence of those overtones which give to the tones of an old Italian violin and viola that peculiar richness we all admire so much, because every single note here is a full chord in itself. In the "Ombra Leggiera" from "Dinorah," which she introduced in the music lesson, the perfection of her vocalization was most fully displayed, and her "efforts" (which apparently were no efforts at all) were rewarded by a double encore, and by applause which was as demonstrative as it was genuine. The support, as far as chorus and orchestra went, was much better than on Monday night, and reflects credit on the conductor, Signor D'Auria. The acting by the assisting vocalists was tame and seldom funny.

—Three orchestral and three vocal numbers were on the programme of the Symphony Society's fifth concert—the Introduction and Finale from Wagner's "Tristan and Isolde," Goldmark's "Sakuntala" overture, and Beethoven's Third Symphony; the air "Furibundo spira il vento," from Handel's "Partenope," and two songs by Schumann—"Ich grolle nicht" and "The ring upon my finger." Although the Introduction to "Tristan and Isolde" is, of course, in-

tended to be played at the opening of the drama, there is yet a disadvantage in having it at the head of a concert programme, because the musicians have not yet "warmed up" to their task sufficiently to infuse into the wondrous bars of this composition the volcanic fire and passion demanded by them. With the regular orchestra at a German opera-house the case is different, as the musicians play together every evening, and therefore remain warm all the time; although even in their case it is to be noted that the last act of an opera is almost invariably played with more vigor and spirit than the first. To this fact in part may be attributed the comparatively unsatisfactory interpretation of this sublime composition, and the equally grand finale, on Saturday evening. Contrary to the usual custom, it was better done at the rehearsal on Thursday afternoon than at the concert. The finale was taken a trifle too slow, the rhythmic *nuances* were not all observed, the grand climax was imperfectly led up to, the melody was not always sufficiently accentuated and dwelt upon, and there were even some positive omissions and wrong notes that did not improve the general effect. The reception of this number was, therefore, naturally not so enthusiastic as it always is at Vienna, for instance, where it gives rise to scenes of wild excitement when played by the Philharmonic Society, under Hans Richter's direction. The Beethoven symphony was interpreted in a more artistic manner, as was also the "Sakuntala" overture, a piece which is much more effective to-day than it will be ten years hence. Goldmark might be called one of the popularizers of modern music. Without possessing any marked originality, he cleverly assimilates the latest harmonic, melodic, and instrumental inventions of greater minds, and presents them anew in an easily intelligible form. To a certain extent, therefore, his works may be compared to magazine articles on Darwinism or on some other modern scientific principle; and they are particularly useful to people who lack time or opportunity to go to the original fountains of ideas. In the absence of an analytical programme, the word "Sakuntala" is little more than a distinguishing title for the composition, which is really a sort of symphonic poem. Few people are sufficiently familiar with the contents of Kalidasa's drama of "Sakuntala" to judge of the appropriateness of the music; and the overture can therefore be judged by them only from a purely musical point of view. Of the vocal selections the Schumann songs, together with an encore, were well sung by Miss Lena Little. But the old-fashioned Handel air was neither well sung nor is it in itself a piece of any musical value whatsoever. Handel's broadly melodious arias are as good to-day as they were in his own time, and cannot be heard too often; but his highly ornamented rococo arias seem as unæsthetic and unnatural to our ears as a full-blown crinoline or Queen Elizabeth ruff would to our eyes.

—The "Historische Gesellschaft" of Berlin, which has for several years published a thin quarterly entitled *Mittheilungen aus der historischen Literatur* (containing reviews of new books, many of them of great value), began, four years ago, the publication of an annual survey of historical literature, under the name of *Jahresberichte der Geschichtswissenschaft*. Two volumes (1878 and 1879) have already been published. The first volume was incomplete in some departments; the second volume is in sixty-eight chapters, grouped in the three divisions of Antiquity, Middle Ages, and Modern Times, each chapter under the charge of a specially qualified person—as, Jirecek for the Southern Slavs, and Wattenbach for Palæography. These editors are taken from all parts of Germany, sometimes even from other countries. The work is for the most part compendiously done, and we notice that this is especially the case with the United States; even a volume of over 800 pages does not allow a detailed discussion of all that has been accomplished in the field of history. In many cases, however, we have clear and valuable statements of the net results to historical science of the labors of the several authors. An index gives the title and page of every book noticed.

GARDINER'S CHARLES I.—I.

The Fall of the Monarchy of Charles I., 1637-1649. By Samuel Rawson Gardiner, LL.D. London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1882. 2 vols.

Of Mr. Gardiner's noble labors in the service of historical truth, and of the rich fruits which these labors have already borne, no one can speak or write except in terms of the profoundest respect and admiration. His spirit of laborious research, of perfect truthfulness, and of student-like seriousness is absolutely above praise. The results of his studies are already more than a sufficient reward for twenty years of earnest work. He has not, indeed, produced books which sell like a new novel, and which with the charms have many of the defects of romances. He has not startled the world with a single new paradox, or, what is much the same thing, perplexed the world with a single new fallacy. He has not wasted ingenuity in proving that Charles was the best and wisest of kings, nor has he attempted to establish in epigrammatic sentences that good histories must of necessity be dull, or that Mr. Cobden was as true an historian as Lord Macaulay. These and the like achievements he has left to littérateurs or professors, and instead of entertaining has instructed the world, by placing before every intelligent reader by far the best statement to be found in the English language of the ascertainable facts with regard to English history, from the day when James I. ascended the throne to the day when Charles I. hoisted his standard at Nottingham.

If such an account contains of necessity many more facts which are true than which are new, let no one suppose that it is wanting either in freshness or interest. Intelligent students can hardly study Mr. Gardiner's volumes without feeling that in some respects their views of the Stuart period undergo a change. The facts are set clearly before the reader's eyes. Different persons will, according to their different judgment or bias, draw different conclusions from these facts. Few, it is probable, will in all respects agree with Mr. Gardiner's own inferences; but every one will feel that from this author he receives what is a much better thing than any inference which an historian can draw—the facts on which a thoughtful man can form a judgment for himself. The one complaint which a person bent solely on the search after truth can make of his guide is, that Mr. Gardiner has, to a certain extent, confused the duties of a fair historian with the totally different duties of a charitable and sympathetic moralist, and has thus in his very passion for fairness shed a kind of moral haze over persons and events that ought to be looked at simply in the dry light of historical narrative. The complaint is, as far as it goes, a true one, and those who most cordially admire Mr. Gardiner's work, as also the spirit of his workmanship, may feel that because of their respect for his labors they can criticise, and ought to criticise, with freedom a fault which, if fault it is to be called, is but the exaggeration of a virtue, and flows from that passion for sympathetic analysis which is the peculiarity of our day. The aim of this article is to show by a few examples the nature of the fault which may be imputed to Mr. Gardiner, and the mode in which it affects his views of English history.

Mr. Gardiner brings out with extraordinary clearness a circumstance which, it may be suspected, many of his readers have never realized—viz., that Charles betrayed Strafford chiefly out of fear of the mob:

"All day long the street in front of Whitehall was blocked by a shouting multitude. Every minute it was expected that an attempt would be made to dash in the doors. The mob took up the cry that the Queen-mother was at the bottom of the mischief, and guards had to be despatched to St. James's to preserve her from attack. . . . It was nine in the evening before Charles, wearied out with long mental conflict, gave way at last. 'If my own person were only in danger,' he said, with tears in his eyes as he announced his resolution to the Council, 'I would gladly venture it to save Lord Strafford's life; but seeing my wife, children, and all my kingdom are concerned in it, I am forced to give way unto it.'"

"*Charles sinned against his conscience. Let him who has seen wife and child, and all that he holds dear, exposed to imminent peril, and has refused to save them by an act of baseness, cast the first stone at Charles.*"

It is the last words (not, of course, underlined by Mr. Gardiner) which exhibit in an exaggerated form his misconception of an historian's proper functions. Charles's course of action was thoroughly base. On this there is no question whatever. For Strafford's offences Charles was personally responsible. He had engaged to protect Strafford's life; he had undoubtedly the legal right to do so. Men in whom he could trust told him his duty:

"Juxon advised him to refuse his assent to the bill. Williams argued that the King had a public as well as a private conscience, and that he ought to submit his judgment to those who were learned in the law. . . . Charles still hesitated; his soul was wrung with agony. The Bishops were summoned a second time. This time Usher was amongst them, and Usher sided with Juxon. Williams persisted in the view which he had taken of the King's duty."

No person believes that Charles let Strafford die out of respect for law. Charles's own words, reported by Mr. Gardiner, strike away his last excuse. The King let a servant whom he believed to be innocent go with his assent to the scaffold, because he feared for the life of his wife and children. These are the admitted facts, stated with the utmost honesty by Mr. Gardiner. Then what is the meaning of Mr. Gardiner's reflection? The baseness of Charles's act nothing can palliate. Reference to the spirit of the age tells more against the King than for him. Whatever the faults of the seventeenth century, it was a time when persons of high position were trained to high physical courage, and Charles's whole theory of life rested on the personal power and personal responsibility of the Crown. Mr. Gardiner's moral reflection amounts to this—namely, that under Charles's temptations, if his character, training, and position be taken into account, we might any one of us have acted as basely as he did. Grant for a moment that this is so: the plea which is made for Charles may be made in favor of Catiline, of Borgia, of Robespierre, of Lefroy, of Guiteau—of any criminal, great or small, who has ever existed or ever will exist. Whether this kind of defence, which, if it avail any one, is available for every one, deserves the consideration of moralists, may be a question. That it is quite out of place in the mouth of an historian is obvious. Moral guilt—that is, the amount of blame which a man may deserve for his faults or his vices in the eye of Heaven, or in the judgment of his own conscience—is not a matter of which an historian can be the judge. What a narrator of past events is bound to do,

as far as it lies in his power, is to narrate these events with complete accuracy and truthfulness, to tell his audience what were the actions of the men of the past, and to trace as far as may be the motives from which these actions probably proceeded. In analyzing these motives he must often dwell on the difference between the sentiments of different ages, and therefore, no doubt, will indirectly in some cases lessen and in others increase the condemnation with which we regard the crimes of other times. But the narrator's duty is to narrate, not to judge. Once let him fancy that it is his function to estimate moral guilt, and it is more than probable that even his account of facts will suffer from an unconscious moral bias.

It is, for example, in the instance under consideration, somewhat difficult to feel sure that Mr. Gardiner has not overrated the imminence of the peril under which Charles's courage gave way. Until the outbreak of the Civil War he was always, unless it be on the very occasion when Strafford's life was sacrificed, personally free. His position was utterly different from that of Louis XVI. before the flight to Varennes. He conspired against the Parliament; he attempted to arrest the five members; he made open preparation for civil war. Yet neither the Parliament nor the London mob dared lay a hand upon him. His death was admittedly a shock to the vast majority of the English people. Is it easy to believe that in May, 1641, the Parliament or the city would have tolerated the murder of the King, his wife, or his children?

"Ruinous as his [Strafford's] success would have been, in his devotion to the rule of intelligence he stands strangely near to one side of the modern spirit. Alone amongst his generation, his voice was always raised for practical reforms. Pym and Hampden looked upon existing society as something admirable in itself, though needing to be quickened by a higher moral spirit and to be relieved from the hindrances thrown in its way by a defective organization. Strafford regarded that society as full of abuses, and sought, in the organization which was ready to his hand, the lever by which those abuses might be removed. In happier times Pym and Strafford need never have clashed together, save in the bloodless contests of Parliamentary debate."

Here, again, is seen Mr. Gardiner's leaning toward a mistaken standard of fairness. It is certainly true that in modern times Pym and Strafford could clash only in bloodless contests; for the strength of the state happily prohibits every political contest which is not bloodless. But the impression which Mr. Gardiner's words are, one must take it, meant to convey is, that Strafford and Pym differed only in seeing different sides of truth. This impression, though happily rendered innocuous by the perfect truthfulness of Mr. Gardiner's narrative, is, to judge from that narrative itself, utterly misleading. Strafford may have possessed great administrative powers. One may well take Mr. Gardiner's word for this, though he does not make the grounds of his belief in Strafford's great talents quite so clear as could have been wished. But of Strafford's zeal for the public good; of his possession of any grand ideas of government whatever; of his enthusiasm for the rule of intelligence, it is all but impossible to find the proof in Mr. Gardiner's pages. The statesman who, without Laud's religious fervor, supported Laud's narrow scheme of church government; who, being supposed to entertain great schemes, was entirely wanting in patience, and constantly gave way to violent passion; who, being credited with high public spirit, supported the debasement of the currency; and who staked the safety of the Crown upon an utterly mistaken view of English feeling, has, to say the least, a very doubtful claim to the merit, whatever it may be worth, of standing near to one side of the modern spirit.

The plain fact appears to be that if men's actions and policies are to be judged historically, Strafford was, on the great issues of his day, as distinctly in the wrong as Pym was distinctly in the right. But this plain fact is exactly the truth which Mr. Gardiner, on principle, refuses to admit. He cannot believe that at any great crisis of human history parties were divided by the definite line of right and wrong. Profoundly impressed with the truth that the problems raised by the great rebellion were problems of great intricacy; still more impressed by the knowledge that good men and wise men took opposite sides in the contest which rent English society asunder, he apparently comes to the conclusion (which is in itself very doubtful) that there was as much goodness and wisdom to be found among the supporters of Charles as among the supporters of the Commonwealth, and impliedly draws the further still more doubtful conclusion that the virtues of the leaders on each side were equal. This idea is connected with a singular kind of optimism. Mr. Gardiner appears unwilling to admit that the undoubted failure of the Puritan movement worked any permanent injury to England. He intimates, in more than one passage, that the bitter experience of the Civil War led the English people to the discovery of the true cures for the political and the religious difficulties which perplexed and divided the men of the seventeenth century. The institution of the Cabinet removed the practical objections to Parliamentary government. The maintenance of a state church, surrounded by societies of tolerated Dissenters, satisfied the religious sentiment of the majority of the people, and at the same time recognized the claim to individual freedom of belief. Admit that a cabinet and the policy embodied in the Toleration Act afforded the true and satisfactory answer to the questions which divided Strafford and Pym, and the consequence appears not unnaturally to follow that you may sympathize both with the statesman who supported the prerogative, and with the statesmen who struggled to establish the sovereignty of Parliament.

Unfortunately, the optimistic view of English history is, like most forms of optimism, but partially true. Cabinet government is not without its evils; the ecclesiastical system under which the national church ceased to be the church of the whole nation, and Dissenters, giving up the claim to religious and civil equality, had to put up with mere toleration, is scarcely a system which has, or ever had, any title to be more than a very unsatisfactory makeshift. A writer less inclined than Mr. Gardiner to hold that there is good in all things might plausibly maintain that the partial failure of the Puritan revolution, or, in other words, the partial success of the cause represented by Strafford and Laud, has been the source of evils to England which the lapse of centuries has not entirely removed. However this may be, the crimes of Strafford can hardly be palliated by the fact that he did not foresee a system of government which, could he have foreseen it, he would in all probability have detested as heartily as does Prince Bismarck. Nor can the cruelties of Laud be made to lose something of their brutality by the undoubtedly true reflection that the Archbishop could not anticipate the day in which the Church of England would be rich and powerful while Independents and Baptists worshipped peacefully in their own chapels, undisturbed by any fear of losing either their goods or their ears.

Mr. Gardiner's conception of the kind of impartiality which ought to be displayed by a fair-minded historian, and also his tendency toward optimism, are each to a certain extent defects which occasionally give a false tone or color to his judgment of men and of policies. But these defects are, after all, but slight faults. They are the result of an almost inevitable reaction against the over-confident dogmatism which has too often been the predominant trait of English historians. Mr. Gardiner commenced his labors some twenty-two years ago. "Macaulay and Forster were then in possession of the field. The worship of the Puritans was in the ascendant, and to suggest that it was possible to make out a reasonable case for Bacon and Strafford was regarded as eccentric. All this is changed now. Few are to be found to say a good word for Puritanism, and the mistakes of the Long Parliament are unveiled with an unsparing hand." "I have striven," he adds, "with what success I know not, to take a broader view of the deeds of the great men who made this England in which we live, and to realize and measure the greatness of Pym as I formerly attempted to realize and measure the greatness of Strafford." The attempt has been assuredly crowned with deserved success, and critics who think that even sympathetic advocacy has its weakness will recognize that Mr. Gardiner's treatment of a critical era has been such as to throw upon it a flood of new light.

MYRON HOLLEY.

Myron Holley; and What He Did for Liberty and True Religion. [By Elizur Wright.] Boston: Printed for the Author. P. O. Box 109. 1882. 12mo, pp. 328.

"THE greatest of the three college-bred sons" of Luther Holley, of Salisbury, Conn., has hitherto eluded the drag-net of our biographical dictionary-makers. His two brothers and his present biographer (likewise a native of Litchfield County) already have a place in one or other of our American books of reference, and doubtless the eulogium before us will eventually cause the name of Myron Holley to be added to the printed roll of American worthies. Briefly, what Mr. Wright contends for is, that Holley, without originating the idea of the Erie Canal, was the most efficient and indefatigable promoter of its construction, under circumstances at once highly honorable and highly disastrous to himself; that he was the virtual founder of the Liberty party; that the State of New York owes his heirs the compensation which it denied to him; and that his character and public services entitle him to grateful remembrance by his countrymen.

In what Myron Holley "did for liberty" Mr. Wright would have us reckon the Canal itself. While the South, the Missouri Compromise gained, had large visions of Northern commerce bowing the knee to King Cotton, and Charleston rivalling the greatness of London and Rome—

"while the ingenious Southern statesmen were dreaming these dreams, Myron Holley was patiently and enthusiastically digging that ditch through the marshes and swamps of New York, which in 1825 was to let the enterprising, well-schooled white free laborers into the vast forests of Ohio, Indiana, and Michigan, and into the boundless prairies of Illinois and Wisconsin. These became rich States, while, as to the mass of the white population, all the South became poor. More and more the great trading metropolis of the East, New York, derived its wealth rather from this new West than from the South. By ten years after the Missouri Compromise, so cunningly contrived by Henry Clay, the North and New West were ripe for a moral movement to emancipate public sentiment from its servility to the slaveholders" (p. 228).

Mr. Wright gives a graphic picture of the Western wilderness to which the Canal furnished easy access, and quotes largely and discursively from De Witt Clinton's entertaining journal of the exploration of 1810 made by himself, Holley, and the other commissioners of that date along

the projected line of the Canal. The next episode in Mr. Holley's career was his earnest espousal of anti-masonry, consequent upon the disappearance of Morgan and the intense excitement produced by it in Central New York, where Mr. Holley's home then was. The last was his participation in the anti-slavery movement, in the winter of 1837-38, which we may assume to have been decided by the recent murder of Lovejoy, though Mr. Wright (pp. 239-243) connects it with Mr. Clay's presentation of the gag-law petition in February of the former year; his engagement as an anti-slavery lecturer; and finally, his proposal at a State Anti-Slavery Convention in Cleveland, in 1839, "to make an immediate nomination of President and Vice-President." Defeated here by his fellow-abolitionists, he succeeded later in a convention at Warsaw, N. Y., where "was made the first Presidential nomination for the celebrated 'Log Cabin and Hard Cider Campaign' of 1840," and James G. Birney's name was presented to the country for that office. This nomination was confirmed April 1, 1840, at Albany, by a Convention of which Holley was the master spirit—the head of the committee on business and resolutions, of which Mr. Wright himself was a member.

At this point the biography touches upon debatable ground in the history of the anti-slavery movement, and becomes a valuable, if one-sided, contribution to that history. We cannot go into the details of the great division of the abolitionists in 1840 into Old and New Organization. Mr. Wright candidly confesses that one of the motives of the secession—the prejudice against women as equal colaborers in the reform—was narrow and illiberal; but he leaves it to be inferred that time has justified the political motive. This, however, will, on impartial examination, prove not so clear as that an anti-slavery party was the inevitable product of the non-resistant, non-voting agitation steadfastly adhered to from 1830 to 1840 and *usque ad finem*. It is only fair to say that Mr. Wright's remarks on this score are not conspicuously in self-defence, and not at all in self-glorification where some of the praise which he accords to Holley should rightfully be also his own.

The private life of his hero is charmingly depicted with the aid of private letters not numerous nor intrinsically remarkable, yet well calculated to inspire respect and affection for the writer of them. What we gather from these and are told about his love of wife and children, his fondness for gardening and tree-planting, his simple goodness and absolute integrity, harmonizes well with the lineaments of his handsome face as perpetuated in the portrait which adorns this book. What is most extraordinary, therefore, is the fact, stated on the reverse of the title-page, that "three leading publishers, though guaranteed against loss, have declined to publish this book, either with or without the author's name." Mr. Wright's positive and incisive style, in which long practice as a journalist has made him a master (though he was never a 'prentice hand), is capable, certainly, of giving offence to more than one class of readers. For example, he says of Holley's abandoning the law: "He had an instinctive aversion to all crookedness. Whether he held that this disqualified him for a profession in which nothing is more indispensable to pecuniary success than a faculty of suppressing the truth and making the worse appear the better side, I find no record." But one could as soon conceive of a publisher's taking alarm at this sentence as the editor of "Harper's Drawer" rejecting a similar skit on the legal profession. Readers not ignorant of our inferior intellectual toleration in matters theological as compared with the mother-country, in spite of its state church, will speedily conclude where the shoe pinched. What Myron Holley did for "true religion," as defined by his biographer, was undoubtedly the bugbear of the "three leading publishers"; and Mr. Wright's long public career and eminent and versatile services availed nothing against his heresy and that imputed to Mr. Holley. The latter was in truth a sober and reverent "Bible Christian," and what he did for religion thousands of heads of families have done as unostentatiously as he. He was opposed to "revivals" as, "on the whole, not promotive of religion or virtue," while very favorable to hypocrisy; and he severely and justly rebuked a schoolmistress who gave up the entire forenoon to a couple of male revivalists to work on the ignorance and fears of her pupils, his daughter being among the number. For the rest, bigotry would find it hard indeed to stigmatize him. Mr. Wright, in the pursuit of true religion, has gone an arrow's flight beyond; but as he is an American citizen of unblemished reputation, it should be a matter of general interest to discover what religious sentiments "leading publishers" are afraid to give currency to, even when guaranteed against immediate loss—in other words, what is the nature and extent of the censorship that tends to suppress a work designed to celebrate an undoubtedly noble and pure life, of great and lasting influence upon the destinies of the country. To this end, even more than because the proceeds of this publication, if any, are to go to Mr. Holley's heirs, we cheerfully comply with the author's request that we announce his readiness to send the book to any address on application as above, on receipt of one dollar and fifty cents, or of ten dollars for as many copies.

Catalogue of the Library of the Boston Athenæum. [By Charles A. Cutter.] 1807-1871. Parts 1-4. Boston. 1874 [1872]-1882. Pp. 3404. 8vo.

THE history of the Athenæum Catalogue, as briefly sketched by Mr. Cutter in the appendix, is a history of the science of bibliography during its progress. The original intention of the trustees, twenty-five years ago, was to print a simple list of authors and titles. But under the influence of the newly-awakened interest in libraries which began to be felt at that time, the plan broadened and extended until now the finished work marks the highest point yet reached in the art of cataloguing. This gradual development of the conception of what the catalogue of a general library should be, involved, of course, radical changes in its construction, which have not only added greatly to the labor of preparation, but have also caused certain imperfections that would have been avoided had the work been begun and finished on the same general system. There are, speaking generally, three kinds of catalogues: the simple list of authors or titles; the classified catalogue, in which the books are put under their various subjects, as Theology, History, Travels, etc., and the dictionary catalogue. Mr. Cutter has adopted this last form, in which the names of authors, the titles of books, and the subjects are all arranged in one alphabet. This is obviously the simplest method, and combines most of the advantages of the classified catalogue. It has never before been carried to such an extent in a printed catalogue. The contents of the various collected works—the publications of learned societies, public documents, etc.—are not only given in full, but are also carefully analyzed, and placed under both author and subject. The writings of the leading essayists, and the important articles in some of the prominent serials, are treated in the same manner. Scattered throughout the volumes are many explanatory and bibliographical notes, drawn from every source open to the bibliographer. The classification of books under their subjects and the subdivision of these subjects have been by no means the lightest or the least valuable part of Mr. Cutter's labors. Theology, for instance, fills more than twelve pages, and is divided into eight heads, while the titles on the United States fill 108 pages under 141 heads. Great pains have also been taken in the endeavor to discover the names of the authors of anonymous and pseudonymous works. The typographical execution of the catalogue is most praiseworthy, especially in the excellent selection of different kinds of type to discriminate between the various classes of entries. Great success has also been attained by similar means in making the contents of long serials, etc., easily intelligible. Of the general accuracy of the catalogue it is difficult to speak too highly. There are errors, of course. In a work of this magnitude, containing a quarter of a million separate entries, this is inevitable. But, after a careful examination, we have not found a single blunder such as disfigures many excellent catalogues, and few errors which are not obviously mistakes of the copyist or printer.

While thus testifying to the general excellence of Mr. Cutter's work, on which he has expended an amount of labor, of patient investigation, of careful thought, which will never be known except to himself, and will be appreciated at its true value by but few, there are some points on which we shall venture to take exception to his methods. We do so with less hesitation because the Athenæum Catalogue will naturally be taken as the standard to which, for years at least, other cataloguers will look for guidance in their work. Our principal criticism is that it is a mistake to give bibliographical details in cross-references. It adds largely to the expense and increases the bulk of the catalogue—a very serious matter merely as regards convenience of consultation—without corresponding advantages. To take an illustration selected at haphazard, Froissart's 'Chronicles' are entered in full under *France* and *Great Britain* as well as under *Froissart*. Here, in the course of 200 pages in the same volume, twenty lines are taken up with purely bibliographical matter twice repeated, when a single line in each case would have called the attention of the student of French or English history to the 'Chronicles.' For the information about the various editions he need but turn a few pages to the original entry. "Charles F. Adams' Platform," a political pamphlet, is entered in full three times in the same volume under *Adams, Charles*, and *Buffalo*, and also, under *United States*. A minor objection is that the scientific classification of books under their subjects is at times too rigidly adhered to. The necessity for a minute and careful classification is obvious, but the cardinal rule to be observed in a catalogue for general use is, after all, simplicity. To make clear our meaning, Prescott's 'Conquest of Mexico' is not to be found under *Mexico*, but under *Cortez*, to which title the inquirer is referred from *Mexico*. Occasionally there is a marked inconsistency in this respect, as, for instance, this same author's 'Ferdinand and Isabella' is to be found under *Ferdinand*, but not under *Spain*, while his 'Reign of Philip II.' is to be found under both *Philip* and *Spain*. Then, again, we must strongly object to giving foreign names in any other form than that by which they are generally known to English readers, as Raphael, not "Raffaello"; Michael Angelo, not "Buonarotti"; Livy, not "Livius." It is at least questionable, too, whether the works of George Eliot should be put under a name, Lewes, which was never legally hers, and by which not one reader in ten thousand would know her, or those of

George Sand under Dudevant. Mr. Cutter has placed the titles under subjects chronologically, not alphabetically. There are some advantages in this method: it gives an interesting bird's-eye view, as it were, of the progress of knowledge on that subject, and enables one to detect instantly the latest work upon it. But the difficulty of finding a given title among a large number of similar ones is often great, and the departure from the alphabetical arrangement which prevails elsewhere is, on the whole, confusing to the user of the catalogue.

Of the necessity of devising some universal catalogue, or at least some system of coöperative cataloguing, we are more than ever convinced after seeing the large and costly work which the proprietors of the Boston Athenæum have published. There can really be no absolute need that a large part of the revenues of every considerable library should be spent on a separate catalogue when the books are mainly the same in each. This at least is certain: the contents of the various great collected works, serial and society publications, which are given here, need not be repeated in the printed catalogue of any library which possesses these volumes, as a reference to the Athenæum Catalogue will be sufficient. We are not then without hope that, with the rapid increase of bibliographical helps to students, a simple and inexpensive method of cataloguing an ordinary miscellaneous library will be discovered. It may take the form of a list of standard works on every subject, with ample references to all the trustworthy sources of knowledge. This would probably index the larger and most used part of the contents of every public library, while the simple addition of shelf-marks would make it ready for use. Such a list, a revised edition being published annually, would not only greatly diminish the running expenses of our libraries, but would of course prove of great assistance to all students.

Events and Epochs in Religious History. By James Freeman Clarke, author of 'Ten Great Religions,' etc., etc. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1881.

THE title of this book prepares us for the inconsequent and varied character of its contents. It is made up from a course of lectures given by the author in the Lowell Institute, Boston, in January, 1880, and there is nothing in the character of the lectures to prevent the supposition that they were all composed within the month, and that much of the information in them was collected at the same time, and that still the author, who is the diligent preacher and pastor of a Boston church, had time enough remaining for his sermon writing and parochial cares. But what is much more likely is, that the different lectures were prepared without any reference to each other along the course of many years, and that the opportunity to deliver a series of lectures before the Lowell Institute first suggested their juxtaposition. They are of unequal value, yet must all of them have been interesting and instructive to the people who heard them delivered, and will prove so to many others in their present form. A certain scrappiness is common to them all. They have not the flow and continuity which mark the previous books of the same author. The effect of scrappiness is heightened by the inclusion in some of the lectures of two or three different subjects, any one of which would be ample for an hour's discourse. In one lecture Augustine, Anselm, and Bernard are treated together; in another, with more evident excuse, Luther and Loyola.

Some of the lectures have resulted from much wider study than others, and more profound deliberation. The two lectures on the Catacombs belong in the first rank. At the close of these, certain inferences are drawn from the catacomb inscriptions which do not seem unfair. They are that the Christianity of the catacombs was much more ethical and social, much less theological and ecclesiastical, than that of later times; that the primacy of Peter and the worship of Mary formed no part of the Christianity of the early Empire. Dr. Clarke is nothing if not liberal, and on page 31 he puts in a tender plea, that may possibly be shocking to some of his Protestant friends, for the Roman Catholic custom of praying for the dead. The logic of the situation seems to be entirely on his side. Lecture iii., upon "The Buddhist Monks in Central Asia," is not a little suggestive of the famous treatise upon "Snakes in Ireland." Something about Buddhist monks is quoted from the well-known description of Father Huc, but the lecture is for the most part concerned with other things, the leavings, as it were, of the author's lecture on Buddhism in his 'Ten Great Religions.' The lecture on Monasticism must be regarded as extremely superficial. No justice is done to the philosophical and social inspirations of the early monachism, nor is any allowance made for New Testament warrant which some of the wisest—Origen for example—found, or thought they found, for extreme asceticism. Thoreau is introduced as the last of the monks, and Emerson as the last of the mystics, in another lecture in which the delicacy and subtilty of the subject are in striking contrast with the treatment it receives. The lecture upon Savonarola does not impress us as having gone so near to the heart of the matter as George Eliot in 'Romola.' "In a divided age he was a whole man," is Dr. Clarke's concluding sentence. In the fact that he was not a whole man—that, ethically grand, he was intellectually superstitious and fanatical—a better judgment finds the tragedy of his inner life.

Dr. Clarke is very fond of contrasts and comparisons, and he is often happy in the way of these, but not always. Surely nothing could be worse than this, on page 135 (he is speaking of Augustine): "We ask whether the sons of Africa can ever be elevated to our level, and behold, an African intellect is the ruler, almost to our time, of Christendom!" Hundreds of persons who heard the lecture are probably laboring to this day under the misconception, a natural inference from our quotation, that St. Augustine was a full-blooded negro. Of minor blemishes, the misspelling of Lucretia Mott's name is one of the most unaccountable. In Emerson's famous quatrain from the "Voluntaries," quoted page 117, "boy" is no improvement upon youth in the last line. When every abatement has been made, the book is overflowing with its author's geniality and his sympathetic spirit. Its value is not a little increased by twenty plates, eighteen of which are heliotypes. Here is a method of illustration that is inexpensive, and might be utilized much more frequently than it is, greatly to the reader's advantage. The woodcuts in the article on Monasticism are better calculated to make an impression on the memory and imagination than many pages of fine writing about the magnificence of the abbeys of Brussels and Clairvaux. Two heliotypes are given of Savonarola, one of which is badly reproduced upon the cover. There is nothing in either of these suggestive of George Eliot's face, but plenty in another, for which one of these might fitly have been spared.

Eugene Onéguine: a Romance of Russian Life in Verse. By Alexander Pushkin. Translated from the Russian by Lieut.-Col. Spalding. London and New York: Macmillan & Co.

COLONEL SPALDING'S translation is probably one of the fruits of the general reawakening of interest in Pushkin in his own country. Twenty months ago a memorial of him was erected in Moscow, and its completion was made the occasion of very widespread and heartfelt eulogy of him. At St. Petersburg, Turgeneff made a most felicitous and pathetic address. 'Eugene Oneghin' is by no means the best introduction to Pushkin's works. The fragments Sir John Bowring translated years ago have far more of fire, and such a poem as 'The Gypsy' far more of picturesque effect. As to the merit of the translation, it seems to us another example in support of the argument in favor of abandoning the attempt to render verse in verse. Were it not better to seek to preserve the poetic spirit rather than to sacrifice it to the attempt to express it in an alien form? Poetry in the sense of *Dichtung* is the common possession of all languages, and as such is independent of verse.

The original is exaggerated frequently, too often with the effect of degrading it. Narrow space prevents many illustrations, but any page will afford one. Monsieur l'Abbé, "a Frenchman poor," is made "a starving Gaul." "In the depths where with you I swim, dear friends," becomes

> "In that morass where you and I
> Wallow, my friends, in company."

This is the more surprising as the noun translated "morass" (*omut*) is so literally "a depth" that it is the word of the proverb, "V' tikhoy vodye omuti glubokie," which is our "Still waters run deep."

A more serious liberty with the original is the attempt to make a continuous whole out of what the author himself considered but a fragment. In the Russian, whole stanzas are wanting, their places being indicated by numbers. Among Pushkin's papers were found many stanzas which had once belonged to it. Eighteen are continuous, and would have made part of another canto, "The Pilgrimage of Oneghin." Pushkin seemed to regard Oneghin as a friend and confidant, and to have entrusted to him everything without reserve, always intending to make over the work into a perfect whole—a purpose not abandoned even when the last part was printed in 1832, seven years after its commencement. To present such a fragment as a whole is in itself an injustice.

The *parti pris* of the translator is evidently the explanation of the tone of the work. His view is that Pushkin imitated Byron—Oneghin is Don Juan; hence copy, if possible, the spirit and language of that poem. This is really to premise that Pushkin imitated Byron's faults, and only his faults. To say that he did not imitate Byron would be to deny his own words. The first outcome of all literary activity in Russia in the first quarter of the century was to follow foreign models. It was the inevitable result of the first close contact with the western world. There is a sketch by Pushkin of the same date as the conclusion of this poem, for a novel to be called 'The Russian Pelham.' It is far more like Bulwer's work than 'Oneghin' is like 'Don Juan.' The mistake is not in saying he was an imitator; it is in supposing that he was nothing else. To prove his independence of Byron intellectually and morally, one need take only this poem.

The story in brief is this: Oneghin, weary, world-worn, seeks relief from ennui in the retirement of the country with his friend, the young poet Lenski, by whom he is introduced to

his betrothed and her sister Tatiana. With selfish disregard of consequences, he wins the love of the latter. In innocence and confidence she confesses it to him unsought. To her mortification and grief, he listens coldly, then insists with biting scorn upon the ills of marriage and his own repugnance to it. Months after, Oneghin reappears with his friend at Tatiana's birthday fête. Perhaps goaded by conscience to some excess, he wantonly picks a quarrel with Lenski, kills him next day in a duel, and leaves the country. Olga recovers first from the blow, and marries another suitor. Tatiana is heart-stricken, and would have died but for the intervention of friends who take her to the gay world of Moscow. It "met her smilingly," and in time she marries a general and a prince.

Oneghin returns to Moscow and finds the little country-girl in the first splendor of success as the *grande dame* of society. She scarcely notices him. He falls blindly, madly in love. His repeated letters receive no answer, and at last, in despair, he resolves to force an interview with her. Chance favors him, and he enters her boudoir unannounced. He finds her in tears. He throws himself at her feet. It is now her turn to listen, but there is no triumph in the revenge which time has thus wrought for her. She silences him imperatively, even while in deepest sorrow; she admits that she loves him now, as she has always done, and must always do. Yet with unshaken firmness she insists: "But to another I am given, to whom I shall be true for ever." She leaves the room, and there the poem ends. Much as there is in common in the character of the two heroes, surely this is not the story of Don Juan.

The book can have but a curious interest for us, who are so far from the life it describes; but in Russia it is the best-known and oftenest-quoted of Pushkin's longer works. Its descriptions of city and country are current coin in literature; and the initiated read between the lines much of the social history of the dark days in the beginning of Nicholas's reign. As regards the place which Pushkin himself should hold in a final judgment, it is difficult for foreigners to understand the enthusiasm of his countrymen, until one realizes that it was he who first woke them to a sense of their language as a poetic language; that he is, as Turgeneff calls him, "not only the poet of the people, but the national poet." He came before the light, and he came by himself. After fifty years the Russians still listen to him as to a voice singing alone in the darkness.

Kantian Ethics and the Ethics of Evolution. By I. Gould Schurman, Professor of Logic and Metaphysics in Arcadia College. London: Williams & Norgate; New York: Scribner, Welford & Co. 1881. Pp. 103.

THE author, manifestly a young man just home from foreign study, after declaring Professor Zeller, of Berlin, "the foremost thinker of modern Europe," and Mill and Hamilton to have mainly an historical interest for our generation, attempts to show the defects of the Kantian, and still more of the Spencerian, ethics, and proposes partly as a union of, but more in place of both, the rightly-developed Aristotelian principle of the "idea of man as such." By his theories of spontaneity in the understanding, and especially of autonomy in the pure will, Kant neglected the empirical element. His categorical imperative requires us to act, or to realize thought, but gives us nothing to realize; and its universality is so abstract that anything might become a moral law. By ignoring the pleasurable as impure, his principle becomes formal, empty, and essentially subjective. The true principle of "man as such" is not Comte's *grand être*, but is family, state, church, society, or Schleiermacher's "ethical goods," so that the individual has not to create a morality from within, but to make his own the concrete morality of his country embodied in these institutions. This is essentially the principle which Trendelenburg used to express in his lectures; and a famous Hegelian sentence of his is quoted, that "no other task can be given to man than the realization of the idea of his own worth, and that no other than this can be comprehended, no other recognized, by him." And again: "An ethical philosophy which would exclude pleasure would be contrary to nature, and one that would make a principle of it would be contrary to spirit."

This is all clearly, and we believe truly, said. The radical defect of Kant's ethics is delineated in a reverent way, which, in point of spirit, and often even of manner, is a model of philosophical criticism, and which goes far to disarm the prejudices with which one takes up most of the many digests, popularizations, and expositions of the now much-digested and exposed German idealists. Hence we regret all the more that the writer has fallen into the popular dogmatic tone in discussing the 'Data of Ethics.' We have no predilection for Spencer, but it is high time to protest against the "utterly utter" method of treating him which convicts him of every species of absurdity by some rapid and indiscernible legerdemain, as in the Arabian tale in which the adversary was cut through and through by a blade of such infinite thinness that, if challenged to shake himself, he would fall apart in slices. Our author compares Spencer's system to an "acoustics of color"; finds in it a "naïveté that is really surprising"; tells his readers that it "empties morality of all its content," and "suppresses all that is most characteristic in morality." It does not even "explain development nor heredity." Nervous modifications, we are told, "cannot, properly speaking, be accumulated or transmitted," and "in the light of reason the whole process reveals itself as illusory." Fundamental positions are "obviously" wrong, and only "slight surveys" reveal their shallowness. In short, instead of being a serious and laborious attempt to explain moral and psychic facts, which commends itself to many very respectable thinkers, the only inference from these pages is that it is a tissue of errors and absurdities. Now philosophy will never get beyond individualism and provincialism—Hegel's animal kingdom of mind—till each thinker confines himself to a field so narrow that he can make himself an authority in it, and learn respect for those who labor in other departments. The mind is larger than all the sciences together, and its students should learn solidarity, and remember, as the old German proverb tells us, that beyond the mountains that limit their horizon there are people.

Scotland in Early Christian Times. (Second Series.) The Rhind Lectures in Archæology for 1880. By Joseph Anderson, Keeper of the National Museum of the Antiquaries of Scotland. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1881.

IN the present volume the subject of the author's Rhind Lectures for 1879 is continued, and his main thesis further developed with illustrations from a wider field. In the ecclesiastical remains of Scotland in her early Christian times—the illuminated MSS., bell shrines, crosiers, and reliquaries which he then examined with great scientific acumen and research—he found relics of a culture which exhibited a feeling for decorative art, a faculty of design, and a skill in the technical processes of art-workmanship sufficient to excite admiration at the present day. The stream of culture must, however, have steadily increased. Somehow—and it would be interesting to know how, since artistic progress means also progress along other lines—between the seventh century, the period of the best illuminated MSS., and the tenth or twelfth century, a transition occurred. The art, previously circumscribed by ecclesiastical limits, became more secular, and its sphere was correspondingly enlarged. It is this development from an ecclesiastical to a national school of art, from the illumination of MSS. to the most exquisite art products in jewelry and sculpture, that forms the subject of the present series of lectures.

The first lecture treats of the remains of decorative metal-work in gold, silver, and bronze in the shape of brooches, etc., which, amidst their variety, possess a typical form and all the essential characteristics of the art of the MSS. The other lectures are devoted to the remains of decorative stone-work—the monuments, their art, their symbolism, and their inscriptions in Celtic and Oghams, and in Runes and Roman letters, respectively. From these it is clear that the sculpture of the period also has an individuality of its own. Even the symbolism of the monuments is unique. It has much in common with the symbolism which occurs on all early Christian monuments, but it has also a local and conventional character, and the meaning of many of its symbols is at present veiled in mystery. Moreover, in general design as in minute details, the decorations of the monuments "are similar in style of treatment and manner of composition to the illuminated pages of the Celtic MSS." And there is ample evidence that the art brought to such perfection by the scribes passed in the eleventh and twelfth centuries to both jewelry and sculpture.

This school of decorative art in Celtic Scotland was singularly original. Its characteristic features—its interlacing, fretwork, and spiral ornamentation—are found over a wider area; but they were never developed into "a systematic style of art" elsewhere, nor do they give a distinctive character to any other than Celtic art. This art attained a high perfection. "No other monuments," says Mr. Anderson, "are characterized by such a lavish profusion of adornment." And he adds, again with a pardonable enthusiasm, but in too sweeping terms:

"A legacy of art like this of the monuments—although its scattered materials lie here and there in fields, in hedges and ditches, by lonely roadsides, or in nettle-grown corners of country churchyards—is really a school which has many and varied capabilities of public utility, and is therefore a possession of which any nation might well be proud. It constitutes a wealth of material which no other nation possesses, or can ever hope to possess. Three hundred examples of an art like this represent a collection of art-materials such as has not fallen to the lot of any other nation of northern Europe. They are materials of such intrinsic value and suggestiveness that our designers, sculptors, and jewellers are willing to borrow inspiration from them. I believe that I am correct in saying that no variety of ancient art-workmanship is more generally imitated at the present day, and that the closer the copy the better the work. The formation of such a gallery of art-materials in the country to which they are indigenous would not only restore to the native genius of the Scots the original elements of that system of design which are its own special inheritance, but it would also be an epoch in the history of art itself."

Artistic as well as literary forms are a permanent expression of a nation's life; and these Celtic remains are valuable from an archæological and historical as well as artistic point of view. Mr. Anderson has summarized many interesting details brought to light in the study of them (p. 122).

Glossary of Technical Terms, Phrases, and Maxims of the Common Law. By Frederic Jesup Stimson. Boston: Little, Brown and Co. 1881.

THIS Glossary is said to be the result of an attempt to produce "a concise Law Dictionary, giving in common English an explanation of words and phrases, English as well as Saxon, Latin, or French, which are of common technical use in the law." It will be found a convenient hand-book. The chief criticism to which it seems to be open is that in the selection of catchwords too great importance has been given to initial prepositions. For instance, under the word *de* we find several pages of phrases beginning with *de admensuratione dotis* and ending with *de warrantia diei*, containing several dozen in all; but in none of them is the preposition the important word, or necessarily the word which remains in the memory, and therefore it would have been better to arrange them under the real catchword, with cross references to the prepositions, or *vice versa*. The volume seems to contain almost all the Latin phrases in ordinary use. The value of a familiarity with these at the present day is differently estimated by lawyers. Those who have a classical education will always be apt to think that legal propositions cannot be intelligently grasped by persons to whom Latin is an unknown tongue. On the other hand, there have been at least one or two great lawyers whose unfamiliarity with it was a by-word. Lord Kenyon used Latin entirely at random, the classical phrases with which he was in the habit of closing his finest periods having absolutely no relation to the sense of their contents, as in the case of his celebrated charge to the jury: "Having thus discharged your consciences, gentlemen, you may retire to your homes in peace, with the delightful consciousness of having performed your duties well, and may lay your heads upon your pillows and say, '*Aut Cæsar aut nullus*'"; and his delightful translation of the phrase, "as plain as the nose on your face," by "*latet anguis in herba.*" There is said to be in existence, though out of print, a collection of Latin law maxims by an old practitioner, in which the maxim *Catella realis non potest legari* appears in English as "A genuine little whelp cannot be left in a legacy"; *Messis sequitur sementem*, as "The harvest follows the seed time"; and *Actor sequitur forum rei*, as "The agent must be in court when the case is coming on." The first of these, by the way, we do not find in Mr. Stimson's collection.

The Evelyns in America. Compiled from Family Papers and other Sources, 1608–1805. Edited and annotated by G. D. Scull. Printed for private circulation, by Parker & Co., Oxford. 1881. 8vo, pp. 392. (250 copies.)

IN 1879 Mr. Scull printed the 'Memoir and Letters of Captain William Glanville Evelyn,' a volume of 140 pages. Reprinting this, he now adds a copy of a paper by the late Sebastian F. Streeter on George Evelyn, the first commander of Kent Island, in Maryland, from 1636 to 1649, originally issued by the Maryland Historical Society in 1868; a reprint of the rare 'Description of New Albion,' published in 1648; a letter from Robert Evelin, who lived in America from 1638 until 1648; together with letters of Colonel Harcourt written in 1776–7, during his service in this country in the British Army; extracts from the journals of Captain John Montresor, an officer of Engineers of the British Army serving here both before and during the Revolution; brief memoirs of other British officers who belonged to the forces engaged in that struggle; a memoir of Robert Evelyn, who was the first of the family to come to this country, settling in Virginia in 1608; and a short notice of the last Evelyn here, William, an officer in the British Army, who lost his life by shipwreck on the island of Cape Breton, Canada, in 1805. Thus we have the different members of an old English country family more or less connected with this country for two centuries. Nearly all the material here brought together has been gathered in successive visits at Wotton, the home of the Evelyns, and at Nuneham, the home of the Harcourts; and it is characteristic of the pride taken by the heads of these houses, that both the text and the illustrations, consisting of portraits, maps, and views, have been largely furnished in proof of the interest felt in reviving the memories that thus unite the two countries in common history.

The narrative of the experiences of the earlier Evelyn visitors belongs to that antiquarian and almost traditional period of American history which is sure of the attention of a few earnest students. The story of poor young Captain Evelyn is full of pathetic interest. He was a gallant soldier who had given promise of a successful future by his share of the campaigns on the Continent, and whose career was cut off by his untimely death in New York, from wounds received in an engagement on Long Island. Even his grave is unknown, although it is certain that he was buried in New York. His letters are full of characteristic touches. Landing in Boston, he at first adopted the view common with all he met, that the outbreak of the rebellion was premature, and that peace would soon be restored. He lived long enough to see and acknowledge that the struggle was in dead earnest, and that it would need judgment at home and ability in the field to bring the operations of the British forces here to a successful conclusion. Captain Montresor had even better opportunities of forming a right judgment on the subject, for he spent twenty years here in engineering service, built the works at Mud Fort on the Delaware in 1772, planned the operations by which it was reduced in 1777, and was the principal engineer of the British forces. His note-book furnishes interesting memoranda as to the character and actions of the prominent commanders of the English army. As early as 1773 he was offered a tempting position by the Pennsylvania authorities, but this he refused, "from the appearance of the times, savoring much of an Inclination to Rebellion." He is as sharp in criticising the American as the English leaders, and sums up the matter as a "String of Blunders, wound up by the greatest Blunder of all Blunders, a blundering, disgraceful Peace."

Mr. Scull has shown great industry in collecting the material of his volume, and it is to be hoped that he will revise and recast it in such shape as will make it a book likely to command an early publication through the ordinary channels, and thus become accessible to the public. One thing suggested by it is that what Kapp has done in scholarly fulness in his lives of the German officers who served in the Revolutionary War, and in his account of the curious career of Bollmann, still remains to a very large extent to be done both for England and France. The Rochambeau Papers, now deposited in the Congressional Library at Washington, waiting the tardy action of Congress on the offer of its present owner, ought to supply much material of an interesting kind. The 'Life of Fersen,' by Klinckowström, showed the part taken by that enthusiastic lover of France in the campaign of the French forces here. The letters and memoirs of Miot de Melito relating to his stay in this country will, if published, no doubt give a vivid picture of life as he saw it. Meanwhile, the capacity of Americans as buyers and readers of books such as Mr. Scull's 'Evelyns' can hardly be gauged so long as the work remains "privately printed."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Alice Irving. Circumstantial Evidence. New York: W. B. Smith & Co.
American Classics for Schools. Longfellow. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 60 cents.
Beard, G. M. Trance and Muscle-Reading. New York: The Author.
Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexikon, Parts 8-10. New York: L. W. Schmidt.
Brook, Sarah. French History for English Children. Revised ed. New York: Harper & Bros. $1.
Chicago River and Harbor Convention of July, 1847. Chicago: Fergus Printing Co. $1.
Claretie, Jules. Monsieur Le Ministre. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.
Dingy House at Kensington. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 60 cents.
Donnelly, I. Atlantis: The Antediluvian World. New York: Harper & Bros. $2.
Doubleday, Gen. A. Chancellorsville and Gettysburg. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.
Ebers, G. The Burgomaster's Wife. New York: Wm. S. Gottsberger.
Ellis, A. B. History of the First Church in Boston. Boston: Hall & Whiting.
Fox, Caroline. Memories of Old Friends. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.
Goadby, E. The England of Shakespeare. New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.
Goethe's Sämtliche Werke. In 60 vols. Vol. i. Stuttgart: Cotta; New York: F. W. Christern. 40 cents per volume.
Green, J. R. The Making of England. New York: Harper & Bros. $2 50. (Also, Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.)
Harte, B. Poetical Works. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Hartshorne, H. Our Homes. American Health-Primer Series. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. 30 cts.
Hay, Mary Cecil. Among the Ruins, and other Stories. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Hayman, Rev. H. The Odyssey of Homer. Vol. iii. Books xiii.-xxiv. London: David Nutt; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Hoar, G. F. James Abram Garfield. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Homans, B. The Banker's Almanac and Register for 1882. New York: Office of *Banker's Magazine*.
Jennings, A. C. Ecclesia Anglicana: a History of the Church in England from the Earliest to the Present Times. New York: Thomas Whittaker. $2 25.
Johnson, F. True Womanhood: Hints on the Formation of Womanly Character. Cambridge, Mass.: Moses King.
Johnston, Elizabeth B. Original Portraits of Washington. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $10.
Kant's Critique of Pure Reason. Max Müller's Translation. 2 vols. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. $9.
Kingsley, Rev. C. Westward Ho! Hypatia. 2 vols. New York: Macmillan & Co. $1 each.
Lansdell, H. Through Siberia. In 2 volumes. With illustrations and maps. $8.
Lubbock, Sir J. Fifty Years of Science. Address before the British Association. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Magyarland. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 2 vols. $10.
Mahaffy, J. P. Old Greek Education. New York: Harper & Bros. 75 cents.
Marriage and Parentage, and the Sanitary and Physiological Laws for the Production of Children. New York: M. L. Holbrook & Co.
Moncrieff, F. C. Wit and Wisdom of the Bench and Bar. New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.
Moneel and Preece. Incandescent Electric Lights. New York: D. Van Nostrand & Co. 50 cents.
Morawetz, V. Treatise on the Law of Private Corporations other than Charitable. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Morley, H. English Literature in the Reign of Victoria. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Morris, W. Hopes and Fears for Art. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 25.
Myron Holley; and What He Did for Liberty and True Religion. Boston: Elizur Wright, P.O. Box 109. $1 50. 1881.
Nicoll, H. J. Great Movements, and Those who Achieved Them. New York: Harper & Brothers.
Parkman, C. M. The Words on the Cross: Seven Sermonettes. New York: Thomas Whittaker. 60 cents.
Patton, J. H. Yorktown: Account of the Surrender of Cornwallis. New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert.
Pattou, A. A. The Art of Voice-Production, with Reference to Correct Breathing. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Perkins, W. O. Vocal Echoes for Female Voices. Boston: Oliver Ditson & Co.
Price, T. B. Snap. The Ox-Train Era. New York: W. B. Smith & Co.
Proctor, R. A. Familiar Science Studies. New York: R. Worthington. $2 25.
Public Papers of Governor Cornell, 1880. Albany: Executive Office.
Stoker, B. Under the Sunset. London: Sampson Low & Co.
Thomas, Mary Von-Erden. Winning the Battle; or, One Girl in Ten Thousand. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1 25.
Three Christmas Sermons, by Three Sons of Leonard Bacon. New Haven: Edward P. Judd.
Tourgée, A. W. John Eax and Mamelon; or, The South without the Shadow. New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.
Turner and Morshead. Goethe's Faust. Part 1. The Text, with English Notes, Essays, and Verse Translations. London: Rivingtons.
Wheeler, C. G. Familiar Allusions. A Hand-book of Miscellaneous Information. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $3.
Williams, Rev. J. The World's Witness to Jesus Christ: Bedell Lecture for 1881. $1.
Woodward, Prof. C. M. History of the St. Louis Bridge. St. Louis: G. I. Jones & Co.; New York: D. Van Nostrand.
Wordsworth, J. The One Religion: Eight Lectures on the Bampton Foundation, 1881. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3 50.
Wright, W. A. Life of King Henry the Fifth. Shakespeare Select Plays. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Yonge, C. D. Constitutional History of England, from 1760 to 1860. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25c.
Zola, E. The Mysteries of the Court of Louis Napoleon. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.

Henry Holt & Co.

WILL PUBLISH MONDAY:

John Stuart Mill.

A Criticism. With Personal Recollections. By Alexander Bain, Emeritus Prof. of Logic, University of Aberdeen. 12mo, $1 25.

James Mill.

A Biography. By Alexander Bain, Emeritus Prof. of Logic, University of Aberdeen. 12mo, $2.

D. Appleton & Co.

Have just published:

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The late Leonard Bacon

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 16, 1882.

The Week.

Owing to the heavy disbursements of the Treasury for 3½ per cent. bonds redeemed under the 107th call, the New York banks gained heavily in reserve during the week. Last week's deficiency of $2,618,050 was made up, and a surplus of $687,825 established. Foreign exchange ruled during most of the week at about the gold-exporting point, but only $750,000 gold was shipped, and this on a special transaction. Since this shipment the rates for sterling have fallen so that gold cannot be exported except at a loss, and bankers think that the outflow is checked for the present. The money market was very easy for borrowers during the week, and in all the foreign money markets the tendency was to ease and lower rates. At the Stock Exchange it was a week of excitement and wide fluctuations. The tendency during the early part of the week was to lower prices, and in several stocks there was a heavy decline, notably in the coal shares, which fell from 4 to 17½ points. All manner of rumors calculated to create distrust were set afloat. Among others was one that an important bank was in trouble and would be forced to suspend. The only foundation for this was the fact that, the week before, a clerk who had charge of the call-loan department in the Fourth National Bank of New York, had abstracted about $80,000 from the securities pledged as collateral for these loans. The bank lost $70,000 by the theft, but was able financially to bear the loss, as it has a capital of $3,200,000 and a surplus of $1,161,822. The week closed at the Stock Exchange with prices improving, and with a fair show of returning confidence.

The "disquieting rumors" recently circulated in Wall Street about the "Gould stocks" culminated on Monday in a rumor that Gould himself was in a very shaky financial condition, and had been obliged to apply to W. H. Vanderbilt for a loan of $10,000,000—a sum so large as to suggest the possibility of a refusal even from a man of Mr. Vanderbilt's known wealth and benevolent disposition. As this sort of thing has been going on for some time, Gould felt that energetic measures were needed to put an end to it, and he accordingly sent for three of his most trusted friends, Messrs. Field, Sage, and Work, and told them the simple story of his real position. He had in his safe a "stack" of about $50,000,000 worth of securities, which stood in his own name and were entirely unpledged. He therefore asked his three friends to examine them and see for themselves whether what he said was true, and whether there was any reason for circulating stories against his credit. The committee at once went to work, and on counting the securities found that what Gould said was neither more nor less than true. The result of the examination was to cause an immediate rise in stocks, and the authors of the stories are now very hard to find. This method of setting at rest disquieting rumors derives a good deal of interest from its novelty. Usually a man does not make a statement of his affairs, or call in a committee to count his assets, until he and his creditors are both so disquieted as to them that they feel it necessary to decide whether he had better make an assignment; and the result of such investigations, even into the affairs of great financiers, though it may set at rest disquieting rumors, generally does so by bringing to light most depressing facts. That the investigation in Gould's case should have resulted in showing him to be one of the most impregnably solvent men in the world, and should have been followed by a universal feeling of buoyancy on the street, and in fact throughout the country, cannot but be gratifying to every man of good feeling. Gould has absorbed and consolidated so much of the available wealth of the country, that any attack on his credit is getting to be in its character and effects more and more like an attack on the credit of the United States. He is no longer a daring operator, gambling and plundering on his own account, but has become part of our national life. When He prospers, we all prosper with Him, and when disquieting rumors are set afloat about Him, we all look anxiously at the "ticker." There is something almost touching in the surprise which, according to Mr. Sage, the strong, silent man expressed, "that people should use his name in the way they had without any facts whatever to justify them."

The general approval with which the nomination of Judge Blatchford to the Supreme bench is received will probably convince the President that the public entirely agrees with the idea which he seemed to have acted upon at the time of Judge Gray's appointment—viz., that in making selections for judicial offices judges of high standing in the lower courts are a very good class to select from. Judge Blatchford, though not a man of genius, is one of the best judges on the Federal bench. His familiarity with admiralty law is unusual, and his capacity for the despatch of business is enormous. He has had precisely the same disadvantage to contend with in his judicial career that has been an obstacle in Judge Gray's path—the fact that his manners on the bench are not "popular." He undoubtedly displays that impatience with professional ignorance and incompetence which elective judges, for very good reasons, are usually careful to avoid showing; but he has always had the respect of the bar, and his appointment will be regarded among lawyers as a distinctly strong one.

Scarcely less gratifying to the country than the appointment of Judge Blatchford to a place on the Supreme bench will be Mr. Edmunds's refusal of it; not because it can be doubted that the accession of so good a jurist as Mr. Edmunds would have been a very valuable addition to the strength of that tribunal, but because, while several men might be found in this part of the country who would make excellent members of the Supreme Court, it would be very difficult to find one who could fill Mr. Edmunds's place in the Senate. There may have been broader statesmen and greater orators in that body, but it has perhaps never had a member who more thoroughly understood the real business of legislation, who was more quick in the detection of questionable schemes and loosely drawn provisions, keener and more untiring in watching every day's proceedings, and readier to object and more merciless in his opposition to everything that seemed to him wrong or open to suspicion than Mr. Edmunds is. It is no exaggeration to say that Mr. Edmunds's presence in the Senate has not only prevented the passage, but discouraged the very introduction, of many a job in that body, and that therefore it is worth millions annually to the people of the United States. Every American citizen who desires good government, whatever his political creed, should therefore be in favor of keeping Mr. Edmunds, strong partisan though he is, where he can do more good than any successor whom he would be likely to have could hope to do.

Mr. John Russell Young's nomination to the Chinese Mission must be considered the President's special concession to General Grant, Mr. Young having of late years been one of the General's most devoted adherents and his historiographer during his celebrated tour round the world. The nomination was, we believe, urged by him on General Garfield, who persistently neglected to make it. This caused much ill-feeling, and helped to spread and intensify the belief in Stalwart circles that he was not the man for the place. It is to be said for Mr. Young that he has been in China, and is probably as competent as any one that could be selected to explain to the Chinese Mandarins the exclusion of their countrymen from the United States under the bill now pending, and the reasons why we consider the Burlingame treaty a huge mistake. It would, however, probably take five Stalwart ambassadors to make clear to the Chinese mind—hardened by so many ages of routine—what the American position toward foreigners now is. Luckily for the American Minister, all discussion of the subject will have to be carried on through an interpreter, and will thus be characterized by a most convenient obscurity, though we doubt whether it could be made lucid by any master of language now living. Human expression, like all things human, has its limitations.

The Committee of Ways and Means have agreed to report a bill lowering the tax on distilled spirits from ninety cents per gallon (the existing rate) to fifty cents, with the purpose and expectation of reducing the revenue and the annual surplus in the Treasury. If the proposed reduction of the rate were likely to have the intended effect, the measure would

be indefensible. Any government which requires a large revenue ought to adjust its system of taxation in such manner as to derive the largest possible sum from luxuries, and especially from injurious luxuries. Whiskey is at once the most injurious and the most common luxury in use in this country. It is a clear departure from good morals to adopt legislation for the purpose of making it cheaper to the drinking classes. But in adjusting the whiskey tax Congress is supposed to have the fiscal needs of the public treasury in view rather than any standard of morals. The reduction of the tax, therefore, can only be justified upon the theory that *more* revenue can be obtained from a rate of fifty cents than from one of ninety cents. The history of the whiskey tax, however, shows that a rate of fifty cents, with the supplementary license taxes, is about the highest rate that can be collected. This rate is equal to 250 per cent. on the average cost of the article itself, and is probably as high a percentage as can be imposed without leading to illicit distillation. The average cost of whiskey without the tax is twenty cents per gallon. Mr. David A. Wells estimates that the entire cost to the illicit distiller in the way of bribery, night work, unusual methods of transportation, fines and penalties, is twenty to forty cents more. That is to say, if the tax is fixed at about fifty cents per gallon, nobody will have an incentive to produce the article without paying the tax. This view seems to be sustained by statistics. Under the tax of fifty cents, which existed from 1869 to 1872, the revenue ranged from $45,000,000 to $55,000,000 per annum. In 1872 the rate was increased to seventy cents, but the revenue showed no perceptible increase. In 1875 it was advanced to ninety cents, and still the revenue remained virtually stationary, being for 1879 $52,000,000 and for 1881 $61,000,000; whereas it should have been, on an equal distillation, about $80,000,000. The population of the country has increased largely during the interval, and the consumption of liquor has apparently not diminished per capita. The inference is irresistible that illicit distillation has been carried on to a great extent under the tax of ninety cents, and it is highly probable that a reduction to fifty cents would cause no loss to the Treasury, and it might even prove a gain.

The latest "downfall of an old and trusted clerk" differs from usual occurrences of the kind so far that surprise at the event is not universal. Many persons, including the bank officers of course, are amazed. They would have suspected almost anybody sooner than Cornwell. One of these startled observers is reported as saying that he would have lent him one or two thousand dollars upon his own security without hesitation. Another asks, in a dazed and hopeless way, "Whom can we trust?" On the other hand, there are persons who say very frankly that they are not surprised at all; that the "old and trusted clerk" was guilty of financial irregularities years ago, and that, whomsoever they might trust, they never would have thought of trusting him. This testimony comes from what is often the moral stronghold of the defaulter. An officer of a prominent church in Brooklyn and a member of another one in the same city are among the witnesses. The latter "did not seem greatly surprised at the news," and said, "So Dick Cornwell's an embezzler, is he? Well, it isn't the first time he has played the same trick." He then recalled how "he was a zealous Christian, could pray well, was a hard worker in the Sunday-school," and so commended himself to Mr. Dollner, the church officer mentioned, that the latter lost $80,000 by Cornwell. A contemporary selects, from several morals which the Fourth National Bank affair presents, one to the effect that the salary of the loan clerk, $2,000, was not enough to secure a good article of honesty. The bank officers say they paid Cornwell at least twice as much; but it seems to us that there are two morals a great deal better than our contemporary's. When a church gives a member a character as "a zealous Christian," who can "pray well," is it not under some obligation to modify its certificate upon discovering that it does not cover such little idiosyncrasies as embezzling money? When a bank engages a clerk is it not wise, besides inquiring into his church and Sunday-school relations, to get some information as to his business conduct and standing?

The second dinner in the series which the local Stalwarts seem to be giving each other, took place on Saturday night. The honored guest on this occasion was Captain Michael Cregan, much better known, however, as Mike Cregan. Mike moulds, and indeed generates, Republican opinion in the Sixteenth Assembly District, as president of the district association, and for this reason was presented to the dinner party by the chairman as a "Stalwart statesman," but, considered as a private citizen, he is simply clerk of one of the Civil Justices. The reason for fêting him was his return from a two months' sojourn at the Hot Springs of Arkansas. It is to unwillingness to attend Mike's primaries and to confer with him on the state of the country and the best means of purifying and elevating our politics that our ministers, lawyers, and well-to-do persons generally, in this city, of the Republican persuasion, owe much of the odium which is heaped on them by politicians for "neglect of the first duty of a citizen." It will thus be seen that the dinner was a very important occasion. There was a letter read from Roscoe Conkling, expressing very warm feelings toward Mike, which led to three cheers for "the combination, Conkling and Cregan," and ex-Senator Platt wrote a letter recommending the promotion of the guest from the titular rank of "Captain" to that of "Major-General," which was followed by "three cheers for Me Too." None of the very great Stalwarts were present however, Mr. Conkling, General Grant, and Mr. Folger confining themselves to writing letters. But of Stalwart statesmen of the second order, the class to which Mike himself really belongs, there were present Jake Patterson, Barney Biglin, Johnny O'Brien, and others less known to fame.

The Anti-Polygamy Bill has passed both Houses, and will soon be a law. Its most direct, and indeed one may say its only direct, effect is to take the government of the Territory out of the hands of the Mormons. This may prepare the way for further punitive legislation against polygamy, but the present bill has really no terrors for any polygamist who cares nothing about voting or holding office. If he chooses to stay "out of politics," it will not inconvenience him in his domestic relations to any appreciable extent. But it is undoubtedly better that a local legislature of some kind should attack the polygamist in his home than that Congress should do it. It will know better how to get at him when surrounded by his wives, because it will know better what kind of proof of polygamous practices is easiest to provide.

Congress has probably never done anything more ambitious in the way of buncombe than the passage of a bill by the Senate creating a commission to examine the connection of the liquor traffic with revenue, taxation, crime, pauperism, social vice, the public health, and general welfare. There is probably no social question which has been so thoroughly examined as the liquor question. There is none on which such a mass of statistics have been collected. It is well established that drink is the cause of a very large part of all the crime and pauperism there is in the Western world. It is well known that a large—very large—revenue can be and is raised from it by civilized nations. In England nearly one-quarter of the national income comes from it. That excessive drinking is injurious to the individual health and morals is also so well settled that no rational person ventures to deny it. Whether moderate drinking is injurious to the health or not is a point on which doctors and physiologists are greatly, and apparently hopelessly, divided, and no re-examination of them by a Congressional commission would do anything but make confusion worse confounded. Opinions on this subject, as on all questions of health, are and must ever be greatly affected by individual experience, and individual experience about alcohol, as about tobacco, will always vary greatly, just as it varies greatly about cucumbers. All the doctors in the world cannot persuade a man who likes cucumbers, and knows they agree with him, that they are bad for him. The only question connected with the liquor traffic that a legislature can hope to throw light on by inquiry, is the question whether moderate drinking promotes excessive drinking, and whether, if so, all drinking can or ought to be suppressed, or nearly suppressed, by legislation. The only country in which any experiment has been made in this direction is the United States, and it would be interesting to know for certain what the result has been—a subject which is at present enveloped in fog. In fact, we doubt much whether this last point is not the only one on which official inquiry can do us any good, because, touching the consequences of moderate drinking, we should have to rely much on the experience of foreign countries, in which moderate drinking prevails extensively; and this an

American Commission is not likely to be able to investigate with any profit.

It would appear from the correspondence between the Civil-Service Reform Association and District Attorney Woodford that General Curtis, who has just been indicted for levying assessments on officeholders, tried to prevent witnesses from appearing against him by privately threatening them with dismissal. He, therefore, had to have his attention called to the statute prohibiting such intimidation of witnesses, and prescribing for the offence the very unpleasant penalty of six years in the penitentiary, which is far worse than the penalty for the offence with which he is now charged. There is, we believe, no desire on any one's part to pursue him vindictively, but if the system of extorting money, of which no public account is ever rendered, from poor men for campaign purposes, is to be stopped, somebody must be made an example of, and it is unfortunate for General Curtis that he should be the first to offer himself for this purpose. Still, if levying assessments be the harmless practice which he and some of his friends think it, he ought to meet the consequences like a man, without flinching or shirking. He has just moved the quashing of the indictment on the ground that his first name is not "Nehemiah," but Newton. It will be interesting to have the Assistant District Attorney's explanation of this mistake.

The excitement caused in England by the reluctance of the Londoners to part with the elephant Jumbo in the Zoölogical Gardens in that city, which Mr. Barnum had purchased for $10,000, is probably the best advertisement which that enterprising showman has ever received. In fact, it is so good, so like what he would himself imagine in his wilder dreams, as to lead many people to suspect that he got up the opposition himself, and that even Jumbo had been bribed with cakes to join his keeper in a show of pathetic reluctance to come to America, for the purpose of trumpeting his own fame and increasing public curiosity about "the greatest show on earth." The application for an injunction to Judge Chitty to restrain Jumbo's departure seems on the surface so absurd as to suggest to many that this, too, was applied for by Barnum himself, and that in spite of his telegram to his agent to resist it with able counsel, nobody is more amused by its refusal than he is. This is, however, to our mind a very superficial view of the matter. Few who have long watched British policy can doubt that the hostility to Jumbo's embarkation, and the transfer of the biggest elephant in the world to this country, has been sincere, but it is equally certain that the opposition would never have been attempted had Mr. Blaine remained in office. It was the pusillanimous course of Mr. Frelinghuysen toward Chili which first suggested the retention of the animal by force or fraud, and the application for an injunction. That Judge Chitty was deterred from granting it by private instructions from the Ministry, under the influence of the recent Whitthorne speech on foreign affairs in the House of Representatives, seems only too probable. The affair is now over, but we wish it had not occurred without a despatch from Mr. Blaine laying down the true American doctrine with regard to the big elephants of American citizens. There is no monarchical Zoölogical Garden which would not be the better for being penetrated by a few of his thunder tones on this question.

Mr. Gladstone has carried his vote of censure on the Peers for instituting an inquiry into the working of the Land Act, by 303 to 225, although the Parnellites did not vote. A majority of seventy-eight, under these circumstances, and in spite of all the late difficulties and disappointments, shows that the strength of the Ministry is substantially unimpaired. The censure of one House by the other seems somewhat startling to those who are only familiar with the two-chamber government under our system. Such a censure would be a great breach of propriety here, because both chambers are elected, and one has just as much constitutional weight as the other. In England the Lords have been in a position of subordination to the Commons ever since the Commons obtained the power of imposing a responsible Ministry on the King. The Commons now decide who shall carry on the Government, whatever the Lords may think, and in order to enable the man of its choice to carry on the Government, it has to arm him with sufficient strength to overbear a hostile majority in the Lords. This is done sometimes by rebuking the Peers, as now, or, in case of extreme necessity—as at the passage of the Reform Bill—by making or threatening to make a ministerial majority in the Lords by the creation of new Peers. Under better leadership than Lord Salisbury's, the Peers would avoid collisions like this, which make a formal revelation of their weakness.

The *Herald* publishes a very curious letter addressed by Mr. Adams, our Minister in Bolivia, to Mr. Belford, a member of Congress from Colorado. Mr. Adams complains, in very emphatic language, that his position is becoming ridiculous and intolerable, because the Chilians are opening and inspecting his official as well as private correspondence before it reaches him, and that he has reason to believe the Chilian authorities to be cognizant of this outrage. It may be thought somewhat remarkable that Mr. Adams should complain of such things to a member of Congress instead of to the State Department. But among the many extraordinary things in connection with our South American diplomacy to which we have become accustomed of late, such a little eccentricity as the letter of Mr. Adams to Mr. Belford appears rather insignificant. He gives also evidence of a very strong bias against the Chilians, which rather weakens the force of his statements. But his charge that the Chilians tamper with his official correspondence is a very serious one, and if he can bring sufficient proof to make a *prima-facie* case, it would certainly be in order for our Government to take notice of the matter and to make the Chilians understand that, while we are not inclined to put our fingers unduly into other people's business, we are determined to keep other people's fingers out of our own.

The more Mr. Blaine's Pan-American Synod is examined the more it seems to impress the imagination. It has already apparently in some parts of South America assumed the character of a sacred scheme, which must not be lightly criticised, and particularly that feature of it in which Mr. Blaine offered in the handsomest manner to pay for the hall in which the august body was to sit. A Guatemala editor has been commenting on it in terms which we should here consider mild and playful, whereupon the American Minister, Dr. Logan, complained of him to the President of the Republic, who incontinently put him in a dungeon, and suspended the publication of the paper. The American residents are said to be disgusted, because the Minister, if he did not foresee the view which the President would take of the offence, has not exerted himself to undo the mischief he had done and get the editor out of the dungeon. But he probably thinks a dungeon is just the place for such a wretch. The truth is, that the foreign agents of a Government take a long while to get over the disordering effects of even a few months' Jingoism on the part of their chief. The British Ministers and Consuls were set nearly crazy by the Disraeli administration, and committed every variety of folly, for which they are now all mourning. Sir Henry Layard, at Constantinople, under the frenetic influence from home, was suddenly transformed from an elderly quiet man of scientific tastes into a furious and denunciatory politician, and had the indecency to make savage attacks on Mr. Gladstone in his despatches.

The news from Montenegro that the Prince has ordered the mobilization of his little army is, if true, of considerable importance. It may indicate either that he is supplying himself with the means of preventing the violation of his own frontier by the Herzogovina insurgents, or that he anticipates such an extension of the insurrection as will compel him take part in it. In either case, the reports would throw doubts on the last accounts from Austrian sources of the subsidence of the troubles in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Whether it be true or not that General Skobeleff has been put under arrest and is now confined in a fortress, it is plain that the Czar feels the necessity of reassuring Austria in some emphatic way. The assertion of one Russian paper that the existing trouble, whatever it is, can only be settled by a European Congress, shows that the Russians are disposed to think it serious trouble. But the best guarantee of peace is, after all, to be found in the fact that two of the parties which would do the fighting if war broke out are not quite ready. Austria is not in a condition to undertake a great contest which might assume an anti-Slav character, because she is too dependent on Slavs for her strength both in men and money. Russia might be supposed eager for the fray as an escape from her domestic troubles, if it were not that she tried the same remedy in 1877, with the result of making her domestic troubles worse than ever.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

On Monday the President sent to the Senate the names of Samuel Blatchford and John Russell Young, of New York, to be Associate Justice of the Supreme Court and Minister to China respectively. Judge Blatchford has been Judge of the United States District Court since 1878. Mr. Young is a journalist who has, of late years, been connected with the New York *Herald*. He went around the world as the *Herald* correspondent with General Grant, who is said to have urged his appointment as Minister to China.

Letters from Mr. Conkling and Mr. Edmunds, declining the Associate-Justiceship of the Supreme Court, have been published.

The President has approved the act authorizing the use of naval vessels in aid of the sufferers from the Mississippi floods; the act for the purchase of the Freedman's Bank building; the act making an appropriation for the proposed Garfield monument; and the joint resolution in behalf of the American Company of Revisers of the New Testament for the return and remission of customs dues.

A statement having appeared in the London *Athenæum* that negotiations for a copyright convention between the United States and Great Britain had been suspended by President Arthur and Mr. Frelinghuysen, the State Department has furnished a correction, from which it appears that the state of the negotiations is this: A "projet" for a convention, which has been approved by leading publishers and authors, was submitted to Great Britain, and a counter "projet" has been submitted by Great Britain to the United States. They are now in the hands of the printer, and as soon as copies can be obtained, they will be submitted with a view to continuing the negotiations.

The bill prohibiting Chinese immigration for twenty years was passed by the Senate on Thursday. Two amendments proposed by Senator Farley, of California, prohibiting State courts from conferring citizenship upon Chinese, and decreeing that the prohibition of immigration should extend to skilled artisans as well as coolies, were adopted. The Democrats, with one or two exceptions, voted for the bill, and the Republicans, with the exception of the Senators from the Pacific coast and Senator Cameron, of Wisconsin, against it.

On Friday the Senate passed a bill providing for a commission to inquire into the liquor traffic, and take testimony as to the practical results of license and prohibitory legislation.

Mr. Edmunds's Anti-Polygamy Bill was passed by the House on Tuesday by a vote of 199 to 42. It was passed as it came from the Senate, without amendment. The bill makes bigamy and polygamy punishable as misdemeanors by fine and imprisonment. One of the most important features in it is the provision that in order to convict a man of either of these offences it will not be necessary to prove the rite of marriage.

Three memorials received from the Mormon authorities in Utah were laid before the House on Friday. These memorials protest "against hasty, reckless action in regard to the political disorganization" of the Territory of Utah, and purport to be signed respectively by 15,000 women, 12,378 men, and 10,966 "young ladies" of Utah. The "young ladies" and "young men" are said to include all the boys and girls over eight years of age.

The Utah Legislature adjourned *sine die* on Saturday evening. In the closing speeches there was a tacit recognition of the fact that the days of polygamous legislation were forever passed.

The House recently passed a resolution directing the Secretary of the Treasury to communicate all the information in his possession in relation to certain vessels, including the steamer *Bahama*, which was recently lost, and which were alleged to be unseaworthy. The vessels are said to have sailed out of the port of New York under the English flag with American certificates. In reply the Secretary has sent to Congress a letter from Supervising Inspector-General Dumont, who says that the records of his office fail to show that any steamer has ever sailed from the port of New York under the English flag with American certificates, and that there is no foundation in fact for the report that the *Bahama* sailed in that condition.

Mr. Belmont presented a resolution in the House on Monday inquiring by what authority Mr. Trescot had been employed since 1877, out of what fund he has been paid, and by virtue of what law he is now employed, and how he is paid. This resolution is said to be the result of the testimony recently taken in the State Department which showed that Mr. Trescot, under both Secretaries Evarts and Blaine, had the run of the State Department, and access to the files, and was allowed to take papers from them. Mr. Williams, chairman of the Foreign Affairs Committee, objected to the adoption of the resolution and insisted upon its reference. It will, however, probably come up hereafter.

The Senate Committee on Indian Affairs has agreed upon a bill to provide for the allotment of lands in severalty to Indians on reservations, and to extend the civil and criminal laws of the respective States or Territories to each Indian to whom land is so allotted within their boundaries. The orders for the allotments are to be made by the President of the United States at his discretion, but the bill prescribes that 160 acres of agricultural land shall be patented to each head of a family, and eighty acres to each single person over eighteen years of age, and to each orphan child. The land thus acquired by the Indians is to be inalienable and free from taxation for a period of twenty-five years from the dates of the patents.

Indian Agent Armstrong has preferred a request to the Secretary of the Interior that 100 Crow children, under his charge at the Crow Agency in Montana, be sent to certain farmers in Ohio who have asked for them, to be educated for a useful career, and Mr. Kirkwood instructed the agent to send such children as might wish to go.

A report of the Secretary of War shows that our Indian wars in the last ten years have cost $5,058,821.

The floods in the South and West continue. Over 50,000 people have been driven from their homes, and the loss in property, chiefly cotton crops, is estimated at over $40,000,000. The Mississippi River continues to rise, and there is danger that the city of New Orleans may be flooded.

The distress in the Mississippi valley, resulting from the overflow and broken levees, has opened anew the whole question of Mississippi River improvements, and the House Committee on the matter have agreed to report a bill embodying a plan for long stretches of levees to confine the river in narrow limits, on the theory that it would cut its own channel by the "scouring-out" process operating at the jetties.

The National Board of Health is said to be considering the question of assuming charge of the New York Quarantine, on account of the alleged failure of the present Quarantine officers to detain immigrants affected with smallpox.

Bail was fixed in the Star-route cases in the Criminal Court, at Washington, on Tuesday and Friday. Brady gave bonds for $20,000, the two Dorseys for $10,000 each, and the other for smaller amounts. Mr. Bliss, counsel for the Government, urged that some time be fixed for pleading, as the Government wished at least to get the conspiracy cases on trial before summer. Mr. Wilson, for the defence, replied that he thought they would be prepared to plead one week from Thursday, and that the court could then fix a day for argument. This arrangement was accordingly agreed upon.

The record in the Flipper court-martial case, together with Judge-Advocate-General Swaim's report, have been submitted to the President. General Swaim is understood to recommend a mitigation of the sentence of dismissal, on the ground that Flipper, while convicted of certain violations of the army regulations, was acquitted of the criminal acts charged against him. The general impression is that the sentence will be mitigated.

The findings of the court-martial in the case of Sergeant Mason, who shot at Guiteau last September, were made public on Friday afternoon by an order issued by General Hancock. The court-martial finds him guilty of the charge, and pronounces sentence as follows: "To be dishonorably discharged from the service of the United States, with the loss of all pay and allowances now due or to become due to him, and then to be confined at hard labor in such Penitentiary as the proper authorities may direct, for eight years." General Hancock's order states that the findings have been approved, and that sentence will be duly executed. The Penitentiary at Albany is designated as the place of Mason's confinement.

District Attorney Corkhill has finished the examination of the bill of exceptions in the Guiteau case. He says that a large part of it refers to the medical testimony, but that it is a remarkable fact that there is no exception to any part of Dr. Gray's testimony. The exceptions will probably be argued before the General Term some time in April.

A malignant attack on President Garfield appeared in the Washington *Post* on Friday, over the signature of "Justice." The communication excited great indignation, and many unavailing efforts have been made to discover its authorship. The following sentence indicates its character: "Garfield was a treacherous, a cowardly, a hypocritical man, selfish to the extreme, and not caring what happened so that it did not happen to himself."

There have been disturbances in Omaha, Nebraska, occasioned by large strikes, and the Governor of the State, apprehending serious trouble, asked the President to authorize the use of United States troops, in addition to the militia, to suppress the disturbances. The President consented.

The strikers at Omaha held a meeting on Sunday afternoon, at which 3,000 people were present. Speeches were made exhorting the Labor Union to stand firm, and abusing the authorities. Four ringleaders of the strike have been arrested and put under bonds.

In a communication to the Secretary of the Navy, Captain Meade, commander of the *Vandalia*, reports, under date of March 1, the result of his personal observation on the Isthmus of Panama. He says that the canal company has been quietly at work preparing for the gigantic task before it, and has accomplished a large amount of preliminary work. The entire line has been cleared of underbrush for a width of about 300 yards, and all along the line the company has constructed stations and villages for its laborers. The machinery brought from Europe is clumsy and comparatively antiquated, and Captain Meade says he hears that most of the machinery will be made in the United States hereafter.

Another oyster war seems imminent in Virginia. A fleet of "alien oyster vessels" is depredating upon the oyster beds of the Rappahannock and other streams of the State, and spreading terror among the inhabitants of those regions, in defiance of the laws of the State and unawed by Governor Cameron's recent expedition and subsequent proclamation.

John McCullough, one of the leading Machine politicians and bosses in Philadelphia, declared recently in the Council Chamber in that city, that he was dissatisfied with the

methods of the bosses, and announced his faith in reform within the Republican party of Philadelphia.

Mr. Maretzek, who was appointed to succeed Mr. Thomas as director of the Cincinnati College of Music, has followed Mr. Thomas's example, and severed his connection with the college. He asserts that his contract with the college has been grossly violated, and that no alternative was left him.

Another heavy bank defalcation was brought to light in New York on Thursday. R. H. Cornwell, the "aged loan clerk" of the Fourth National Bank of that city, had pledged $70,000 worth of securities belonging to the bank, to cover margins on stock speculations. Cornwell was "prominent in Methodist Church circles," and possessed all the other virtues which are necessary to a defaulting bank official.

The Rev. Henry Highland Garnet, a prominent colored clergyman of this city, of slave parentage, and recently appointed Minister to Liberia by the late President Garfield, died at Monrovia on the 13th of February.

FOREIGN.

The anniversary of the assassination of the Czar Alexander II. was celebrated in St. Petersburg on Monday, by a solemn service at the Cathedral of Sts. Peter and Paul. The Czar visited his father's tomb, and dismissed his escort while driving through the streets of the city on his return.

General Skobeleff has again made trouble by his speeches. This time he delivered an address to a number of Russian officers, stating that "the best Russian is the Czar," and that Europe knows what he thinks on the Slav question. He added that his recall was only a new humiliation proceeding from "the man who, with blood and iron, had founded an empire which must be destroyed by Russian blood and iron." The Czar is reported to have rebuked Skobeleff for his former speech, telling him that he had by his remarks irritated Germany and destroyed the hope of her acting as a mediator in the Slav question, and that, thanks to him (Skobeleff), "Russia feels herself derided, hooted at, and completely isolated in Europe."

General Skobeleff, in reply to the Czar's rebuke, expressed contrition and declared that he had no intention of posing as a political agitator. The General reports that he was a great lion in France during his stay there, and that copies of his speech were distributed to the French army and fleet, and that he was "so overwhelmed with visiting cards and ovations from the officers of both that it was plain that all thought war was imminent with Germany." General Skobeleff related this in an interview which he had with General Ignatieff on his return to St. Petersburg. General Ignatieff "laughed heartily," and "they both parted on the best of terms."

The result of all this has been that war rumors have been assiduously circulated in Europe during the week, a sample of which was contained in a despatch from Constantinople on Thursday, which stated that in official circles war between Russia and Austria was thought to be inevitable; that the question of calling out the reserves was being seriously discussed, and that it had been at least decided in principle that some preparatory measures should be taken.

A majority of the Nihilists recently tried and condemned to death in Russia will present petitions to the Czar for mercy. By a decision of Procurator Muravieff the counsel will not be allowed to consult their clients alone, but only in the presence of gendarmes. The condemned have requested their counsel to render the last service in their power by being present at their death.

It is announced from Odessa that thirty Jews, possessing an aggregate capital of 35,000 rubles, have left Kieff for Palestine, where they intend to engage in farming.

The proclamation issued by King Milan, on the elevation of the principality to a kingdom, expresses gratitude to the European powers for their sympathy toward Servia, and says the national enthusiasm is a guarantee that in future the spirit of Servia's immortal liberator, Milosh, will be honored, and that the energies of the new King will be devoted to the dissemination of virtue and enlightenment.

At a council of the Austrian and Hungarian Ministers on Sunday, the Minister of War of the Empire announced the complete Austrian occupation of Crivoscie, but said he did not yet anticipate a withdrawal of the troops, and that fortifications on the frontier, costing 1,500,000 florins, would be required. This amount, together with the sum necessary for maintaining the troops on a war footing, will make necessary a fresh grant, and an extraordinary meeting of the delegation will accordingly be summoned for April.

It is stated that the Austrian Cabinet has decided to present a bill in the Reichsrath making provision for the budget deficit by the issue of 40,000,000 florins of five per cent. paper rentes.

A despatch from Vienna announces that Johann Strauss has been engaged for the new Casino in New York.

In Greece the Government has been defeated by the election of the Opposition candidate as President of the Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 127 to 76. The Ministry thereupon resigned, and M. Tricoupis was intrusted by the King with the formation of a new Ministry.

The French Senate on Saturday, in discussing compulsory primary education, rejected by a vote of 167 to 123 an amendment requiring schoolmasters to teach pupils their duty toward God and their country.

A despatch from Paris says that M. Roustan, having to participate in the deliberations upon the financial and administrative reorganization of Tunis, will not leave for Washington before the middle of May. M. Outrey, the present Minister at Washington, will meanwhile remain there.

The Italian Consul-General in Tunis has protested against the insecurity of life and property in the Regency, and has declared that he will hold the Bey responsible in the event of Italians losing their lives. It was reported in Paris on Sunday that trouble was again imminent in Tunis, the insurgents having proclaimed Ali Kalifa, their leader, Bey; and that French flying columns would be immediately despatched from Gafsa and Gabes in the direction of the Tripolitan frontier.

Arabi Bey, Egyptian Minister of War, and six other leaders of the military movement, have been appointed Brigadier-Generals, with the title of Pasha. M. de Blignières, the French Controller-General in Egypt, has resigned, and it is stated that the foreign control of Egyptian affairs will be henceforth confined to financial functions, and the execution of the policy of France and England will be exclusively confided to their respective Consuls-General.

Herr Windthorst, the Ultramontane leader, has introduced a bill into the Prussian Landtag, repealing the law withholding emoluments from the clergy and abolishing penalties for saying mass and administering sacraments.

A supplement of the London *Gazette* states that the Queen has written to Sir William Harcourt, Secretary of State for the Home Department, that she wishes, before she leaves England on her trip to the Continent, to express how deeply she has been touched by the outburst of enthusiastic loyalty and devotion which her attempted assassination called forth from all parts of her vast empire, as well as the universal sympathy evinced by the sovereigns and peoples of other nations.

McLean, the Queen's assailant, has been committed for trial on the charge of high treason. On being arraigned on Friday, he said he would reserve his defence, and declined to cross-examine the witnesses. The evidence confirmed the statement that his pistol was sufficiently elevated when he fired for the ball to have struck the Queen. McLean is reported to have "laughed several times" at the evidence given by the Eton College students.

Mr. Gladstone's resolution relative to the House of Lords' inquiry into the working of the Land Act was carried by a vote of 303 to 235 on Thursday evening. The Parnellites left the House without voting. During the discussion previous to the vote the Marquis of Hartington, Secretary of State for India, and Sir Stafford Northcote delivered speeches. The former said that the Lords had put a grave obstacle in the way of governing Ireland, and their inquiry could not beneficially affect the Land Act. Sir Stafford Northcote said in substance that what the Lords had done was in the exercise of their undoubted right.

At a meeting of the Irish Parliamentary party in London, on Monday evening, it was determined to form Irish national independence associations, Ireland's "inalienable right to self-government" being proclaimed.

Mr. Lowell, United States Minister to England, replying to an application made in behalf of American citizens arrested in Ireland, recently said: "The Coercion Act is contrary to the spirit and foundation of the principles of both English and American jurisprudence, but is the law of the land, and controls all persons domiciled in the proclaimed districts of Ireland, whether British subjects or not. It is manifestly futile to claim that naturalized citizens of the United States should be exempted from the operation of the Act."

A large number of copies of the *United Ireland* were seized in Cork on Thursday, and the paper has since suspended publication James Rourke, the business partner of Mr. Egan, the treasurer of the Land League, was arrested under the Coercion Act in Dublin on Thursday, on the charge of intimidation.

Archbishop McCabe, of Dublin, has issued another pastoral denouncing recent outrages in Ireland, and stigmatizing recent associations as encouraging murder.

A meeting was held at the Mansion House, in London, on Wednesday, the 8th, to discuss the question of bi-metallism. Letters of approval of bi-metallism from the French and German Ministers were read. Minister Lowell and the Ministers from Greece, Holland, Rumania, and Chili were present. The Governor of the Bank of England and several members of Parliament spoke to resolutions in favor of the free coinage of silver and the objects of the Paris Conference. The resolutions were carried. About 1,200 people were present, including many prominent business men. The London *Times* deprecated the meeting as calculated to foster a delusion abroad that England intends to tamper with the currency.

It is announced that at the approaching Consistory the Pope will create seven new Cardinals, including the Reverend Dr. McCabe, Archbishop of Dublin, the Archbishops of Seville and Algiers, and the Patriarch of Venice. It is understood that Archbishop McCabe's promotion expresses the Pope's approval of the efforts he has made in the cause of law and order in Ireland.

The Volksraad of the Orange Free State has refused to allow President Brand to accept the Grand Cross of the Order of St. Michael and St. George, offered him by Great Britain for his services in connection with the settlement of the Transvaal difficulty.

Giovanni Lanza, one of the most prominent of Italian statesmen, died on Thursday. He was Minister of Finance under Count Cavour, was twice elected President of the Chamber of Deputies, and, on the downfall of the Menabrea administration, was entrusted with the formation of a Liberal Cabinet.

TUESDAY, March 14, 1882.

THE REPUBLICAN PARTY AND THE CHINESE BILL.

In spite of the indignation excited among some by the speech of Mr. George, of Mississippi, on the Chinese Bill, in which he assumes the bill to be a confession that this is "a white man's Government," and that the enfranchisement of the negroes at the South is simply an experiment, there is no doubt that he is right in his interpretation. Others have doubtless perceived the remoter bearings of the measure as well as he, but to him belongs the merit of having pointed them out with candor and clearness. For this he is entitled to thanks rather than abuse. It is only fifteen years since the close of the war, and less than fifteen since the passage of the latest constitutional amendments, and yet the Republicans in Congress seem to have already forgotten the principles for which they then contended and which they compelled the South to adopt at the point of the bayonet.

The first and foremost of these was, that in the United States no man should be deprived either of the protection of the laws or of participation in the government by any disqualification which could not be removed by any exertion on his own part. The States were, therefore, all forbidden to exclude any man from the franchise on account of "race, color, or previous condition of servitude"—or, in other words, on account of any defects which he could not possibly cure. They might exclude him because he was ignorant, or because he was poor; but they might not exclude him because of his ancestry or his complexion, or because somebody had in times past done him a wrong.

The second principle was that the fundamental rights of men dwelling in the United States were not to be left at the mercy of local passion or prejudice, whether it found its expression in State legislation or in mob violence, or, as Mr. Miller's preamble calls it, "disorders in certain localities." With this in view, an enormous expansion was given to the idea of United States citizenship, and Republican orators in and out of Congress never wearied in descanting on the completeness of the protection it afforded, even in its simple and non-enfranchised form, against the bigotry or fanaticism of particular districts.

Now see what is happening in Washington. The Republicans are actually supporting a measure which is treating race as a disqualification not only for the franchise, but even for peaceful and industrious residence in the country. The bill does not exclude Chinamen because they are ignorant, or poor, or lazy, or turbulent, but because they are Mongolians. Under it, nothing that a Chinese laborer can do can procure him permission to enter the country so long as he remains a Chinaman. Moreover, it is not alleged in the bill, or in the preamble, that the Chinese are a law-breaking or vicious people, or that their presence is dangerous to the public health or welfare. It is beyond question that they are no more objectionable as laborers than the negroes were at the South after the war, and are much more highly civilized. Moreover, their presence does not trouble the whole Union. There is no prejudice against them among the great bulk of the American people. The sole cause of the legislation against them is the prejudice of the 1,009,390 whites of the Pacific coast, or of about one-fiftieth of the American people. Nor does Congress ask whether this local prejudice is reasonable, as it did in dealing with the Southern Black Codes and with the operations of the Ku-Klux Klan. It assumes that it is reasonable, and prepares legislation of the most sweeping kind for its gratification. In other words, it practically surrenders to the States the right of deciding that race, color, or previous condition may make a man unfit to be either an American citizen or voter.

It will be said by many, however, as Mr. Edmunds says substantially, that the bill, being levelled solely against foreigners, does not conflict with the ground taken by the Republican party for the protection of the Southern blacks, who, whatever their mental or moral defects, were natives of the country, and actually resident in the country; and that every country must have the right of deciding whether foreigners may take up their abode in it. Unfortunately for this argument, however, this bill is not directed against all foreigners. If it were, it would be, however illiberal, following an example set by many countries, and notably by China herself. But it is only directed against a particular class of foreigners. It excludes Chinamen, not because they are foreigners, but because they are Chinamen. It is therefore legislation against a particular race, and for this there is no example among civilized nations in recent days, except the legislation against the Jews, which still disgraces the statute-book of Russia, and until very recently disgraced the statute-book of several other Christian nations. In passing this bill, therefore, we are not keeping America for the Americans, we are discriminating against a whole category of men on account of race or color. We are thus cutting from under our feet the ground on which we forced the Fifteenth Amendment on the adoption of the South. For if we once admit that race or color can in American polity disqualify any man, native or foreign, for any privilege we have to bestow, we admit that the enfranchisement of the negro was justifiable on grounds of expediency only, and thus, as Mr. George truly says, relegate it to the character of an experiment which has not yet been fully tried, which may fail, and may have to be abandoned.

The speech of Mr. Jones, of Nevada, in the Senate, was as fitting a preliminary to the passage of the bill as could well be imagined. He boldly took the ground that if the protectionist policy is a good one, it should provide protection for the laborer as well as for the capitalist; and that for this purpose it is not enough to shut out the foreign manufacturer's goods. Foreign "pauper labor" must be shut out too, and for this reason alone the exclusion of the Chinese is called for, and the more skilful, ingenious, and industrious they are, the more it is called for. In this argument he met those who oppose the exclusion of the Chinese because of their industry and intelligence. He then met those who oppose it because it is a discrimination against a particular race, by adopting and expanding the argument of Mr. George of Mississippi, that there is a serious difference in the social and political value of different races, and that inferior races ought to be shut out; that the presence of the blacks at the South is a misfortune; that bestowing the suffrage on them has not solved the problem of their relation to the whites; that if they were not in the country already they ought never to be admitted; and that if let alone by the whites they would relapse into their old barbarism. The whole discourse was enough to make Thaddeus Stevens or Joshua R. Giddings turn in his grave. Strange to say, however, it was very effective. The bill was passed by 29 to 15—five Republicans being among the majority.

The bill derives additional spice as a novelty from the fact that though nominally passed in execution of the late treaty with China, it is really a violation of it. The treaty provides for the regulation of immigration, while this virtually prohibits it altogether, by shutting out the class of laborers which contains almost all the immigration which there is, or is likely to be. The Chinese travellers, and students, and scientific men, and merchants who are likely to come to this country in any one year will probably not fill a small omnibus. This feature of the bill will probably highly commend it to the hard-working and painstaking Bill Nyes of the Pacific coast, for they have always enjoyed cheating a Chinaman even more than robbing him.

Another feature in the bill which will cause it to be highly relished by the humorous cynics of both hemispheres is that it proclaims the deliberate adoption, by the newest nation of the West, of the old policy which the Chinese kept up for thousands of years, but were compelled to abandon as barbarous by European guns, backed up by the American example and persuasion. The Chinese are a serious people, and not given to boisterous mirth; but there must be more or less laughter, even in the Board of Foreign Affairs at Pekin, when they hear that the old and much-reviled Chinese plan has been adopted by the American republic, and that Mr. Jones had successfully urged on the American Senate the trial of the Chinese mode of preserving that homogeneity of race to which he ascribed the permanence of Chinese institutions.

To crown all, the bill introduces the passport system into America, after it has been abandoned by some of the leading nations of Europe. Under it every Chinaman of any class who comes into this country is to have a passport, with the usual physical description, or "signalement," as the French police call it, and an account of his occupation and place of abode, and it is to be *viséd* in China by the United States agents. In addition to this, all Chinese travellers or residents are to be registered at our custom-houses, and the registry is again to contain the "signalement" of each person. In fact, considering what the attitude of the United States toward foreigners has been ever since the foundation of the Government, and considering how deep the faith of the American people has been in the power of their institutions to withstand even the vice and ignorance of foreigners, and convert

them into good citizens, this legislation must be considered one of the most extraordinary pieces of tergiversation in political history. It is the more extraordinary because the more one examines the Chinese problem on the Pacific coast, the more satisfied one becomes that the whole anti-Chinese movement, in so far as it is political, is the result of the judicial decision which denied to Chinamen the quality of being "free white persons" for purposes of naturalization under the United States statute, although this statute expressly admits to citizenship the savages of the African continent as well as our native blacks. If even 3,000 Chinamen had been naturalized in California, and had been voters during the past ten years, it is all but certain that neither the Democratic nor the Republican politicians would have discovered the horrors of Chinese immigration, or have ventured to plant passports, and alien registries, and disqualification by race and color on American soil. In fact, they would probably be by this time as anxious to deny all hostility to Chinamen as they are now to conceal that they ever favored negro slavery, or belonged to a Know-Nothing lodge.

THE COMMERCIAL AND FINANCIAL SITUATION.

Foreign consumers show but little disposition to take our breadstuffs and provisions at present prices. There is a general holding off in all the foreign markets. There has been so much said about "speculation" buoying up the prices of all these commodities, that in all the European consuming markets there is a belief that there must some time soon come a general breaking down of prices in this country. This has been the prevailing impression all winter, and yet prices have been maintained with a firmness which has surprised a good many, who are now beginning to modify somewhat their views about the extent to which prices may be too high to find a market.

The supply of grain—wheat and corn—in the entire country, available for export, is less than last year, and the same may be said of provisions and lard. Large stocks of all these commodities are concentrated at the great representative point of Chicago, and are held there by the capital of speculators invested in them, thus making the appearance of excessive supplies. The demand for all these has also been less than last year, and the movement of the commodities has been unusually light. The mild winter has been favorable to preparations for next year's crop of spring wheat in the Northwest, and everything is favorable to a good one. And yet it is possible that the diminished supply of corn in the West at large and the diminished supply of hogs, together with increased demands from the South for all sorts of food stuffs, may show that the present prices of pork, lard, corn, and even wheat are not too high, and that Europe will eventually take the surplus at something like present prices.

Cotton is the greatest item in the adjustment of our foreign balance, and upon the particulars of the supply and export of this will depend to a greater extent than on any other one item the movements of gold and the consequent financial situation in this country during the current year. The speculators and statisticians have been operating upon the assumption that the crop now coming to market will, by September 1, at the end of the cotton year, show a shortage of 1,100,000 bales—some say 1,200,000 bales—as compared with the previous year. Upon the same basis of prices this would show a shortage of between $55,000,000 and $60,000,000 in our stock of exportable products as compared with the previous year. Of course, a large part of this will be made up by higher prices for what we do export; and this equalizing effect will be felt more and more toward the latter end of the cotton year if it become apparent that the shortage is as much as was estimated, and if, as is possible, it also become apparent that the present floods in the cotton regions of the Mississippi Valley have made another important shortage in the next crop. But, however these features may turn out, the present visible supply of cotton available for export is about 100,000 bales greater than last year, with larger stocks on hand in Europe. Thus far, the legitimate demand for consumption in England does not indicate a disposition to buy largely of American cotton at present prices; but systematic cotton speculators, who make the elaborate published cotton statistics a study, and base their operations on their opinions derived from them, are not only maintaining prices in this market nearly a cent above Liverpool, but are shipping cotton there notwithstanding the advance prices, and hoping to get out with a profit by the anticipated rise in foreign markets. It is proper to add that some of the most careful and best informed operators declare they do not see how this result can be expected; nevertheless, it is largely to this kind of shipments that the increased supply of commercial bills on the market within the past week has been due.

To the extent that America is the world's greatest source of supply for food-stuffs and cotton, there has been much reason for higher prices everywhere. Last year's crops showed an important diminution in almost every item. The severity of last winter caused enormous losses of live stock in the far West, which are just now beginning to be made apparent in the great decrease of this winter's pork-packing in the West. The falling off in the winter wheat and corn crops, and the very important one in the cotton crop of last summer, are all sufficient reasons for higher prices for all articles of food and cotton than last year. But it is not only on account of these higher prices that the foreign markets have not taken our surplus this year. The policy of foreign governments in discouraging the great dependence of their respective countries upon America for these supplies had an effect in the same direction. During the three years up to last fall we had, by the great export of all these commodities at much lower prices than now, drawn about $220,000,000 of gold from and revolutionized our commercial relations with Europe. It was partly to prevent this further outflow of gold that such opposition was made on the Continent to the importation of American products.

This opposition on the Continent, followed by the advance in the rates of discount at the great banks of England, France, and Germany, checked our exports, and caused the reëxportation from this country since January 1 of $11,291,340 of the specie we had gained from Europe in the last three years. This reaction continues to some extent, but all the latter part of the week foreign exchange has been vibrating about the point of 4.89½, below which the export and insurance of gold are not justified. The immediate prospect, therefore, is not unfavorable to a change of all the conditions in our favor. It may be delayed by the continued sluggishness of the foreign demand for a time; but, as foreign consumers begin to realize that there has really been an important decrease in every item of American products, and consider the possibilities of European war, the conditions may possibly change.

In our more immediate financial affairs, also, there has been a great change for the better. The inflation has been taken out of American stocks; the too sanguine views of projectors of great improvements have been reduced to a safer and, it is believed, a solid basis. The average of all non-dividend-paying stocks are now selling at about sixty per cent. of the prices which they commanded last May, and even the dividend-payers are far below their value as compared with the rates obtainable for the large supplies of money seeking investment. In brief, therefore, it may be said that, unless some new disaster should occur, we are at the bottom of the long decline of the last nine months, and that, though the reaction may be delayed a little, yet it will come this spring with a more active movement of our present surplus products at somewhere near present prices, and be followed up by the prospect of better crops. Meanwhile we may reasonably expect nearly 1,000,000 immigrants during the current year, with all their addition of money and labor to the resources of the country.

NON-PARTISAN JURIES.

From the time of Lord Mansfield to the present day all legal reformers have admitted that the jury system has its imperfections. Juries are popular bodies, and as such apt to be swayed by prejudice and passion, and the influence of prejudice and passion is just what all who are interested in the administration of justice feel that it ought to be absolutely free from. The defenders of the jury system, however, have always maintained that while some other mode of trial may be better in civil suits, juries serve, in all cases involving political questions, a useful purpose, as judges are apt in such cases to be themselves influenced by anti-popular sentiment, and in order to protect life and liberty and popular rights against judicial tyranny, a tribunal drawn fresh from the people is needed.

For this reason, it was generally felt at the close of the war, that for the preservation in the South of the political and civil rights of the negro we must rely very much on the jury system. With the negroes admitted to sit on juries, and "ex-rebels" disqualified, fair trials securing the "results of the war" would be possible. There was always a good deal of dispute as to how the Southern jury system

worked, however, but the general advance in prosperity and quiet in that part of the country since the end of the war seemed to shew that the changes introduced did not lead to any evils, and that the business of the United States courts in the South was transacted in such a way as to give a new proof of the value of what used to be known as the "palladium" of the liberties of the race.

In 1879, however, some legal reformers in Congress hit upon a new plan for the improvement of Southern juries, which looks as if it had been suggested by one of the great discoveries in the science of municipal government made in this city. It may have been the triumphant success of our "non-partisan" Park and Police boards, composed of an equal number of members of the two great political parties, which led these reformers to inquire why the same principle could not be extended to juries. Why indeed? There is far less apparent connection between parks, the police, and politics than there is between juries and politics in the South. To require all juries to be made up of six Republicans and six Democrats was, from a legal point of view, however, an innovation, and, like all great reforms, was not an easy measure to carry through on its merits without a good deal of discussion and opposition. To avoid this difficulty the reformers resorted to a plan which generally works like a charm in legislative matters. They put their measure into the form of a "rider" to the Judicial Appropriation Bill, and put before Congress the alternative of making the jury system "non-partisan" or bringing the judicial machinery of the Government to a standstill.

The "rider" which, against many idle protests from General Garfield and others, became law, provides that all jurors in United States courts "shall be publicly drawn from a box containing . . . the names of not less than 300 persons, . . . which names shall have been placed therein by the clerk of such court and a commissioner to be appointed by the judge thereof, which commissioner shall be a citizen of good standing, residing in the district in which such court is held, and *a well-known member of the principal political party in the district in which the court is held opposing that to which the clerk may belong*, the clerk and said commissioner each to place one name in said box alternately, without reference to party affiliations, until the whole number required shall be placed therein."

The law has now been in force for two years, and, strange to say, according to testimony collected in the South, non-partisan as it is, the manner in which it works is only satisfactory to one political party—the Democrats At the first blush, it would seem impossible that any one could object to a jury system which made it almost certain that no jury could be drawn which would be composed exclusively of members of either political party. But the Republicans in the South are by no means happy over it. They say, for instance, that at the last term of Judge Settle's court there were several cases of offences against the election laws, the testimony in which, according to the judge, was so conclusive that the jury ought to have brought in verdicts of guilty without leaving the jury-box; instead of which they disagreed in every case. General Duskin, United States District Attorney in Alabama, says that in a recent case the election officials in a certain district were indicted for a violation of the election laws—their returns failing to show a single Republican vote cast. Twelve witnesses on the trial testified to seeing Republican ballots deposited. The jury disagreed. According to a Republican lawyer from another Southern State, "the 300 men selected are chosen from bitter partisans of the opposing parties. The clerk of the court selects 150 Republicans, and the commissioner chooses 150 Democrats; and every case is decided, not according to the testimony, but according to the political predilections of jurors. In other words, it is not decided at all, but ends in a disagreement of the jury."

Another Republican lawyer ironically says:

"It works splendidly. . . . Every trial ends in a disagreement of the jury. No attention is paid to the testimony. The Republican jurors vote to convict and the Democratic jurors acquit the offenders. To show you how perfectly the jurors understand their duties, I will tell you a true story. Last year it became known that certain enterprising Democrats had been indicted in our State for violating the election laws. As the time for the trials drew near, appeals were made in the Democratic newspapers and elsewhere for contributions of money to pay the cost of defending the criminals. Assessments were also levied on the members of the Democratic clubs to raise funds for this purpose. It happened that a member of one of these clubs, who had been drawn as a juror, was asked to pay his assessment of one dollar. 'Well,' said he, 'I do not think I ought to pay that money. I am on the jury, you know, and I expect to do my share there in acquitting these persons.' I understand that this plea was considered a good one."

This looks as if the non-partisan system cannot be relied upon to solve the jury problem in the South. The reformers who got the law through Congress seem to have overlooked the fact that a perfect non-partisan scheme ought to produce results satisfactory to both political parties, and that Republicans can hardly be expected to regard as non-partisan a jury system which satisfies only Democrats.

The pretence of trying to get "non-partisan" bodies of all kinds by making them up in equal parts of bitterly opposed partisans is getting to be altogether too transparent for use, and its application to the jury system by means of a forced "rider" to an appropriation bill, with the comical but inevitable results of producing, in cases growing out of "politics," not non-partisan verdicts, but disagreements of the jury, seems like a bit of legislative *bouffe*.

GOVERNMENT ABSORPTION OF PRUSSIAN RAILWAYS.

BERLIN, February 26.

THE ownership of the German railroads by the Government, and not by private companies, will be decided in a few weeks. The committee of the House of the Prussian Landtag agrees with the Government in the choice and price of the roads to be purchased, and the formal adoption of this resolution will shortly, as a matter of course, be voted by the majority. The present Minister of Public Works, Herr Maybach, is able and competent in his line. As he has no political aspirations of his own, and in all his transactions is led by his desire to please his chief, Bismarck, he has in all his doings the powerful arm of the Chancellor behind him, and achieves what none of his predecessors would have dared to urge, and what even Bismarck could not have accomplished without the energetic assistance of an ambitious Minister like Herr Maybach.

You will remember that in 1876 Prince Bismarck proposed to buy all German private roads for the Empire. At that time, when he had not yet surrendered himself to the protectionists and agrarians, the measure was looked upon more as a political than an economical plan. Even a great many of the present political adversaries of the Chancellor agreed with him, that the most practical way to reduce the petty princes to utter insignificance, beginning with Bavaria and ending with Schwarzburg, would be to divest the railroad monopoly of their sovereign rights. "Let us make those fellows," Bismarck often said, "civil princes. Since they have lost the chief command of their troops, the sharpest sting has been cut off. Now leave them the right to nominate parsons and sextons, and they will be out of harm's way, while the perpetual unity of Germany will be accomplished." These petty princes, however, instinctively felt the danger threatening them, and persistently refused to give up the last real remnant of their sovereignty. Thereupon it was resolved to buy all Prussian private railroads for the Prussian Government, which within four years carried out its programme to the letter. In 1879 it owned 6,200 kilometres (one English mile=1.61 km.), and acquired from the private companies 5,002, making in all 11,202 kilometres. Besides, it has under its management 2,350 kilometres of private roads and 1,231 belonging to Alsace-Lorraine. To the present session of the Landtag it proposes to buy 3,284 more, when all in all it will have 18,057 out of 34,034 kilometres, which constitute the present entire length of all German railroads, state and private. Among them are Bavaria, with 4,156 kilometres; Saxony, with 1,980; Würtemberg, with 1,533; Baden, with 1,314; Hesse, with 175; Oldenburg, with 290; and various other small states who hold in common 146, making in all 9,588 kilometres. The proportion of all governmental railroads to private ones thus stands, or rather will stand, at 27,645 to 6,385, and it does not require great sagacity to predict that in a few years the private roads will have become an institution of the past. During the last year the income realized by Prussia from her railroad investments was 5¼ per cent., while in 1879-80 she had only made 4.87 per cent.

I am not yet able to judge definitely of the efficacy of the measure. Although the new system will save much money, and will be carried out with that exactness and honesty which are and have always been characteristic features of the Prussian civil officer, there are three main objections which, in my opinion, weigh heavily against state ownership.

First—A very large amount of stock, worth several thousands of millions of marks, will be withdrawn from the market, and small as well as large capitalists will have to invest their surplus in other shares or bonds. There is, perhaps, no civilized people which, from an economic point of view, is less educated and more given to fallacies than the great mass of Germans. The more interest is promised the more eager they are to invest in an enterprise of which they often know nothing but the name, and which on account of the height of its percentage cannot be safe. To give you an instance: After millions of dollars had been made in this country by speculating in United States bonds, hundreds of millions were lost here by speculating in unsafe American railroad bonds. I know a gentleman who in other respects is not at

all stupid, but who sold his good Government bonds in order to buy the first-mortgage bonds of a certain Western railway, which he was finally glad to sell for a trifle. To my warning he replied that they seemed to be just as good as United States bonds, and that they looked just like them. What is still worse, in the great majority of cases, the average German invests all his money in one security, or rather insecurity, and is induced to do so by the greedy desire of gaining the greatest possible profit at one stroke. The other day a great scholar of this city, who was a gentleman of large means, had to sell his house and garden in the best part of Berlin, because he had lost his whole fortune by buying Rumanian railroad bonds at high rates and selling them at the lowest. He might just as well have speculated in Mississippi or Arkansas bonds. All these shortcomings, it is true, will be overcome by and by; but at present the embarrassment created by the commutation of hundreds of millions of railroad stock into Prussian consols, is too sudden, and will lead hosts of capitalists into bad investments. The Government's rate of interest is four per cent., and in the eyes of German investors too low to deserve much attention. From a financial point of view Germany, therefore, will lose much, which could have been avoided if the new system had been introduced gradually and not within two short years.

Another objection which I have to make to the exclusive state ownership of railroads in this country is much more lasting. The tendency of Prince Bismarck and of his subordinates is in the direction of state omnipotence, which of late has even been developed into state socialism. Thus the railroads, too, will be managed with a single eye to Government influence and supremacy. Hitherto we have had several hundred thousand railroad officers, employees, and workingmen who were never interfered with in their political views, who could vote as they pleased, and entertain any opinion which did not come into collision with the criminal law. We have, however, already had some, and shall every day have more, experience of the influence which the abolition of private railroads will exercise on our political life. Recalling the royal rescript of January 4, you will readily understand that the railroad men will form no exception to the general rule which is imposed upon all royal officers. Henceforth it will be advisable for a railroad employee not to vote otherwise than in accordance with the political opinions of his chief. Our Ministers and their assistants consider themselves the owners of the Government machine, and run it in their interest or interpret their duties as understood by the Chancellor. Railroad officers, post-office and telegraph clerks no longer dare to petition, in their own names, the Reichstag or Landtag, because they are threatened with punishment if they do so. The other day, when a Deputy in the Landtag complained that the time-tables of the railroads had not been published in the Opposition paper, although it enjoyed the largest circulation in his province, Herr Maybach's subordinate, a very green "Geheimer Rath," replied that the Minister could do as he pleased, just as the Deputy himself was at liberty to choose a better tailor, if the first did not suit him, or to order goods from a merchant who had fewer customers than another. This boyish talk was sharply reprimanded by the Opposition, but to no purpose, as the higher Prussian civil officers consider themselves infallible. The tone of our civil service has been much lowered by the requirements which the Government of late has imposed upon its employees. Thus they are losing more and more that self-esteem and pride of independence which have hitherto been the noblest characteristics of their public life, and this loss is the severest of all.

Last, though not least, the new system will exercise a decisive influence upon the management of the Prussian finances, and on our constitutional development. As the Government has rejected the material guarantees demanded by the House for the purpose of preserving its right of voting the budget, there is great danger that the Minister of Public Works will make that right illusory. He can create sunshine and rain by raising or reducing the freight tariff, thus controlling the whole economical life of the nation, and becoming much more influential than the Secretary of the Treasury. When the present bill is carried the whole railroad property of the state will amount to about 6,000,000,000 of marks, or about $1,500,000,000.

On the 20th instant a steamship company celebrated the twenty-fifth anniversary of its existence—a fact which, because of the company's close relations to your country, deserves to be mentioned in your paper. I refer to the North German Lloyd, established in 1857 in Bremen, with two ships, running monthly between that port and New York. Owing to the energy of its president, Mr. H. H. Meier—member of the Reichstag for Bremen—to excellent captains, to good management, and to the efficiency of very able agents, like Messrs. Oelrichs & Co., of your city, it has gained strength from day to day, and, with its twenty-three splendid large steamers, is now competing with the best lines crossing the ocean. What we free-traders give it most credit for is, that even in times of bad luck the Lloyd has disdainfully refused the subsidies freely offered it by the Government, and that it owes its noble position solely to its own exertions. It is now as firmly established as can be. On account of a heavy and daily increasing emigration, the present times are good for all shipping houses, but especially for companies which, like the Lloyd, can look back with satisfaction upon a glorious history.

What enormous proportions the German emigration will assume the coming season you may conclude from a late advertisement of the Lloyd. In the next four months, from March 1 to June 30, it will send out from Bremen to New York and Baltimore not less than 67 steamers—namely, 18 in March, 17 in April, and 16 each in May and June—that is, more than one large ship every two days. Suppose that each of them takes out only 600 steerage passengers on the average—in my opinion, the number will amount to at least 750 heads per vessel—there will be more than 40,000 passengers from one German port within four months. And what is still more interesting is the fact that the passage money for the greater part of the emigrants has been sent over by friends and relatives from the United States to Germany, or that a ticket has been bought by them, which has been sent over here. A similar lively business is done in Hamburg; and apart from the smaller ports of Havre, Antwerp, Rotterdam, and Liverpool (the latter as far as German emigration is concerned), the German emigration alone for 1882 may be set down at 250,000 heads. Our protectionists are quite alarmed. Who will work for us, who will eat our breadstuffs, they cry, if small farmers, servants, and mechanics go to America? To help themselves, they insist upon strong emigration laws; but it will be of no use. They may hurt Bremen and Hamburg for a short time, but they will further the shipping interest of Rotterdam, Antwerp, Havre, and Liverpool. This mighty migration cannot be stopped by precautionary measures of the police, the factors creating it being too powerful. † † †

Correspondence.

DIFFERENTIAL RAILROAD RATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Whatever may be the merits of the differential-rate question now being discussed before the Thurman-Cooley-Washburn Commission, there is one theory advanced by representatives of the New York merchants that ought to be refuted at once—namely, that rates should be based upon the cost of service.

The cost of service (or production) will have the same influence upon the price of transportation by rail that cost of service (or production) has upon the price of iron or other commodities, and no more. One iron mill may have advantages which enable it to produce iron at less cost than another, and the cost at which it can produce will have some influence upon the *market price* of iron; but, to say that it must charge less in the market for its product than the market price, or than the mill which makes iron under greater disadvantages, would be absurd. In the market all must *charge* alike, and the mill possessing special facilities or advantages will make the most money.

The same law applies to the price of transportation by rail, and it seems singular that at this late day any business man should think otherwise. It was an axiom among railroads twenty-five years ago, and is just as true now, that the short line between two common points should make the rates, *and other lines should conform.* This was upon the theory that the short line would generally be the one *able* to do business at the lowest rates and live. What was meant was that the line between common points which could produce transportation at the smallest cost should fix the rates, and the other lines should conform. It has never been claimed that the more costly lines should *charge more.* Such a rule would drive all the roads but one between any two common points out of the market, because the business would all seek the road which could produce transportation cheapest and survive.

The argument is not only in itself unsound, but it is fatal to New York. It is argued that cost of service must settle the differential-rate question, and that the New York roads can do business enough cheaper than the other lines, per mile, owing to low grades, etc., to warrant making the New York rates the same as the Philadelphia and Baltimore and Norfolk rates. If it is true that the New York Central can carry freight to *New York* at as small *cost* as the Pennsylvania road can carry it to *Philadelphia,* then it follows, as New York is ninety miles beyond Philadelphia, that it costs the Pennsylvania road more to carry freight to New York than it costs the New York Central, and, adopting the cost-of-service theory, the Pennsylvania road should charge more to and from New York than the New York Central charges, while charging the same to and from *Philadelphia* as the New York Central charges to and from *New York.* If this is done, the New York merchants will all use the New York Central to the exclusion of other lines, and the Pennsylvania and Baltimore & Ohio will be obliged to abandon that field.

The fallacy of the cost-of-service theory is obvious enough on reflection, and it is to be hoped that the distinguished Commissioners will not be influenced by it. If it is true that rates between the West and all the seaboard cities should be alike, it is not because the cost of service is the same to and from all, but because the seaboard cities are all practically one market, so far as the world is concerned, and rates between the

West *and the Atlantic seaboard market* should be the same by all routes—just as rates between the West and New York city have always been, and must always be, made the same by all routes, without regard to what it costs the railroads. A Railroad Man.

Chicago, March 10, 1882.

PUBLICITY OF RAILROAD ACCOUNTS AND MANAGEMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The real difficulty met in solving the problems which are connected with the regulation of railroad tariffs and of railroad management is the impossibility of getting a reliable foundation of facts relating to the business done and to the character and animus of those who manage that business. From the nature of their business, the railroad managers are public men in the same sense that the President and the Secretary of the Treasury are public men, and yet are without the curbs or restraints which are felt by those high officials. People generally think that railroad managers, as officials, are practically irresponsible; as men, they are unknown. They have business dealings of vital importance with thousands of people in every town and village and farm in a vast extent of country. These people are, from their knowledge of themselves and of human nature, naturally suspicious of the honesty and the rectitude of intention of any set of men who act in secret and have no recognized laws to guide them.

A knowledge of the facts would probably correct this suspicious feeling. This is generally admitted; the doubt is how to obtain this knowledge. Facts as to the cost and receipts of business could be obtained by compelling a general practice of keeping and publishing railroad accounts on a plan similar to that adopted by Mr. Fink, when on the Louisville & Nashville R.R.—a plan not only complete, but admirable in the analytical ability which it shows.

Facts as to the style of management and the character of the managers could be obtained by allowing a public examination of all the proceedings of the Board of Directors (which relate to business, as distinguished from those which relate to patronage), and of all the official orders and books of the managers relating to general and special rates. Such examination could be delayed for six months, so that premature publicity could not interfere with current business; that is, all proceedings for the six months ending, say on December 31, 1881, would be open for examination on July 1, 1882, to any person sufficiently interested to spare the time.

By this method the managers would be made directly liable to public opinion. It would save the expense of railroad commissioners; it would avoid the delay of their cumbrous machinery; it would not be affected by their individual prejudices, and, at the same time, would make the railroad managers amenable to law.

Would not much reckless speculation and unjust discrimination be prevented in public business if every railroad president and manager was sure that every act of his would be open to the same scrutiny that every act of the President and of the executive officers of the Government is at the call of the House or of the Senate? To be sure, the question of rates to rival seaports is a different and more difficult problem, not to be affected, it would seem, by any legal regulations. G. M.

Syracuse, March 10, 1882.

VOGT'S VACCINATION RATIOS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In reading the article on "The Vaccination Question" in No. 871 of the *Nation*, the appearance of the figures prompted my curiosity to develop the ratios. I was amused to find that the figures were almost exactly equivalent, the fifth column (the "correct" one) showing the *number* of cases in 10,000, the fourth column (Vogt's) giving the *proportion* of cases—though why the number 10,000 is mentioned by Vogt does not appear from this citation (87.6 : 219.6 = 20.2 : 50.6 = 2.6 : 6.6 [6.5]). I write from the purely disinterested motive of relieving Vogt's name of the undeserved charge of "ignorance" and "mendacity"—undeserved in this instance—and not at all in opposition to the writer. I have already committed myself irretrievably to the side of the latter, as my arm shows.—Respectfully, * * *

New York City, March 9, 1882.

[The precise point of this criticism is not understood. According to Vogt's table, 30.37 deaths in a population of 1,383 give 87.6 deaths per 10,000, and 5.88 deaths in a population of 1,163 give 20.2 deaths per 10,000. This is not true. 30.37 : 1383 is not = 87.6 : 10,000, but = 219.6 : 10,000; and 5.88 : 1163 = 50.6 : 10,000, and not 20.2 : 10,000. It is true that the *ratio of error* is the same, giving almost exactly 2-5 of the true ratio in each case, so that it would seem as if Vogt had calculated the true ratios, and, finding that they did not suit his views, had divided each of them by 2.5, as the easiest and quickest way of making his table.

The worst of it is that he then proceeds to use these false ratios in a table on the following page, to prove that the yearly ratio of mortality from smallpox before the days of Jenner was less than it has been since Jenner, whereas the true ratios would have shown precisely the reverse. This table is otherwise unfair, and it was not thought worth while to quote it and point out the errors, since to do this would take up too much space. A part of it is here given, to show the effect of the false ratios above explained.

Yearly Mortality from Smallpox in Cities per 10,000 Living.

Ages.	Since Jenner.				Before Jenner.	
	Paris.*	Vienna.†	Stockholm.‡	Chemnitz.§	Geneva. Vogt's ratio.	Geneva. True ratio.
0–5 years.	32	64	66	124	88	219.6
5–10 years.	10	8	5	8	20.2	50.6

* Yearly mean, 1828–1836. ‡ Yearly mean, 1864–1866.
† Yearly mean, 1863–1868. § Yearly mean, 1871–1872.

It is hardly necessary to point out to the statistician the small value of the comparison of ratios derived from two or three years' experience only, selected presumably at the time of an epidemic, as is the case for Chemnitz and Stockholm in the above table, with ratios derived from the experience of 180 years, as is the case with the Geneva figures; and when these last ratios are found to be systematically falsified in a constant proportion, it is thought that the alternative of ignorance *or* mendacity is, on the whole, rather a mild and friendly mode of characterization.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Miss C. M. Hewins, Librarian of the Hartford Library Association, Hartford, Conn., will gladly receive from teachers and librarians statements of their efforts to encourage a love for good reading in boys and girls, for a report at the Conference of the American Library Association at Cincinnati in May.

J. B. Lippincott & Co. announce a new popular edition of the works of William H. Prescott, in fifteen volumes, from the plates of that edited by Mr. John Foster Kirk. They have also in press a translation, by Miss Augusta McC. Wright, of Gautier's 'Romance of a Mummy'; and a 'Smaller History of the United States,' by Josiah W. Leeds.

Gautier's 'One of Cleopatra's Nights, and Other Fantastic Romances,' translated for the first time by Mr. Hearn, of the New Orleans *Times-Democrat*, will be published by R. Worthington, as well as a new novel, 'The Gipsy Queen,' by Hugh de Normand.

A. C. Armstrong & Son will begin publication immediately of "The Clerical Library," or helps to sermonizing, as the series might be called. Three of the proposed twelve volumes, each of which will be complete, are entitled 'Three Hundred Outlines of Sermons on the New Testament,' and again on the Old Testament, and 'Outline Sermons to Children, with Numerous Anecdotes.'

G. P. Putnam's Sons add to their announcements 'The Sunday Question,' by the Rev. Leonard W. Bacon, of Norwich, Conn., who "is said to treat the subject from a liberal point of view," and may be trusted to make it interesting; 'The Defence of the Bride, and Other Poems,' by Anna Catherine Green; 'Lady Beauty,' by Allan Muir, in the Trans-Atlantic Series of novels; and, in the New Plutarch Series, 'Victor Emmanuel,' by Edward Dicey.

D. Appleton & Co. will shortly publish Huxley's 'Science and Culture, and Other Essays'; Tyndall's 'Essays on the Floating Matter of the Air, in relation to Putrefaction and Infection'; 'The Brain and its Function,' by Dr. J. Luys; 'Myth and Science,' by Tito Vignoli; and 'Plantation Songs and Ballads,' by Joel Chandler Harris, author of 'Uncle Remus.'

Chas. Scribner's Sons have nearly ready 'Molinos the Quietist,' by John Bigelow; and 'Outlines of Primitive Belief among the Indo-European Races,' by Charles Francis Keary, of the British Museum.

Macmillan & Co., whose removal on May 1 from Bond Street to No. 112 Fourth Avenue obeys the up-town law of progress, announce for immediate publication Mr. Hamerton's much-delayed important work on 'The Graphic Arts.' They have also ready the cheap edition of Mr. Shorthouse's new romance, 'John Inglesant,' in their series of novels.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will be the American publishers of 'The Confessions of a Medium,' and of a popular English work, 'Outlines for the Little Ones to Color.'

To their cheap and yet handsome library edition of Canon Rawlinson's 'Five Great Monarchies of the Eastern World' Dodd, Mead & Co. have now added his 'Sixth Oriental Monarchy' (Parthia), first published some nine years ago.

Mr. Blaine's Eulogy on President Garfield has been printed in a neat volume, with a steel portrait, by J. R. Osgood & Co.

Some well-chosen selections from Longfellow's poems, largely narrative, initiate Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s "American Classics for Schools." The several pieces are annotated. We should have included in our choice "The Building of the Ship" and "The Arsenal at Springfield."

"Love's Labour's Lost" is the newest issue in Rolfe's expurgated edition of Shakspere (Harpers), and "King Henry V." in that of Mr. Aldis Wright's 'Select Plays of Shakspere' (Macmillan).

No. 4, completing vol. v., of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, contains a number of still unfinished articles, the most interesting of which are Mr. Townsend Ward's "Germantown Road and its Associations," increasingly rich in etched illustrations, and the "Journal of Captain John Montrésor," describing Howe's expedition up the Chesapeake and the consequent battle of Brandywine.

Those who have read Mrs. Oliphant's 'Beleaguered City' will be interested to be told that the phenomenon of a cloud remaining stationary many weeks over a city actually occurred at Paris from the 4th of January to the 26th, in 1882, as described in *Nature* for February 9. "Neither sun, nor stars, nor moon were visible for an instant during that lengthened period."

The London *Daily News* of February 18 responds to the exposure made in the *Nation* and the *Critic* of Mr. Thomas Hardy's plagiarism from a well-forgotten American book and otherwise, by saying in effect that "it was a very little one." The *Academy*, more discreetly, reprints the evidence "without comment."

The latter journal announces an interesting work, 'Folk-Etymology: a Dictionary of Words corrupted in Form or Meaning by False Derivation or Mistaken Analogy,' by the Rev. A. Smythe Palmer, author of 'Leaves from a Word-Hunter's Note-Book.'

The *Athenæum* reports that the surviving daughter of Thomas Bewick, who is considerably older than the century, has carried into effect the bequest resolved upon by herself and sister some years ago, and made over to the British Museum their "matchless collection of impressions from the blocks and other works of their father and uncle and brother, as well as some of the admirable drawings of the first named." These last number 165, and are mounted on forty sheets, "being original studies of the most exquisite quality, chiefly in delicate and brilliant water-colors, made for the great book on [British] birds." Might not some art journal be permitted to reproduce specimens of them in chromolithography? Or, as a crucial test of the progress of modern engraving, perhaps the *Century* would undertake to procure photographs of one of these, put them upon the block and assign them to several engravers, and print the results in comparison with Bewick's own cut from the same design.

"A Corner of the Paris Quays" is the subject of an etching which forms the chief embellishment of the February number of *Le Livre*. The *flèche* of the Sainte-Chapelle, let us guess, is the spire which looms up in the middle distance. The gaping wooden boxes of the dealer in old books are arrayed on the stone balustrade, and half a dozen unprosperous-looking bibliophiles are searching in them for treasures of first editions. Near by, under a tree, sits the proprietor, whose turned back implies absolute confidence in the honor of his patrons.

A 'Sprach-Atlas' of Northern and Middle Germany, prepared by Dr. G. Wenker, is in course of publication by Karl J. Trübner, Strassburg. It promises to be a highly important work, descending to such minutiæ as the limits of local peculiarities like initial *z* (equivalent *t*, or *vice versa*), *p* and *pf*, etc. It will not be completed under five years.

—In the present deluge of little books on large subjects, we are glad to find one so good as Mr. Mahaffy's 'Old Greek Education,' recently reprinted, in the "Education Library," by Harper & Brothers. It has, to be sure, some minor faults, such as might be anticipated by readers of the author's earlier books: an occasional over-positiveness and misuse of authorities, frequent laudation of things English and Irish, with contempt of the German scholarship which has made the writing of this book possible, and the omission or inadequate treatment of parts of the subject. This last defect may of course be excused by the necessary limitation of space, but it seems as if some of the disquisition on modern marriage systems, or on the moral influence of modern music, might well have given way to a recognition of the informal education supplied at Athens by the state in the public religious exercises, the statues, pictures, and buildings, and the conduct of government by public debate (a form of education to which Thucydides and Demosthenes both call attention), or to a discussion of the connection of education with religion. The account of Plato's ideal system of education will seem painfully superficial to any one who has read Nettleship's excellent essay on the subject in 'Hellenica.' With all these minor faults, the book has two supreme merits: it is interesting, so that one who has no special knowledge or desire for knowledge on the subject can read it with pleasure, and it is full of information, much of which is from sources that lie out of the range of ordinary reading. An amusing instance of the writer's insularity of feeling and habit of hasty inference may be seen in a foot-note on page 129: "All foreigners, on the contrary, seem to love official dress, whether military or not. I was once in Genoa during a regatta, when a crew of visitors from Spezzia or Livorno used to walk about the streets in boating costume, with their oars over their shoulders, to the admiration of the Genoese. Imagine the Oxford eight, the day before the University race, sauntering along Piccadilly in this style! I recommend this case to the theorists who maintain that human nature is the same at all times and places."

—It appears from a circular issued by the Trustees of the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology that the income of the $90,000 remaining of the original endowment is, now that a building has been erected and stocked, not more than sufficient to provide for the care alone. "The increase of the collections must depend entirely upon gifts of specimens"; but these cannot be expected to keep the Museum abreast of the growth of science. The explorations formerly undertaken by the first curator, the late Dr. Jeffries Wyman, and the present incumbent, Mr. F. W. Putnam, have had to be suspended, thus cutting off the accumulation of material under the best auspices, and depriving the Museum of its share in the solution of the great problems of the prehistoric ethnology, migrations, and civilization of the continent. The Trustees now make an appeal for aid in renewing these explorations. The Museum is a local institution only in the sense of being established in Cambridge and not elsewhere. It is entirely free to the public, and students from any quarter can avail themselves of its already rich collections derived from the two Americas, from Egypt, Southern Africa, Asia, Australia, and the Pacific Islands, now on exhibition, and those from Europe ("particularly rich in objects illustrating the stone age of Denmark and Italy, and in interesting remains from the Swiss lakes") still to be arranged. Subscriptions may be sent to the treasurer, Mr. Theodore Lyman, No. 191 Commonwealth Avenue, Boston.

—The Peabody Institute in Baltimore has now in type something over 150 royal octavo pages of its catalogue, upon the preparation of which, by means of an analytical card catalogue, the working force of the library has been employed for the past thirteen years. It will require four or five years longer to complete the arrangement and printing of the catalogue, and it will then probably embrace over 4,000 pages, published in four or five volumes. The proof-sheets, covering thus far about two-thirds of the subjects and authors to be catalogued under the letter A, promise certain valuable improvements in the art of cataloguing public libraries in this country. Under a given subject, or author, will be found not merely an alphabetical arrangement of the main authorities and titles, but also an alphabetical grouping of the chief collateral material, monographs, essays, magazine articles, and the like, that may be found in the Peabody Library touching the subject or author in hand. For example, under the head of "Æsthetics" we find, first, an alphabetical list of authors who have written more or less systematic works upon this subject; and, second, in finer type, an alphabetical list of minor authorities, dissertations, and miscellaneous articles. The name of the author, if known, is the guiding principle of this arrangement, otherwise the catchword of the essay or monograph is given, like the names of authors, in bold heavy type, so as to attract the eye at once upon the closely-printed page. Under the head of an author, for example, "Arago, Dominique François Jean, 1786–1853," we find an alphabetical analysis of his 'Œuvres complètes,' seventeen volumes. Instead of reprinting the table of contents for each volume, the contents of the whole series are arranged alphabetically, the *catchword* (not necessarily the initial word) of the titles serving as a guide in the classification; for instance, "Sur l'*action calorifique* et l'action chimique de la lumière, v. 7; Sur les *chronomètres* et les pendules, v. 12." This system of registering articles by alphabetical catchwords becomes of immense value when applied to the publications of learned societies, like the literary collections of the French Institute, Cambridge Philosophical Transactions, the publications of the Royal Irish Academy, and of the academies of St. Petersburg, Berlin, Vienna, Brussels, and the archives of Munich, and even to English and American reviews. Most catalogues, if they take any notice at all of the contents of a long series of volumes, simply give the contents of each volume by itself, the result being, in the case of a very long series, that a student is sometimes obliged to look through several pages of chaotic titles in order to ascertain whether there is any material relating to the subject he may have in hand. This annoyance and grievous waste of time will be entirely spared if the Peabody idea is systematically carried out and subject-titles are arranged alphabetically with appended references to volumes, but without regard to the succession of volumes. It should be as easy to find one's way through a vast collection of monographs and special treatises as through a complete dictionary of the English or French language. The body of existing science should be an encyclopædia of knowledge, properly indexed for the use of students, so that they may add to its volume without duplicating the work of predecessors.

—The practical difficulties and labor involved in such a classification are beyond all estimate, for the present state of the world's scientific papers is but little removed from chaos. The Peabody idea has not yet been applied to the classification of the special articles on natural science to be found in the journals of European academies, but very much has been done in the fields of literature, art, and history. The idea is capable of indefinite expansion, and is only a suggestion of what the art of cataloguing a great public library of research may one day become.

The responsibility of the Peabody undertaking falls upon the Provost of the Institute, Dr. N. H. Morison, who, in his personal direction of this great work, is ably seconded by Mr. Philip R. Uhler, the official librarian of the Peabody. The pains these gentlemen have taken in simply laying the foundations for this catalogue is not, and cannot yet be, appreciated by the general public. The special, analytical card catalogue, registering not merely all books entered upon the public card catalogue, but all magazine articles, analyses of journals and literary collections, was an indispensable preliminary to a published catalogue. This work, when finished, will be a vast collection of bibliographies—literally thousands of classified lists—which will prove of the greatest value to Baltimore specialists, in showing what resources are already available, and will also be of the greatest convenience to the public at large.

—The flats of the Potomac River, which have so long been an eyesore and an injury to the health of the National Capital, seem at last to be in a fair way of reformation. The Potomac suddenly enlarges from a stream 1,000 feet wide at Georgetown to a broad bay, more than a mile across, at Washington. The retardation of the current on reaching this sudden enlargement naturally causes a deposit of the matters carried in suspension by the stream, and there is now a tract of nearly 700 acres in the middle of the river, almost under the windows of the principal executive departments, which is exposed at low tide, is contaminated with sewer discharges, supports a rank growth of vegetation which dies and rots in the early autumn, and sends forth with every southern wind a considerable amount of malarial poison directly into the most thickly settled part of the city. The present condition of the river is also injurious to navigation, by reason of the constant deposits in the channel leading to Georgetown as well as to Washington. The District Committee of the House of Representatives has reported favorably upon a bill for the reclamation of these flats, and the various plans of improvement have lately been examined by a board of well-known army engineers (Generals Gillmore and Comstock, and Colonel Craighill). They recommend that the entire space known as the flats be surrounded by an embankment with an inexpensive revetment, the portion north of Long Bridge to be filled to a height of six feet above the highest known flood, and that below the bridge to be filled to a small height above high tide; an inside channel to be left near the present docks in Washington, and the water in this channel to be renewed daily by means of large sluicing ponds or lakes with tidal gates, situated in the portion above the bridge. The earth for the filling is to be obtained by dredging the channels and these lakes. The reclaimed land above the bridge is to be made an extension of the present park stretching from the Capitol past the Smithsonian Institution to the Washington Monument. The cost is estimated at about $2,250,000, and the Board recommends an immediate appropriation of $1,000,000 in order that the work may be prosecuted rapidly and economically. Nothing would add so much to the beauty and desirability of Washington as a capital and a winter resort as the accomplishment of this plan. The bill, however, runs the risk of being smothered, because the District of Columbia has no political power or representation in Congress which can compel recognition; and although the work is one of really national importance, it is said to be opposed by the lobby which is clamorous for large appropriations for internal improvements.

—The English Dialect Society have brought out, under the editorship of James Britten, F.L.S., of the British Museum (Natural History Department), a reprint of 'The names of herbes in Greke, Latin, English, Duch & Frenche wyth the commune names that Herbaries and Apotecaries vse: Gathered by Wm. Turner.' Turner published it in 1548. This neat edition, published by Trübner & Co., is an octavo of 134 pages, has an introduction by the editor, a facsimile of the old title-page and dedication, and is augmented by an alphabetical list of Turner's English names, with the Latin equivalent he adduced, and the modern scientific name as determined by Mr. Britten, who is accomplished in botany as well as in old plant-lore. He was one of the editors of a 'Dictionary of English Plant-Names,' published by the same Society four years ago.

—The remaining portions of the Society's issues for 1881 are a paper read before the Manchester Literary Club by Mr. Wm. E. A. Axon, on "George Eliot's Use of Dialect," and another volume of "Original Glossaries," embracing Isle of Wight words, Oxfordshire words (supplementary), Cumberland words (a second supplement), North Lincolnshire words, and Radnorshire words. The first two of these lists are the fullest and most important, and sometimes offer curious comparisons one with the other—*e. g.*, in the harvest-home song, and in the magpie divination—(Isle of Wight) "One, sorrow; Two, mirth; Three, joy; Four, a birth"; (Oxfordshire) "One's a weddin', Two's mirth, Three's a berrin', Four's death." The Yankee, in the broadest sense, should feel at home on the Isle of Wight, peopled, by the way, as the editor of the Glossary believes, by the Jutes. One may hear *lowz* (no doubt, allows), as, 'I *lowz* we'd better go at wunce'; *nashun*, as, 'A *nashun* deeal o' rain'; *tarnashun*, as, 'I *Tarnashun* seize thee'; and the like. In Oxfordshire it is no surprise to find *form* a vulgarism for 'style,' as, 'What a *form* you 'a done that in.' Odd, however, is *come again*, to return after death like a spirit—*e. g.*, 'You remembers 'Arry Whitly as was cut t' pieces an the line? Well, he *comes agen strong*, in six pieces.' So, too, is *respectable* in the sense of any class above the laboring. 'Is she a *respectable woman*?' 'No, sir, 'er ent na more ner I be; 'er 'usbun works at the same farm as mine do.'

—A curious discussion has been carried on for several months in the *Times* and other London papers concerning the expediency of a tunnel under the English Channel. It appears that there are two English companies in the field, one presided over by Sir John Hawkshaw and the other by Sir Edward Watkin, both eminent engineers. Each company has filed its bill in Parliament, and each is not only prepared to prove the feasibility and desirability of the project, but is already provided with the necessary amount of capital fully subscribed, and is in relations with a French company which will meet it halfway. Both companies are, however, met with objections raised by certain military men on the ground that the tunnel will endanger the defence against invasion which England has always found in "the silver streak," and the *Times* asserts that "the expediency of the Channel Tunnel ought not to be determined solely by engineers and capitalists." Sir Garnet Wolseley and other soldiers contend that the English end of the tunnel might be captured by a sudden landing, and that continental soldiers could then be poured through it in unlimited numbers. Sir Edward Watkin and the engineers reply that "a pound of dynamite or a well-devised sluice would make the tunnel impassable." The subject has been brought up in Parliament, and Mr. Gladstone has given assurances that it will be completely considered. At this stage of the discussion one of the military fraternity has written a little book, in the style of the 'Battle of Dorking'—though greatly inferior to that doleful but captivating narrative—under the title of 'How John Bull Lost London; or, The Capture of the Channel Tunnel' (London: Sampson Low & Co.) One evening a vast number of French tourists come through the tunnel; they stop to pass the night at Dover, where at midnight they receive their arms from a French vessel, seize the end of the tunnel, fortify it, and repel the attacks of the Dover garrison—the wire to the dynamite and sluices having meantime failed to work. Six hundred thousand men come through the tunnel in an incredibly short space of time, defeat Lord Wolseley and his army in a bloody battle at Guilford, and capture London. They make no further advance, however, and subsequently the English collect an army of over a million of men, and advance to the siege of London. The French threaten to destroy the city and its inhabitants if they are not allowed to return to France unmolested, and they are permitted to depart. The tunnel which has been the cause of so much damage to London is then destroyed. It is obvious that much can be said on both sides of the question of the effect of the tunnel upon home defence; but if one half of the mistakes and confusion here recorded are possible, then nothing short of an iron wall of impossible height and unrivalled thickness can save England from invasion—tunnel or no tunnel. The *Times* gravely remarks that "it rests with statesmen to reflect whether this new link with the Continent would not facilitate the recurrence of the panics of invasion to which as a nation we have been prone." But it is a question whether the British public does not crave these panics as a regular part of its mental diet, and thank the man who originates them. The Franco-German war of eleven years since brought forth the 'Battle of Dorking,' which was a rich treat; the channel project has now produced 'How John Bull Lost London'; possibly another decade will perfect some form of flying machine casting the "silver streak" and the ironclads into utter insignificance; and then some new Chesney will cleverly tell 'How the French Locusts Devastated the British Isles.'

—It would require a long article, if not an entire volume, to do justice to the latest and most elaborate production of Dr. Augustus Le Plongeon, which comes before the world in the shape of a pamphlet of 86 pages, entitled 'Vestiges of the Mayas; or, Facts tending to prove that Communications and Intimate Relations must have existed, in very remote times, between the Inhabitants of Mayab and those of Asia and Africa.' As the author announces himself on the title-page a member of the American Antiquarian Society, the California Academy of Sciences, and several other scientific organizations, it is surprising to find a work of these pretensions bearing only the humble imprint of a New York "printer and stationer." Without attempting to exhaust his list of the things he has proved, we will mention that the Mayas were "a race autochthon on this continent, and did not receive their civilization from Asia or Africa"; that "in ages so remote as to be well-nigh lost in the abyss of the past, the Mayas were a great and powerful nation, whose people had reached a high degree of civilization"; that some of their edifices were finished at least 6,100 years ago (elsewhere it is shown that 19,000 years would be a moderate estimate); that in their palmy days these Mayas migrated westward from Mayab, "across the wastes of the Pacific Ocean," through India, Afghanistan, Babylonia, Asia Minor, Egypt, etc., etc., etc.;

that, "as the English of to-day, they had colonies all over the earth"; and that they left traces of their occupancy wherever they went—in language, customs, and monumental remains. The philological support of these facts is extraordinary beyond anything in our experience of linguistic aberration. Enough to repeat that the words which frightened Belshazzar on his palace wall were Maya words, having the very same meaning in the Maya language which Daniel gave them; and that the last words of Christ on the cross were "pure Maya vocables," and that they "have a very different meaning to that attributed to them" by the evangelists, "and more in accordance with his character." Conjectural emendations are not in much favor nowadays, but our author ventures on a slight amendment of the Scriptural text, and reads, "*Helo, helo, lamah zabac ta ni*," which, taken verbatim, signifies in the Maya language, "*Now, now, sinking, black ink, over, nose*"; or, more elegantly, "Now, now, I am sinking; darkness covers my face." Dr. Le Plongeon, it is well known, has made some laborious and valuable excavations in Central America, and is now engaged, under the auspices of Mr. Pierre Lorillard, in the delicate task of exploring the most interesting archæological area on this continent. While conceding to him and his devoted wife the earnestness and self-sacrifice of the Schliemanns, we cannot, in view of this pamphlet, think highly of him as a reporter of his own discoveries (through the N. Y. *World* and *North American Review*).

—A thin pamphlet from the African Club of Naples brings us a report of the joint committee made up from the Club and from the Chamber of Commerce as to the fishery of mother-of-pearl by Italians at Assab. It appears that this fishing-post, at the southern end of the Red Sea, was occupied with great hopefulness by the Italians, who were led thither by poetical and enthusiastic descriptions. The examining committee, however, report to the above Society that the weakness of the military and maritime force makes it unsafe to carry on commercial enterprises on so distant a coast, and pronounce the bay of Assab unsuitable for colonial, commercial, military, and naval purposes. There is also a decrease in the amount of mother-of-pearl. This article is greatly sought in India, but little in Europe, and is not marketable in Italy. Austria is the only Western country where it is much in demand. At Milan there is but one house working it, and this refuses the products of the Red Sea and accepts those of Ceylon, which are the best; the most iridescent, and therefore most valuable, are found in the Indian Ocean. The fishermen are usually Arabs, who endure great hardships, and have no protection save what is expected in the future from the Prophet. These and many other facts given to prove the region unsuitable for Italian occupancy afford foreigners a variety of information, in an enjoyable literary form, unusual in publications of the kind.

—Mr. Mapleson has abandoned the idea of producing the "Taming of the Shrew," with Minnie Hauk in the leading rôle, but he has at least kept one of his promises. Beethoven's only opera, "Fidelio," which had not been heard here for some years, was given at the Academy of Music last Friday evening before a very large audience, which presented a much more devout and musical appearance than is usually the case in this locality. Many who had doubtless come with the expectation of being disappointed must have been surprised at the comparative merits of the performance, which, it is true, was very far from being perfect, but was much better than frequenters of the Academy had reason to anticipate. The part of *Leonora* was unfortunately assigned to a débutante, Mlle. Dorani (alias Miss Henninges), who made her first appearance before a New York public, although she had previously sung the part in Cincinnati, where she received her musical education. Mlle. Dorani's voice has genuine and valuable musical qualities, but the difficult part of *Leonora*, of which the only adequate interpreters at the present day are Frau Materna, of Vienna, and Fräulein Brandt, of Berlin, is altogether beyond her powers of execution, even with such changes as she allowed herself to make in dangerous phrases. It requires not only a great vocalist, but also a good actress, to make the part of *Leonora* interesting, and Mlle. Dorani's acting was quite inadequate. Signor Galassi made good use of the insignificant part of *Pizarro* assigned to him, and Signor Novara and Mlle. Juch were satisfactory as *Rocco* and *Marcellina*, while Signor Ravelli sang with a taste and intelligence that contrasted strangely with his undramatic demeanor. The quartet No. 3 was encored, and other numbers were freely applauded, including the great Leonora overture No. 3, which was played between the first and second acts. Signor Arditi, as usual, had better command of his instrumental than his vocal forces, but he failed to infuse that life into the score which alone can redeem it from the charge of monotony. Beethoven's score bristles with dynamic signs, but Signor Arditi apparently recognizes but two, and it is astonishing to hear with what sublime composure and indifference his musicians will play forte throughout a page on which there are a dozen or more signs of crescendo, sforzando, piano, etc. As for the work itself, it has never obtained any general popularity, because it is neither a dramatic nor a florid opera, but rather a sort of cantata transplanted to the stage. The only really dramatic situation is the scene where *Leonora* points her pistol at *Don Pizarro*; and, thrilling as the music here is, it cannot be denied that the effect is wholly due to the unexpected trumpet call announcing the arrival of the minister, whereas the calm and simple phrase taken up by the orchestra immediately after the call is wholly inappropriate in such an exciting scene. Richard Wagner, in his highly eulogistic essay on Beethoven, correctly remarks that the subject of this opera contains so much which its author's mind could not assimilate that only from the marvellous third overture can we guess how the composer would have us regard it. This in fact contains in itself the most complete drama, the action of the piece seeming little more than a weak dilution of it, and standing to it in somewhat the same relation as a tedious and long-winded commentary of Gervinus does to a Shaksperian scene. Beethoven, like Schumann, often reveals a surprising dramatic fire in his compositions, but he was not able to write a dramatic opera. Had he felt in him the real dramatic impulse and instinct, he would have written more than one opera, even if compelled, for lack of anything better, to choose such frivolous and unworthy libretti as those which have been immortalized by the music of Mozart and Weber.

—For the one hundred and ninety-eighth concert of the Philharmonic Society, which took place on Saturday evening, an extra score of instrumentalists was engaged, which brought the number up to about one hundred and twenty. The newcomers, however, did not create the least disturbance, and everything was played as smoothly and with the same delicacy as usual, and of course with more power and a grander sonority. The concert opened with Schumann's "Genoveva" overture and closed with Beethoven's Fifth Symphony. But it was not for these well-known and popular compositions that the additional instrumental forces had been engaged. The interest centred this time in some selections from Wagner's "Rheingold," in which there is so much tone-painting that every added instrument supplies a new charm of color. Instead of leaving out such an important instrument as the harp, as was done last week by another orchestral society in a performance of selections from "Tristan and Isolde," Mr. Thomas generously supplied four of them. Unfortunately they had to be placed so far back on the stage, behind all the other musicians, that their effectiveness was greatly diminished. At the Bayreuth festival certain disadvantages connected with the excessively lowered orchestra made it desirable to use as many as eight harps. One important feature Mr. Thomas could not supply. Dramatic vocalists are rare in every country, and they seem to be almost non-existent in this. The soloists of the occasion, the Misses Schell, Wurmb, Henne, and the Messrs. Toedt, Steins, and Remmertz, not having any special training in this style of music, and lacking the inspiring effect of appropriate scenery and costume, did not succeed in rendering their parts with an emphasis and expression suggestive of the situation. All things considered, however, they acquitted themselves well, the melodious phrases of the Rhine daughters, sung behind the scenes, being particularly effective. In order to enable the audience to supply in their imaginations the absent scenery, Mr. Alfred Forman's translation of the German text was printed on the programme—a translation which would have been much better had not Mr. Forman endeavored to preserve the alliterative verse of the original. It is under all circumstances difficult to translate poetry. More difficult still is it to translate it so that the syllables shall harmonize with the notes of the music; and when to this is added an attempt to preserve the alliterative form, the difficulties become simply insuperable. This translation was only printed for the benefit of the audience, for the soloists, being Germans, used the original text. Mr. Thomas had, with a keen eye, selected those passages in the drama best adapted for concert use, embracing the introductory scene with the gambols of *Alberich* and the Rhine daughters; the scene on mountain heights where *Wotan* awakes and beholds the mighty castle built for him by the giants; *Loge's* account of his adventures in search of a ransom for *Freia*; and the closing scene, beginning with the cloud- and storm-compelling *Donner* and ending with the laments of the Rhine daughters for the lost gold. The motives thus selected are among the most characteristic in the whole Trilogy. "Rheingold" contains the germs or buds of many of the leading-motives which develop into full-grown blossoms and trees in the later dramas—as, for instance, the *Waldweben* motive which is foreshadowed in *Loge's* tidings. Some of these motives, however, such as the songs of the Rhine daughters, the grand Walhalla motive, and the wonderfully suggestive Rhine motive, with its stupendous organ point extending over 136 bars, attain their full growth and development in "Rheingold." Taken as a whole, "Rheingold" has less musical value than any one of Wagner's operas excepting "Rienzi." There is much admirably characteristic and descriptive music in it, but of beautiful music, in the technical, æsthetic sense of the word, there is not very much. It is, indeed, observable in most of Wagner's works, that the scenery and the music stand in an inverse relation to each other in point of attractiveness. Thus "Tristan and Isolde," in which there is little scenic display, is his most perfect work from a musical point of view, while "Rheingold," with its varied ac-

tion and its marvellous scenery beneath the waters of the moving Rhine, in subterranean caverns, and among clouds and rainbows, offers so much to the eye that the ear can readily dispense with its customary feast of sweet sound.

NEW LIGHT ON SIBERIA.

Through Siberia. By Henry Lansdell. 2 vols., 8vo. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1882. Maps and illustrations.

MOST nations, possessing rights of occupancy in lands external to their own normal boundaries, have at some time incorporated in their criminal code some form of transportation as a punishment for certain grades of crime. This has been the case with Spain, Portugal, Great Britain, Russia, and France. In England, transportation to America began in 1619, but was not systematized until a century later. Convicts were first sent to Australia in 1786, and the system practically came to an end about thirty years ago. It was adopted in France during the time of the Directory for political offences, fell into desuetude, and was again revived there about the time that it was abandoned by Great Britain. France, Russia, and possibly Portugal, are the only nations which at the present date retain this mode of punishment.

Theoretically, transportation might be made the means of conferring benefits of no mean order on both the criminal and the community; hence, thirty years ago, Charles Kingsley could describe in good faith the felon condemned to transportation as really more fortunate than the luckiest uncaught thief who walked the streets of London. In practice, however, the plan has usually worked badly, except for limited periods and under especial administrators. In nearly all countries it has been, or has been alleged to have been, accompanied by what the sentiment of the present day stigmatizes as gross inhumanity. Prisoners guilty of certain political offences have in all the above-mentioned countries been included among those subject to transportation. Apart from the shocking brutalities revealed by the Parliamentary investigation of 1838 into the condition of transported convicts (of which some details may be found in Mary Carpenter's 'Our Convicts'), and of which Earl Grey in 1847 declared the details to be "horrible" and "monstrous," convict testimony has from time to time reached the outer world from West Australia, from Cayenne, from New Caledonia, and from Siberia, which indicated the existence of most melancholy relations between the prisoners and their duly constituted guardians. Except in the case of Siberia, however, these complaints seem to have produced little effect upon the Anglo-Saxon mind. Whether Irish "patriots" and French "communards" are supposed to be less reliable witnesses than Russian Nihilists, or whether the fact that the latter are usually called "exiles" and the former "transported convicts" has influenced the course of public sympathy, is uncertain. The lash was used as a means of discipline in Cayenne and Australia, as it is to-day in London, Delaware, and Virginia; but in these localities it has not excited that horror which has attended the rumors of its use in Nertchinsk and Sakhalin. Whatever the cause may be, there is no doubt that the phrase "transportation to Siberia" is generally associated with the idea of exceptionally inhuman, though not very clearly defined, punishment, administered by irresponsible and brutal officials.

The explanation may reasonably be sought in the mystery which has enveloped Russia from the days of Vladimir as in a dark and murky cloud. The imagination has thus been left to picture to itself a wilderness populated by barbarians, in whose recesses, defended by the ramparts of the Ural, stretch the chill and gloomy tundras of Siberia to the far borders of the icy sea. Whether this cloud of ignorance and misconception will be dissipated until Russia enters the circle of nations on the Mediterranean, and her commerce ebbs and flows, untrammelled by winter, from the Golden Horn, cannot be foretold. In the absence of that intimate acquaintance which can only be gained from free and long-established commercial intercourse, the best substitute is the testimony of frank and unprejudiced witnesses. Such appears to be contained in Lansdell's 'Through Siberia.' Much injustice would be done the author were it to be inferred that in these two handsome volumes, crowded with illustrations, the condition of Siberian prisoners and prisons is the sole or even the predominating topic. The author's specialty in Siberia was the visitation of its prisons and penal institutions, considered rather from a philanthropic and religious than from an economic or administrative standpoint. A chief part of his task was the distribution of religious and educational literature, including portions of the Scriptures, to prisoners and others. On his return he decided to supplement the account of his personal adventures from published information and to describe the country as a whole. This he has done in a very efficient manner, and without (unless in foot-notes) degenerating into dryness. Having traversed the country from St. Petersburg to Nikolaievsk and Vladivostok, and thus obtained a personal view of all the better portions of Siberia, he has been enabled to present a more accurate and thorough picture of that immense province than any hitherto accessible to English readers. That it is far from being an inhospitable desert he makes evident, and, in addition to an enumeration of characteristics, resources, and industries, he gives for most parts of it a sufficiently full historical synopsis.

Nevertheless, for the general reader there is little hazard in affirming that the value of the work consists principally, if not solely, in the new light it sheds upon the status, character, and condition of the convicts usually known as "Siberian exiles," and the prisons where they are detained when, as is generally the case, imprisonment forms part of their sentence. Hence our review will be chiefly devoted to the new facts presented on this subject. A frank and philanthropic spirit pervades the book, with no touch of cant in it. The author recognizes the limitations under which his observations were made, and mentions that his proof-sheets have been revised and approved, not only by an Inspector of Prisons (among other Russian friends), but also by released political exiles who have worked in the mines. Mr. Lansdell was the better prepared for his task by having visited and furnished with suitable literature prisons in nearly every country of Europe, including European Russia. He appears, though it is not distinctly so stated, to have been an unassigned clergyman of the Established Church, occupied for the most part with more or less secular duties, whose vacations were chiefly passed in the laudable task above mentioned. Having determined to visit Siberia, as he had already visited Russia, provided it was possible to obtain permission, it was somewhat of a surprise to his friends, as it will doubtless be to a vast majority of his readers, that the desired permission was granted without hesitation.

"The open manner in which the letter was granted seemed to show that the authorities had nothing to hide. A master-key was put into my hand that opened every door. I went where I would and almost when I would, and on no single occasion was admission refused, though often applied for at a moment's notice. Statistics, also, were freely given me, though this was 'not so writ in the bond.' An afterthought, in Siberia, emboldened me to ask for them in various places, and they were usually furnished then and there."

Not only was the Minister of the Interior complaisant, but the Metropolitan of Moscow "entered with zest into my scheme for distributing the Scriptures, said that the Russians had not the means to perform all they would, and commended the English for what they were doing." The works distributed consisted of the four Gospels, the Book of Psalms, New Testaments, an adapted reprint in Russian of the *British Workman*, an illustrated weekly newspaper, illustrated parables, tracts, and mottoes suitable for hanging on walls—all mostly in the Russian language, and which had passed the censor. They numbered 56,000, and comprised three wagon loads. The author states that "never certainly in any other country have I met with such eagerness to get Scriptures and good books. This extends to both clergy and laity," besides the prisoners, for whose benefit the attempt was primarily made.

The number of ordinary exiles sent to Siberia annually of late has been about 18,000, including wives and children who voluntarily accompany prisoners. They come from all parts of Russia, and on arrival in Siberia about 8,000 are set free to gain their own living. About three or four per cent. are from the upper classes, and perhaps twenty-five per cent. of the whole number are able to read and sign their names. About twenty per cent. are merely vagabonds, who from drunkenness or bad habits have become nuisances to their neighbors, and have been condemned as such in the village assembly. Religious dissenters, except the self-mutilating sect, are no longer sent to Siberia, and "the great mass of exiles are nothing more nor less than ordinary criminals, such as may be found in any of the prisons of Europe." It must be remembered that murderers (not also guilty of treason) are not hanged in Russia; and it is this class and others convicted of especially infamous crimes who form the great majority of prisoners in the extreme east of Siberia and the Island of Sakhalin. Thus, of 440 prisoners received at Nikolaievsk in 1878, 206 were murderers, and eighty guilty of robbery, arson, or incest, the remainder being chiefly incorrigible vagabonds and runaways.

The exiles are divided into two classes, whose sentences vary widely. The first comprises those who lose all their rights and, except for purposes of punishment, become outlaws in the fullest sense of the word. The second class are deprived only of part of their privileges, and are settled as colonists either at once or after a term of imprisonment; or may merely owe a certain amount of labor to the Government and have the remainder of their time to themselves. In general, those deprived of all their rights are sent to eastern and the others to western Siberia. Murderers are largely sent to Kara, where Mr. Lansdell found eight hundred of them; political prisoners go to Kara, to the Trans-Baikal district, and to the Yakutsk Government. None of these last are sent to Sakhalin. The ordinary prisoners are sent in barges, by rail, and by wagons from Nizhni Novgorod to Tiumen, the first prison in Siberia proper. Thence they are distributed. If destined for western Siberia, they are assigned to particular towns and villages, where they are sent if possible by water, or, if not, on foot. Those condemned to eastern Siberia are taken by water to Tomsk, whence their walking begins. Under ordinary circumstances they rest one day and walk two, marching sometimes twenty miles a day.

Temporary prisons are erected along the road to receive them for the night, and in the towns are larger buildings provided with medical attendants, where they may rest if necessary a longer time. Prisoners for Sakhalin have recently been sent direct, *via* the Suez Canal, making the passage in about two months, without a single death, and arriving in excellent condition, notwithstanding Russophobist stories to the contrary. Political prisoners are treated quite differently, being individually placed between two officers and taken in separate vehicles direct to their destination. They are not allowed to be out of sight of their guards or to converse with outsiders.

Of the institutions in which the prisoners are confined the author says:

"I have met with a deep and almost universal conviction that the prisons in Siberia, compared with those in other countries, are intolerably bad. This I cannot endorse. . . . Comparing the convicts of the two nations as they now are, . . . the Russian convict proves to be fed more abundantly, if not better, than the English convict, and the clothing of the two, having regard to the dress of their respective countries, is very similar. A convict's labor in Siberia is certainly lighter than in England; he has more privileges; friends may see him oftener and bring him food; and he passes his time not in the seclusion of a cell nor under imposed silence, but among his fellows, with whom he may lounge, talk, and smoke."

Mr. Lansdell points out, however, that of instruction, efforts toward reformation, and religious services there are little or none; and also that the want of suitable labor upon which they may be employed leaves large numbers of prisoners, in several of the prisons visited, in a very undesirable state of idleness. In regard to only one prison, that of Dui on Sakhalin, which he did not personally visit, did the author obtain what seems to be reasonable evidence of abuses and of defective food. The latter, deprecated by the resident Russian officers, seemed to be the result of rascality on the part of contractors who furnished the food.

Corporal punishment cannot be inflicted in Russia on a free man for a first offence. In eastern Siberia, at Kara, Nikolaievsk, and Dui rebellious prisoners may be whipped either with birch switches or with a three-tailed "cat." The latter, according to the law, is reserved for those who, condemned to hard labor, have committed further crime in Siberia. These, it should be remembered, are mostly such as in England would be hung outright. Much use has been made in certain romantic publications of the "mines" of Siberia. The "quicksilver mines," so often described, do not exist, and do not appear ever to have existed. There are none in Siberia. The silver mines of Nertchinsk, formerly worked, have been sold or abandoned; at all events they are no longer worked by convicts, and seem to have been neither better nor worse to work in than silver mines in general. In no case were convicts housed under ground, as has been asserted, though they were obliged to work on Sundays. The gold mines of Kara, still largely worked by convicts, are simply open placers, or gravel pits, from which the material for washing is excavated at the rate of a seven-foot cube to three men per day.

That the number of political prisoners is very much less than has been ordinarily supposed, there is no doubt, and the author goes into considerable detail (in the absence of exact statistics, which, though the author did not know it, might have been obtained from Russian sources) to show how this must be so. In 1881 only seventy-two out of 20,000 exiles, or less than one per cent., were politicals; and of these nearly or quite half were condemned in previous years. Cases of inhumanity, corrupt practices, and bad behavior on the part of prison officials are duly set forth by the author from information furnished him, but these seem to be rather individual than typical, and on the other hand he found more than one officer who took an intelligent and humane interest in his wards. We can follow our worthy traveller no further into the details with which his volumes are replete. It is sufficient to say that we are greatly in his debt for having enabled us to estimate more justly not only the humanity of the Russian Government and the growing civilization of a mighty nation, but the character of much rubbishy literature which will now sink to its proper level. A praiseworthy bibliography and a fair index conclude the work, which is presented in excellent dress by the publishers.

COMMON SENSE ABOUT WOMEN.

Common Sense about Women. By Thomas Wentworth Higginson. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1882.

In this volume Mr. Higginson gathers up, as into a larger tract, articles which represent two years' weekly contributions to the *Woman's Journal.* To give point to them he has grouped them under appropriate heads, such as, Physiology, Temperament, The Home, Society, Education, Employment, etc. They have a regulation length of about three pages, and possess a literary quality which, as much as their shortness, makes them easy reading. In one respect the collection is disappointing: we miss the background of the medium in which the articles originally appeared, and their merit appears less conspicuous than by contrast with the dull and slipshod and frequently erratic editorial writing of the fourth page of the *Woman's Journal.* Naturally, too, we lose sight of the fact that the articles were conceived to some extent (perhaps unconsciously) in a sort of criticism and control of the editorial conduct of the paper and the cause; and that they were addressed mainly to women, and to women, again, for the most part in need not so much of conversion to the general doctrine of woman-suffrage, as of having their attention directed to the respectable and honest grounds of opposition, and to facts which, however disagreeable, it was the part of "common sense" to look in the face. Indeed, it might almost be said that Mr. Higginson's stated column in the *Journal* is the only one in which there has been a general discussion on the subject of woman's rights and duties, and where you might expect to find some notice taken of the current sentiment of the press.

To comment on a series of articles embracing so many topics is naturally difficult, and we shall confine ourselves to a single, though somewhat comprehensive, shortcoming. It is a frequent criticism in the history of opinion that those persons who first rebel against any long-established superstition seldom succeed in entirely emancipating themselves from its influence. This remark is particularly applicable to many persons who pretend to enlightened views on the "woman question." They cannot divest themselves of the ancient prejudice that woman's nature is an incommensurable quantity, not to be judged by the standards applied to men. An extraordinary evidence of the bias we speak of is the argument cited by Mr. Higginson (p. 11 *et seq.*) from the lecture of Henry Thomas Buckle upon "The Influence of Women on the Progress of Knowledge." As Mr. Higginson attaches great value to this argument, it may not be amiss to analyze it. It is intended to establish two propositions: "first, that women naturally prefer the deductive method to the inductive; secondly, that women, by encouraging in men deductive habits of thought, have rendered an immense, though unconscious, service to the progress of knowledge, by preventing scientific investigators from being as exclusively inductive as they would otherwise be." The whole attempt to establish these propositions is based upon an equivocal use of the term "ideas" and an indefinite use of the term "deductive method." Buckle defines the deductive method as that which *begins with ideas*, or which *begins with the internal world and proceeds to the external.* He then concludes that women are "more deductive than men" because "they are more emotional, more enthusiastic, and more imaginative than men," and "therefore live more in an ideal world," and because "they possess more of what is called intuition." Hence "they prefer a method of inquiry which proceeds from ideas to facts." Finally, Buckle illustrates the "triumph of the deductive method" by the instances of Newton's discovery of the law of gravitation, Haüy's discovery of the law of the forms of crystals, and Goethe's theory of the metamorphoses of plants, and concludes that the influence of women must tend to promote the use of that method by which these brilliant discoveries have been obtained.

Now, the whole connection of this argument depends upon the assumption that the "emotions" and "enthusiasm" in which women revel beget such "ideas" as those with which the deductive method begins. Mill declares that the deductive method "consists of three operations: the first, one of direct induction; the second, of ratiocination; the third, of verification." The celebrated discoveries mentioned by Buckle are instances of that particular form of the deductive method in which an hypothesis is substituted for induction as the first step of the process; and in his talk about the deductive method he seems to have entirely forgotten those applications of it in which the first step is induction. These hypotheses which may be substituted for induction are the "ideas" with which Buckle says that the deductive method begins; but of what nature are such ideas? Are they arbitrary fictions, thrown out by the wanton play of an ignorant imagination in the effervescence of emotion? Far from it. The hypotheses to which science yields respect are those which, to use Mill's words, "ally themselves by analogy with known laws of nature." Such hypotheses are, in fact, arguments from analogy, approximating indefinitely, by the accuracy and breadth of observation upon which they are based, to valid inductions. Such hypotheses are begotten in minds so penetrated by the organic unity of nature that they are ever alert to detect the occult correlation of her myriad members; so charged with stores of well-coördinated experience that each fresh object fires a far-reaching train of association; so habituated to abstraction that no protean phases of phenomena can obscure essential identity. What have these "ideas" in common with the rash leaps in the dark by which such uneducated minds as those of women strive to span the abyss of their own ignorance and indolence?

The power of "intuition" which popular superstition attributes to women as synonymous with divination, is really only evident within the sphere which has hitherto absorbed women's energies—*i. e.*, domestic life—and it therefore admits of the same explanation as many other cases of so-called intuition: the sub-conscious registry of extensive experience. In their psychological explanation, these feminine intuitions certainly resemble the hypotheses of science; but while the scientist infers from law to law, women are mainly engaged with purely individual and personal judgments; they have never made any important original contribution to

science even in psychology or sociology; and Mr. Buckle does not support his theory of the fertility of the female imagination by a single instance of a valuable hypothesis conceived by a woman.

Supposing, however, that women were capable of forming scientific hypotheses, this would not indicate a deductive turn of mind. The deductive method derives its name from its second constituent process, that laborious ratiocination in which Buckle does not even pretend that women have ever distinguished themselves. The first step, provisional hypothesis, for which Buckle asserts that the feminine mind is peculiarly adapted, is really a sort of pseudo-induction. Thus the second fallacy in this strange argument is the inference that the feminine mind is deductive from the assumption that it is inclined to hypothesis or speculation. The argument of Buckle seems, then, quite inadequate to prove that women possess the quality of mind which he attributed to them, or that they are in general fitted to advance the progress of science, either directly or through their influence upon men. It is, however, conceivable that, as an exceptional occurrence, women should, from time to time, throw cut some gleam of thought which they cannot themselves mature, to fructify in the male brain; but there is no explicit record of such a process, and it does not promise great results. Few people feel enough interest in the rudimentary thoughts of others to take the trouble of developing them.

A curious illustration of the arbitrariness of former generalizations as to the nature of women is the fact that Mill, in his 'Subjection of Women,' attributes the value of their intellectual influence to a character of mind exactly the opposite of that upon which Buckle bases his claim for them. While Buckle lauds their imaginative flights, Mill inclines to believe that "the general bent of their talents is toward the practical," and dwells upon "the gravitation of women's minds to the present, to the real, to actual fact." Happily the wide opportunities of actually testing their abilities now open to women are rapidly rendering the interest of all these speculations purely historical, and tending to prove that sex does not appreciably influence the quality of intellect. There is little danger any longer that Buckle or any one else should persuade women that there is a feminine road to learning or to efficiency of any kind.

GARDINER'S CHARLES I.—II.

The Fall of the Monarchy of Charles I., 1637-1649. By Samuel Rawson Gardiner, LL.D. London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1882. 2 vols.

Mr. Gardiner brings into prominence one fact with regard to the Great Rebellion which may easily be overlooked—namely, that the Puritan movement was a conservative movement which, under the stress of circumstances, took a revolutionary turn. To speak of the conservatism of Puritanism appears at first sight paradoxical. But any one who carefully studies the facts collected in Mr. Gardiner's volumes will soon perceive that the efforts of all the Puritan leaders down to and including Pym, as well as the wishes of the English nation by whom these leaders were supported till near the outbreak of the Civil War, were directed not toward speculative or even practical reforms, but toward the maintenance of the national constitution in church and state.

In ecclesiastical matters the conservatism of the English people at the earlier part of the seventeenth century is past dispute. Calvinistic Protestantism was, when James I. ascended the throne, the prevalent—one may say, the recognized—creed of the country. Laud, from the moment when he began his career, was an innovator. According to the estimate formed of Laud's doctrines, he may be called a reactionist or a reformer; no competent critic can call him a conservative. He no more wished simply to keep matters as they were—to stand upon the old paths—than did fifty years ago Newman and Pusey in England, or Lammenais or Lacordaire in France. A reaction is as much innovation as is revolution, and the whole spirit of Laudian theology and of Laudian policy was a spirit of reaction against the predominant Calvinism of the age. It was from the Archbishop and his followers that came all the changes in doctrine and in discipline. The policy of which Laud was the representative aimed at nothing less than the substitution of Anglicanism throughout the Church for evangelicalism. The use of either term as applied to the seventeenth century involves indeed not only a verbal, but to some extent a real, anachronism. Still, there is no way of giving so clear an idea of the general nature of the religious conflict which culminated in the rebellion as by describing it in modern terms as a contest between the theories of evangelical Low Churchmen and the theories of Anglican High Churchmen.

When once a student realizes the fact that the Anglicans were in the first instance the advocates of change, he finds it easy to understand how it was that even on the very eve of the Rebellion the prevailing sentiment of the nation was one of ecclesiastical conservatism. To check the tyranny of the bishops, to undo the results of Laud's labors, to restore things as far as possible to something like the order which had existed under Elizabeth, was, as Mr. Gardiner shows in page after page, the object of almost every member of the Long Parliament. The "root-and-branch" men were a small though influential minority. The men of culture, like Falkland or Hyde, were a small and not very influential minority. The vast majority, though indignant at the bishops, were not even determined foes to moderate episcopacy. Few, as far as one can judge, were the men who really wished to impose the Scotch Presbyterian systems on England. Gradually, no doubt, the sullen ill-feeling of the gentry and the middle class gave encouragement to the wilder and more vehement Puritanism of those whom Laud contemptuously styled "the vulgar sort." But even as late as the meeting of the "Short" Parliament the assailants of the court were not prepared for violent alterations.

"It cannot be denied that to grant Pym's demands would have broken up the church system of Charles and Laud. But though some of the more extreme ceremonial forms would undoubtedly have been prescribed, the whole tone of his speech was in favor of a liberal and comprehensive treatment of the church question. The necessary restrictions upon conscientious religion held far the largest space in his argument. Even when Pym spoke of practices to which he took objection, it was the compulsion even more than the practices which he held up to animadversion."

Even after the meeting of the Long Parliament, there was little public sympathy with the sectaries. "A very general sentiment was expressed in a doggerel verse which appeared" late in 1641—

> "When women preach and cobblers pray,
> The fiends in hell make holiday."

This feeling found expression in the House of Commons. "Holles complained (June 7th) of certain 'mechanical men' who had been preaching in London, 'as if instead of suppressing Popery' the House 'intended atheism and confusion.' The Speaker was directed to reprove them and to send them away with a warning to offend no more."

The English people wished in the main to keep to the old paths and to advance a little further along them in the direction suited to the bent of the national genius. The churchmen of the day wished to drive or lead the nation along a new road which, as the majority of English Protestants believed, led to Rome. It was this effort to put force upon the will of England which provoked the conservative instincts of Englishmen. Resistance which ended in revolution was, in ecclesiastical matters at least, resistance to change.

If Puritanism was in the main a spirit of Protestant conservatism in the ecclesiastical sphere, it was even more obviously a spirit of constitutional conservatism in the realm of politics. Reverence for the King, which, under the Tudors, had become identified with loyalty to the state, was an all but universal sentiment. A divine who may stand as a fair representative of moderate Puritanism writes in 1642 (the date is worth notice): "As the killing of a king is amongst men a crime so hainous that no tortures can exceed the desert of it: all torments are too little, any death too good for such a crime: so sin, which is, *Dei cidium*, a destroying of God so much as in us lies, is so hainous that none but God himselfe can give it a full punishment." And the notion which he expresses, that regicide was not only a crime, but also one of the most detestable of sins, was undoubtedly the idea of his age. The Long Parliament, again, was an assembly guided by lawyers, who exerted an influence which will never again fall to the legal profession; for law had in the seventeenth century something of the interest possessed by science in our own time. It was, together with theology (with which it had a close connection), the chief intellectual pursuit of the day. Hence the Long Parliament displays a passion for legality.

"A charge has sometimes been brought against the Englishmen of that day that they concerned themselves overmuch with legality and precedent. Undoubtedly they loved to dwell upon the antiquity of the rights which they claimed. Antiquarians like Selden or Twysden expressed the tendencies of their age as truly as thinkers like Voltaire or Rousseau expressed the tendencies of theirs. But the legality which they cherished was the legality of a nation which had hitherto preserved unbroken the traditions of self-government. Spoken or unspoken, beneath all the technicalities of the lawyers, beneath all the records of the antiquaries, there remained an undertone of reliance upon the nation itself."

The concluding words of this quotation are undoubtedly true; but a House of Commons in which a pedant like Sir Symonds D'Ewes played a leading part, and in which the doctrine could be held that money which could not without sin be paid as "interest" might innocently be paid as damages, must have had a fine taste for the subtleties of the courts, and could assuredly not have been swayed by revolutionary ideals. When to this it is added that the object of the Parliamentary leaders was to act in unison with the House of Lords, a body which then in reality no less than in name consisted of friends and guests of the King, it is clear enough that the members who came up to the Long Parliament were as little inclined for fundamental changes in the Constitution as any assembly which has ever met together in England. Their object was to restore, not to innovate; to bring the action of the Crown into harmony with the wishes of the nation, not to set the Houses of Parliament above the King. Yet this Parliament of ecclesiastical Conservatives and constitutional Whigs gave rise to the most violent revolutionary movement recorded in the history of England.

The "root-and-branch" men, who must at all times have formed a minority of the House of Commons, ultimately became the ruling spirits of the hour. Constitutionalists were thrust aside by revolutionists. How did it happen that a movement, begun to resist the encroachments of the Crown, turned into an attack, first on the rights, and then on the existence of the Crown?

A full reply to this question could be found only in the investigation of certain general causes to the existence of which Pym and Charles were, we may suppose, equally blind. To restore the powers of Parliament was, at the very lowest, to attempt a return to the Lancastrian as contrasted with the Tudor constitution. But it was in fact much more than this: it was an attempt to give definite shape to constitutional rules which had never possessed more than a vague and conventional validity. Conservatism may unconsciously be the mask of revolution. When the Hungarians rose against Austria in 1848, the Magyars meant to protect their ancient constitution. That this was their true aim is shown by the success achieved eighteen years later by the policy of Deák. But, for all this, the leader of the movement of '48 was a revolutionist aiming at the absolute independence of his country. Kossuth was the head of the "root-and-branch" men who, from the stress of circumstances, came to the front and forced constitutionalists to acquiesce in measures utterly foreign to constitutional theory.

But if general considerations explain the gradual triumph of the Independents, there existed, as Mr. Gardiner well points out, one special definite cause for the failure of all the efforts made by moderate men to keep within the lines of the Constitution. "Character," it has been said, "is destiny." If this was ever true of any man, it was true of Charles. The rooted faults of his character explain both his own calamities and the policy of his opponents. Never did there exist a monarch who showed less grasp of realities. The facts which never struck him were the patent and large facts of the situation. It was, for example, clear that the English people had no dislike to the power of the Crown. What they wished was, not that the royal authority should be diminished, but that it should be, as in the time of the Tudors, employed for objects which commanded the sympathy of the nation. The mass of men do not care much for security against tyranny as long as the force of the Government is employed in ways which they approve. German Liberals easily pardoned Bismarck's defiance of Parliament when they saw that an army raised in violation of all constitutional principle would be employed to ensure the unity and to increase the power of Germany. Charles, while making every effort to increase his power, made no effort whatever to employ resources gained by straining the prerogative, so as to conciliate the good-will of England. It was, again, patent that the Stuarts possessed an immense advantage in the possibility of playing off Scotland against England. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that they might have been despotic in either country, could they have made themselves popular in the other. Charles, with something like fatuity, contrived so to misplay his game as to make Scotchmen and Englishmen for the first time merge the hostility of centuries in their common hatred of the King. It was, lastly, absolutely certain that if Charles could even for a time make himself trusted, there would almost immediately be a reaction of English feeling in his favor.

This is no speculative hypothesis. As a matter of fact, popular trust and popular favor began once and again to gather round the throne. During the few months preceding the arrest of the five members the current of public opinion was, as Mr. Gardiner convincingly shows, turning toward the support of the Crown. If we ask why Charles could never at any moment avail himself of the advantages of his situation, the reply is a clear and short one. He was a confirmed liar and plotter, who, gifted with some talents, was utterly deficient in sense and insight. His lies and his plots were his ruin. On this point Mr. Gardiner's authority is beyond appeal. That the leading statesmen of the day perceived that Charles's word could not be trusted is certain. Mr. Gardiner shows that they had even better grounds for their distrust than they themselves could have produced. The introduction of foreign troops into England was a notion constantly before the minds of Charles and his court. Spain, Rome, France, Holland were each and all of them solicited for aid. If there was one act which could give more deadly offence to national sentiment than even the employment of foreigners, it was the intrigue with the Irish insurgents. They were looked upon in 1641 as Indian Sepoys were regarded in 1857. Yet that Charles did in some measure intrigue with the Irish Catholics is certain. How far he went appears, as we understand Mr. Gardiner's narrative, to be a matter of doubt. In England and Scotland plot followed plot. The first plot with the army, the second plot with the army, "the incident," are ample proof of the King's constant and unscrupulous intrigues. The attempted arrest of the five members was clearly enough nothing less than an abortive attempt at a *coup d'état*. That Charles might have far better attained his end by waiting two or three months longer, till a time when he might have commanded a majority in the House of Commons, showed his utter want of statesmanlike patience; but it does not show that the meditated stroke was in itself ill-conceived. One may well believe that the liberties of England were never in greater peril than on the day when the King forced his way into the House of Commons followed by a body of armed desperadoes. The *coup d'état* failed, but it transformed a constitutional contest into an armed conflict. No terms can be made with a monarch whose word cannot be trusted. When a compact between King and people became impossible, civil war became inevitable. But the imminence, and still more the outbreak, of civil war changed the whole relation of Parliamentary parties. The supporters of the monarchy left Westminster. A revolutionary minority of the Parliamentarians were the only persons capable of carrying on civil war with effect. The "root-and-branch" men became the natural masters of the situation.

ZOLA AS A CRITIC.

Documents Littéraires: Études et Portraits. Par Émile Zola. Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern.

In a series of portraits and essays on Chateaubriand, Victor Hugo, A. de Musset, Théophile Gautier, George Sand, Dumas, *fils*, and Sainte-Beuve, M. Zola makes an effort to do justice to the Romantic school in French literature, and to give a fair idea of the value and position of the authors of whom he treats. These essays were first published a few years ago, in a Russian magazine, and called forth a storm of indignation in France. They are now offered in book form to the public, so as not to suppress "the literary campaign in Russia." Zola declares, in his short preface to this volume, that he feels inclined to emphasize the opinions herein expressed.

In the first essay, on Chateaubriand, he writes: "My great desire above all things is to be just. I should not wish, because of my own literary convictions—all in favor of the modern school of exact analysis—to be unjust to a writer whose part was really colossal. I only thirst for truth; and criticism in my eyes is simply a kind of historical romance—the anatomy of a person who has existed, and who has left documents so that we can study him at leisure." It is evident, in fact, that Zola found it far easier to be just to Chateaubriand (who, although he was the pioneer in Romanticism, is now almost forgotten and seldom read) than to the living poet and literary sovereign, Victor Hugo, whose fame and influence can be compared only to Voltaire's. Of Hugo he writes:

"Victor Hugo, who has dragged after him long trains of faithful followers, will not leave a single disciple to assume and establish the master's religion. All the noise which has been made round the living writer will gradually subside at his death. Posterity will lose its interest and become severe. And do you know why its judgment will be severe? Because in Victor Hugo the initiator has deceived himself, and has only brought his personal phantasy into play, instead of finding the broad current of the century, which runs to exact analysis, to naturalism. All this mediæval bric-à-brac will be held cheap: it has not even the merit of being true to history. Posterity will be astonished that we accepted this tremendous mass of error and puerility without mockery. Posterity will seek the philosopher, the critic, the historian, the novelist, the dramatic author, and when it finds only a lyric poet, it will give him his place, and a very high one; but the whole century will not be given to him, for instead of filling it with light, he nearly choked it with the thick mass of his rhetoric. He did not consult truth; he was not the man of his age, whatever may be said; and that is enough to explain why in the future Balzac's fame will increase, while Victor Hugo will lose his height."

Zola considers himself, together with Flaubert, Daudet, the Goncourts, and the new Naturalistic school of writers, as descendants of Balzac, whose influence thus extends and will live on, while Romanticism ends with Victor Hugo, who has not one worthy follower, though surrounded by an immense circle of weak flatterers always ready to give up their personality in order to kneel before the master. He describes Victor Hugo as living like a king among courtiers who never let anything but the grossest flattery approach him. The most respectful criticism is not tolerated, and it is difficult to coin words adequate to express the extreme admiration any fresh utterance produces. "Extraordinary," "colossal," "titanic," "superhuman," seem all too mild for those devoted followers. "I do not believe in Victor Hugo's descendants. He will carry Romanticism away with him as a purple rag out of which he had made for himself a royal mantle." Zola sees in him the greatest of lyric poets, and would wish some pious friend to prune away the complete volumes in order to leave only a selection of the masterpieces, the works of absolute beauty; and this is a service which time is sure to effect even if no other hand should dare the deed. It is said that Victor Hugo will leave at his death at least twenty unpublished works which will be appearing at intervals determined by his will. Zola chooses to see in this fact the pride of a god who triumphs over death, and also the little faith Hugo has in the talent of his surviving disciples, preferring thus to carry on himself the combat of Romanticism from the tomb to leaving his memory to be defended by them. One can see by the continual effort to be just and to be respectful that it is no easy task for Zola to judge impartially of work so antagonistic to his own method. He cannot help chuckling over what he terms the ruins of the Romantic school, and again and again through this volume we are as-

sured that at the present hour the Naturalistic is the only school now existing in France, and that it has more surely triumphed over the Romantics than they did over the Classics in 1830.

In the article on Musset we have a subject more sympathetic to our author, treated therefore in all seriousness and just appreciation, without the insistence on foibles and the salt of satire which he so profusely lavishes on Victor Hugo. One hour of weakness he regrets in the life of his favorite poet—the one in which he sought the honor of becoming an Academician; and it would seem, by what he wrote on the subject, that even his brother must have felt something similar. Paul de Musset speaks thus of this event: "Among all the grave personages who surrounded him that day, at most ten may have read a few pages of his poetry. Lamartine publicly confessed he had not read his works. Others blamed them on hearsay without wishing to know them. The evening before the election, M. Ancelot, who particularly liked the candidate, and who was determined to give him his vote, said in the Palais-Royal Garden to the publisher Charpentier: 'That poor Alfred is an amiable youth and a charming man in society; but, between ourselves, he has never known, and never will know, how to write verses.'" The honor of such an election to a distinguished literary man is indeed questionable.

"Théophile Gautier may be judged in a phrase, if one says he was an admirable grammarian and an admirable painter. He carried with him as a gift his correct and richly picturesque style. A perfect page never cost him any effort." His conversation seems to have been even more picturesque and vivid than his writing, and many critics expatiate on the universality of his genius and the encyclopedic quality of his mind; but Zola objects that he brought no new thought, no human truth of any depth, no foreknowledge of the evolution of centuries—nothing but brilliant variations on a well-tuned instrument; and his judgment of Gautier is summed up in these words: "All the written or spoken words of this poet are dazzling gymnastics in the domain of paradox." Gautier objected to the coining of new words; he even tried to demonstrate by the force of his rhetoric that there was nothing new under the sun, not even steam locomotion, which he pretended was perfectly well known to Archimedes, but the Greeks disdained its use, finding that they went fast enough without it. He had the hatred of innovations in common with all the followers of Romanticism. One of Gautier's favorite ideas was to found a school of style in France that poets might be followers of Théophile Gautier or of Victor Hugo, just as painters sign themselves pupils of Gérôme or Cabanel, thus sacrificing everything to form, for which he was content to sink thought and actual, positive science. He must have cordially hated the modern dramas he had to sit in judgment upon, night after night, as dramatic critic of the *Moniteur;* and if he did not fight against the ever-pervading Naturalism, it was because he had become indifferent and dragged along his chain of daily work in the restricted frame, even allowing his articles to be altered to suit the paper for which he wrote. It was only when Victor Hugo, his revered master, was in question that he insisted on his opinions and threatened to give up the position.

Gautier seems in his later days to have regretted the amount of praise he had lavished on all sides so indiscriminately; yet he piqued himself on the infallibility of his judgments during thirty years of general artistic criticism. "Singular infallibility," justly remarks Zola, "which cries, 'I proclaimed Delacroix,' and dares to add, 'I placed Gérôme on the same level with him,' and which might still say, 'I found talent in all excepting in the Realists.'" A marvellous poet, second only to Hugo, and the finest prose writer of the first half of our century, Zola is willing to acknowledge Gautier to be; but he thinks the collecting together of all his feuilletons the worst service his friends can render to his memory. In the latest volume of 'Memoirs of Théophile Gautier,' by his son-in-law, M. Bergerat, we have a confirmation of the fact that Gautier loved neither his country nor the age in which he lived. This Zola finds common to the whole Romantic school. "Writers of 1830 held as a principle that we were ugly; that our times and our country were frightful to look at and to analyze. It was the disdain of modern things so long practised by the Classic school. Only, instead of taking us back to antiquity and making us live in Athens or Rome, the Romantic school transported us to the East, and locked us up in mediæval towns. I insist on this because it is extremely typical, and explains many things. Let us refer to the literary manifestoes of fifty years ago: what prevails in them is revolt against the present time." Further on he says: "The want of feathers and lace-braid condemned our society irredeemably in the eyes of the Romantic writers. The humdrum of life horrified them also. Money matters, commerce, cookery, all the details of daily life, were to them the sum total of ennui; they seemed to think past ages had not known these trifles. They required, in a word, times stripped of the realities of existence, ages so far removed that they might be resuscitated with a carnival of manners, language, and costume." "The Romantic writers have lived so short a time, and will soon disappear entirely, because they have neither understood nor loved their own age. This is their irreclaimable weakness. No other reason need be sought for the short life of this school, which has counted in its ranks such powerful rhetoricians and men so admirably endowed as to form."

The only work which will last and which suits our age is based on scientific study of our own times—on types of every-day life studied from nature, "the human document." "It is science, or rather the scientific spirit of our century, which offers the genial matter out of which the creators of to-morrow will produce these masterpieces." What the creators of to-morrow may accomplish, we know not, but we shall hope that they may arrive at some happier medium course than the Naturalistic writers of to-day, who, like Zola, seek the "human document" in repulsive types and loathsome pictures treated with but little art and much insistence of painful detail and truth to ugliness. The moral of these works is that vice brings its own punishment, and the demonstration of this hackneyed theme leads us through unsuspected and undesirable depths of wickedness. Zola is far more interesting as a critic than as a writer of fiction. His wish to be just, so frequently expressed, does not prevent him from writing freely of his contemporaries. In two distinct articles he passes in review the younger poets and the critics of the day, who all fall far short of the mark. It would indeed seem difficult to meet Zola's views in this line. He even considers Sainte-Beuve wanting as a critic, because he refused to regard with anything but consternation the work of Flaubert and the Goncourts. For a moment the hopes of the whole school were centred in Taine, but these soon faded before the severe geometrical and mechanical system which he applied to his criticism. So now the Naturalists are without any critic, and their work accordingly falls flat. M. Zola naïvely deplores this, and remarks that the public gets more and more exasperated and indignant at each fresh work, for want of some one to explain, so that it may understand, besides the strife and noise which is going on, the rights of the conflict, and on which side life, talent, and the future are. In another essay, on "Morality in Literature," Zola answers attacks on his own works. The book is throughout clever and amusing, full of lively argument and unfailing wit, however strained some of the points may be, and at variance with the reader's preconceived notions of art in literature.

FOOTE'S ANNALS OF KING'S CHAPEL.

Annals of King's Chapel, from the Puritan Age of New England to the Present Time. By Henry Wilder Foote. In two vols. Vol. i. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

KING'S CHAPEL is one of Boston's most interesting landmarks, and with a single exception (Christ Church) is the oldest of her existing houses of worship. Its history is the history of the planting and growth of Episcopacy in New England, and abounds in stirring incidents; and although Mr. Foote is of Unitarian faith, he yet treats his subject so fairly and impartially that churchmen will not fail to regard this work as one of first authority. As we turn the leaves of the book we are surprised at the great store of material which has served the author in the preparation of it. The Massachusetts Historical Society's Collections, the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, Whitmore (through his Andros Tracts), Dr. Perry's Historical Papers, the Mathers, Sewall, Palfrey—these and many others have been freely drawn upon, and have enabled Mr. Foote to tell his readers something about almost everybody that was in any way connected with King's Chapel, and for every important fact to present an "authority." The church records, letters, and documents—some of them now for the first time printed—are indeed instructive, as showing the very "spirit of the times," for an example or a warning, as it may happen. Portraits, arms, autographs, and views of buildings most fittingly set off the pages of the book.

The principal agent in establishing the Church of England in Massachusetts was Edward Randolph, described by Cotton Mather as "a blasted wretch, followed with a sensible curse of God wherever he came—despised, abhorred, unprosperous." Randolph's first appearance in the colony was in the year 1676. In nine years, according to his own showing, he made eight voyages to New England, serving the King in the capacity of a police spy. Two objects he never concealed—the overthrowing of the Massachusetts charter, and the setting up of the Church of England in Boston. In both he was triumphant. He certainly worried the Puritans nearly to distraction. The people said he "went up and down seeking to devour them." In 1679 Randolph writes to the Governor of Plymouth: "I am received in Boston more like a spy than one of his Majesty's servants. They kept a day of thanks for the return of their agents, but they have prepared a welcome for me by a paper of scandalous verses, of which I take the more notice because it so much reflects on my master, who will not forget it." In a letter to the Lords of the Committee of Trade he says: "I am by all accounted the sole enemy of the country"; and after the Revolution, he writes from Boston Jail to the Governor of Barbadoes: "All the blame lies upon me, who first attacked and then overthrew their charter, and was made the officer to continue their Egyptian bondage by my office of collector." In 1683, when Randolph came to Boston with the writ of *quo warranto* against the Massachusetts charter, a destructive fire happening to break out in the town, the peo-

ple, in their rage, insinuated that he was the incendiary.

The frigate *Rose* arrived at Boston on the 15th of May, 1686, bringing Mr. Randolph and the Rev. Robert Ratcliffe, a minister of the Church of England. Soon afterward a request was made to the Council that Mr. Ratcliffe might have the use of one of the Congregational meeting-houses of the town; which being denied, "I got," says Randolph, "a little room in their Town-house for such as were of the Church of England to assemble in." And in the Boston Town-house, on the 15th of June, 1686, the first Episcopal church in New England was duly organized. Sir Edmund Andros, commissioned by King James II. to be the Governor of New England, landed at Boston on the 20th of the following December. One of the first "acts of his despotism" was the taking possession of the South Congregational meeting-house for the use of the Episcopalians. Dr. Greenwood (the author of 'A History of King's Chapel,' published in 1833) considers this to be "one of the most arbitrary acts ever perpetrated in this country while it remained under the English Government." "No excuse," he adds, "is to be rendered for it. It was such a deliberate outrage on the common rights of property, to say nothing of conscience and liberty, that we may only wonder that Andros and his abettors, of whom Randolph was doubtless one, suffered no personal violence from the people." The two congregations occupied the "South" by turns—the Episcopalians in the forenoon, and the Congregationalists in the afternoon, or according as it was more convenient for the Governor. On one occasion, when the Episcopal service had lasted until after two o'clock, Judge Sewall notes in his Diary: "It was a sad sight to see how full the street was of people gazing and moving to and fro, because they had not entrance into the house."

Another of Sir Edmund's "acts" was the appointment of Randolph to be the licenser of the press. Under his "licensing," one almanac, one proclamation by Andros, and five reprints constituted the entire issue of the Boston and Cambridge presses for the year 1688. The restraint upon marriage was more "grievous" than that upon the press, none being allowed to marry unless they gave bonds with sureties to the Governor, to be forfeited in case of lawful impediments afterward appearing. Andros regarded the Congregational ministers as mere laymen, and Randolph wrote to the Bishop of London: "One thing will mainly help, when no marriages hereafter shall be allowed lawful but such as are made by the ministers of the Church of England." At that time Mr. Ratcliffe was the only Episcopal minister in the country. Cotton Mather, in his 'Remarkables' of his father, furnishes the following graphic description of the Andros "administration":

"The Administration was almost entirely a complication of shameless and matchless villainies. The honest gentlemen in the Council were overlooked and browbeaten and rendered insignificant. Three or four finished villains did what they pleased. There was no controlling of them. Among other instances of the vile things in it there was this comprehensive one: The banditti gave out that the charters being lost, all the title that the people had unto their lands was lost with them (for which a small defect in the legal and public settlements of them was pretended), and therefore they began to compel the people everywhere to take patents for their lands. Accordingly, Writs of Intrusion were issued out against the chief gentlemen of the Territory, by the terror whereof many were driven to petition for patents, that they might enjoy the lands which had been fifty or sixty years in their possession. But for these patents there were such exorbitant prices demanded that fifty pounds could not purchase for its owner an estate not worth two hundred; nor could all the money and movables in the Territory have defrayed the charges of patenting the lands at the hands of these crocodiles, besides the considerable Quitrents for the King. Indeed, the brutish things done by these wild beasts of the earth are too many to be related, and would be too brutish to be believed."

An "administration" such as Dr. Mather has described was not to be endured by a liberty-loving people, "essentially the same in 1689 that they were in 1775." On the 18th of April, 1689, they broke out in open revolution, captured the forts, and imprisoned Andros, Randolph, and the prominent members of Mr. Ratcliffe's church. The most obnoxious ones were kept in prison some months, and then, by order of the King, were sent over to England. It does not appear that Mr. Ratcliffe was restrained of his liberty. He went to England shortly after the deposition of Andros, and never returned.

About six months before the downfall of Andros the Episcopalians commenced the erection of a building—the King's Chapel—for their own exclusive use, taking for its site a part of the plot set off by the first settlers for a burying-ground. The structure was so far completed as to be in condition for occupancy in June, 1689, but was not pewed until 1694. It was of wood, and was built at a cost of £284 16*s*. In Queen Anne's reign it was styled the Queen's Chapel, but on the accession of George I. it resumed its old name of King's Chapel. Mr. Ratcliffe was succeeded in the rectorship of the church by Rev. Samuel Myles, "a good liver and a painful preacher," though vexed with a "fiery temper." Mr. Myles's work in the affairs of his church lasted almost forty years. In 1692 he made a visit to England, and for four years was absent from his congregation, his pulpit being filled by Mr. Smith for one year, and by Mr. George Hatton for three years. Little is known of Mr. Smith, but of Mr. Hatton we have the notice following from Captain Thomas Coram, in his petition to the Archbishop of Canterbury:

"In the years 1693 and 1694, and some time after, there was but one minister of the Church of England in all the inhabited parts of the English Empire in America. . . . The said minister, whose name was Mr. Hatton, was a very worthless man. He resided at Boston, and was utterly unfit to gain or reconcile to the Church such Dissenters so strongly inveterate against it. But he was far from ever attempting to do so; for he would frequently on Saturday nights sit up and play at cards all or the greater part of the night, in company with an Irish butcher and an Irish barber and another or more of such of his acquaintance, whereby he was usually so much disordered, which prevented him from officiating next day at Church, which gave its numerous enemies great opportunity to ridicule against it; and those few inhabitants of the large town of Boston who were desirous to go to Church were very often disappointed and greatly discouraged."

Captain Coram is mentioned in the Province laws as a "shipwright of Boston." He was a noted philanthropist, and the projector of the Foundling Hospital in London. It is suggested that he was not an unprejudiced witness, because of a grievance of his own with the vestry of King's Chapel, arising out of a gift of land he had made to the church, which had been treated in a somewhat contemptuous manner.

Mr. Myles returned in 1696, with abundant gifts in hand for his church and the promise from the King of £100 a year for the support of an assistant. The "new worship" was now securely established, and but for "internal strifes" its history would not be long-spun. The relations between the rector and his assistants were singularly unhappy. Mr. Bridge was the first to fill the position of assistant. Mr. Myles charged him with "falsehood and dissimulation," and their dissensions ended only when Mr. Bridge was removed to the Narragansett country. Mr. Harris (in 1709) took the place vacated by Mr. Bridge, bringing causes of more trouble, or perhaps finding them already prepared for him. And still the church increased in numbers. Christ Church, in the north part of the town, was built in 1723, Dr. Cutler, a new convert to the faith, becoming its rector. In any differences between the rector and assistant of King's Chapel, Dr. Cutler always sided with the rector. "Mr. Harris," so writes Dr. Cutler, "is a sore mortification to us in every good design. . . . That person refused reading prayers but last Sunday for Mr. Myles, who is greatly indisposed; and this is but one out of a thousand beastlinesses of the man." And again: "Mr. Harris's conduct ever since [Mr. Myles's death] has been a dreadful tragedy. . . . Being displeased at a gentleman of character belonging to the church and vestry, he pulled him by the nose, and bad him get out of the church, and said he would follow him; and, after that, charged him with going to strike him in the church, whereas every one there were witnesses to that gentleman's meek behavior." The "feuds within" King's Chapel were not confined to its clergymen, but, as showing the estimation in which the two were held by their flock, it is set down that when Mr. Myles died (1728) the church paid £194 for his funeral, and that upon Mr. Harris's death (1729) the congregation, by a solemn vote, declared that no money should be paid out of the church funds for his burial.

An enlargement of King's Chapel to twice its original size was made in 1710. In a description of Boston printed shortly afterward we find this mention of the building:

"Here is the Episcopal Church, handsomely built and adorned, whose congregation is said to consist of about a thousand members. King William and Queen Mary gave them a pulpit-cloth, a cushion, a rich set of plate for the communion-table, and a piece of painting reaching from the bottom to the top of the east end of the church, containing the Decalogue, the Lord's Prayer, and the Apostles' Creed. Thomas Brattle, Esq., gave a pair of organs to it, and there's a magnificent pew, built at the public charge, for the reception of the Governor, when he happens to be of the Church of England."

The next rector of King's Chapel following Mr. Myles was Rev. Roger Price, who held also the appointment of "commissary," by which he was required to keep an oversight of the other Episcopal churches in New England. His assistant for six years was Rev. Thomas Harward, between whom and the rector there were many unpleasant "disagreements." "Mr. Price's ministry," says Mr. Foote, "is marked by two controversies—first, with the Provincial authorities in his capacity as commissary, and also, personally, with his own people." These controversies make a highly interesting chapter in the 'Annals.' The disagreements and controversies seem not to have affected the church injuriously, for its membership had so largely increased in 1735 that there was need of further accommodation, and it was to meet this need that Trinity Church was built, Mr. Davenport (Mr. Price's assistant for a short time) becoming its rector.

The "Great Awakening," as it has been termed, under the leading of Whitefield and Tennent, occurred in Mr. Price's time. It was not regarded with favor by the Episcopalians. Mr. Price wrote and preached against it, as also did Dr. Cutler. The letters of the latter are very peppery. He calls Mr. Whitefield a "fellow," and Congregational churches "conventicles," and is yet more unreasonable when he comes to Mr. Tennent. These are his words:

"After him [Whitefield] came one *Tennent*—a monster! impudent and noisy—and told them all they were damn'd, damn'd, damn'd. This charmed them; and, in the most dreadful winter I ever saw, people wallowed in the snow, night and day, for the benefit of his beastly brayings, and many ended their days under these fatigues. Both of them carried more

money out of these parts than the poor could be thankful for."

Mr. Price severed his connection with King's Chapel by resignation. His people seem to have been not unwilling to let him go. In looking for his successor they took a "new departure," voting not to send to England for a minister, but to choose one from among the clergy in New England. Following this vote, the congregation made choice of the Rev. Henry Caner, of Fairfield, Conn. And here the historian takes leave of us for the present. The second volume, however, already well forwarded, will contain an account of the building of the Stone Chapel, the troubles through which the church passed in the years of the Revolutionary War, and the movement by which "the first Episcopal church in New England became the first Unitarian church in America."

AN ANTHROPOLOGIST ON THE IRISH QUESTION.

Our Nationalities. By Jas. Bonwick, F.R.G.S. New York: Scribner & Welford.

Mr. Bonwick's volume is divided into four parts, in which he inquires into the nationality of the Irish, the Scotch, the Welsh, and the English. It appears from the introduction that the motive for these inquiries is almost as much political as ethnological. The Irish present many traits which are a constant puzzle, not only to Englishmen, but to the rest of the world as well. Their passionate attachment to their country is curiously contrasted with the readiness with which they adapt themselves, when compelled to emigrate, to life in countries alien in religion, race, and institutions; their apparent, or, at any rate, assumed incapacity for self-government is hard to reconcile with the fact that in a democratic country like America they should for a long time have seemed destined to take complete possession of the machinery of municipal government. Their hard-headed shrewdness and humor in private life offer a curious contrast to the unbridled romance and enthusiasm they seem still ready to display in politics at the bidding of leaders as ill-fitted as any that have ever appeared in the world's history to inspire such feelings. In literature and on the stage they always appear gifted with the most attractive virtues that a high state of civilization can produce, while in public life they seem to most people inspired by some demoniac fury which they cannot resist, but which inevitably leads them to certain disaster. Without going into the merits of the questions discussed by Mr. Bonwick as to the Celtic race, it may certainly be said that the passionate and, to outsiders, irrational devotion to country which Irishmen display seems almost to be different in kind from patriotism as we know it in other countries of Western Europe, except France, where, however, it does not attract nearly as much attention, because France has not had in modern times to submit to a foreign yoke. It is the preservation of this intense national feeling among a people long since incorporated into another empire which is so remarkable. To compare the feeling of Irishmen toward England with that of Poland toward Russia is of course absurd, for the government of Poland by Russia was an organized system of cruel oppression, and Polish patriotism was inflamed by a sense of daily misery arising from the burden of a despotism which stifled all free life; but if Ireland were a real Poland, it would be difficult to imagine an intenser sentiment of detestation than that inspired by the Saxon oppressor.

It is important to bear this fact in mind in reading Mr. Bonwick's volume. Some idea of his method and motives may be gathered from his introduction, which opens with the incontrovertible statement that the cry of "Ireland for the Irish" suggests the inquiry, "Who are the Irish?" The question is, he says, obviously one either of birth or blood. In the former case, the son of Irish parents, if born while his mother was visiting England, would be no Irishman; while the son of English parents, fortuitously born in Ireland, would be one—a palpable absurdity. On the other hand, if we apply the test of blood, we are confronted by some awkward difficulties. Were the Home Rule theory reduced to practice, "a vast number of comfortable officials would have, on that principle, to retire in England"—*i.e.*, Irishmen now connected with the English Government. "Who then," Mr. Bonwick somewhat ironically asks, "would cease to rule in Ireland?" On the other hand, if reputed Scotch and English were to be excluded from state affairs in Ireland, and the origin be decided by names, "nearly all the prominent Irish leaders would be immediately retired, since they clearly belong to that hated race that conquered Ireland." Proceeding with the work of ostracism from power, Ulster, Leinster, Munster, and Connaught would have to be purged of Scotch and Welsh as well as English, whether of Celtic, Saxon, Norwegian, Flemish, or Danish origin. Besides these, "the Danes proper" must be dealt with, and here the trouble arises that a large number of these, as well as of the early Anglo-Norman colonists, assumed Irish names and the Irish tongue, so that "it would be puzzling to get rid of those defilements of the pure Irish." But even with these defilements effaced, the work of selection is not completed, for "the small remnant would have a rare contest over the spoils of office." There would be "the big-boned and fair-haired Celts" claiming the rights of rule, but their claim would be resisted as that of mere devastating intruders by "the little dark-eyed people of an older date," and even these might in their turn be shown to be intruders.

This still leaves us face to face with the original question, Who are the Irish who ought to govern Ireland? The author's answer to this question is somewhat vague—indeed, he leaves it unanswered. Ireland, he says, was the ancient refuge of the oppressed. Just as people now emigrate from countries oppressed by misrule to the United States, so in early times they found shelter in Ireland. "It was the last north-western shore. They crowded in upon one another, being, as it were, in ethnological strata." There was this difference, however, that emigrants to Ireland in primitive times were not invited to come and were not received gladly. In fact, they were received with such marked demonstrations of disapproval on the part of the natives that they only got a foothold for their own ethnological stratum, by fighting with the previous stratum and getting the better of it. In this way, Mr. Bonwick, who is an out-and-out Darwinian, says, "each successive set of arrivals had to illustrate the doctrine of the survival of the fittest." This shows to his mind the absurdity of talking about Ireland as a Celtic country. It is inhabited by a greater mixture of races than any country in Europe. As well might we call France Roman because the older language was surrendered for Latin. But even if it were true that the Irish were all Celts, says Mr. Bonwick, is it reasonable to hate or despise another merely because God "gave him a different racial parentage"? The anthropologist would unhesitatingly say no. But if this is the answer furnished by anthropology, how wrong, politically, is it "for any man, for party purposes, to foster such a feeling among those in one national bond!" Religious zealots insist that Catholics are Celts, and Protestants are Saxons, and "one object of this little book is to show that the Catholics of Ireland are far from being all Celts, and Protestants far from being all Saxons." It may, the author admits, fail to convince "prejudiced adults," but the rising generation at least will learn that the English and Irish are very nearly related, and that, in fact, "most Irish came originally from Britain."

It will be seen from the foregoing how closely anthropology and politics are connected in the mind of our author. The Irish land agitation, he says, can be shown to have arisen "in consequence of old tribal customs," existing perhaps before the Celtic period, and is consequently "a remarkable case of *Survival*." The Saxons came to Ireland, too, after the establishment of the tribal system, and both alike have clung to the old habits of the country—a fact at which "the anthropologist smiles," as another illustration of *survival*. We cannot go into the details of the inquiry contained in the body of the volume; but no one can examine them without profiting by the author's research and learning. If we had a criticism to make, it would be that Mr. Bonwick overestimates the reader's sense of humor. In his account of the early settlers in Ireland it is often difficult to make out whether he is treating us to jocular or serious anthropology. He does not sufficiently discriminate between what he believes and what he does not believe of the early Irish legend to permit the reader to know exactly what is science and what is myth. His serious anthropology is marked by a liberal and almost lavish hospitality of belief, and for this reason it is to be regretted that he has allowed his humor such liberties with it. Anthropology is clearly not at the bottom of the following:

"When that worthy man, Milesius, who was said to have kept a school near the Tower of Babel, teaching Hebrew and *Irish* there, came over to Ireland, he found Somebody there before him. When Noah's niece, hearing of a coming Deluge, indulged a woman's fears in running away beforehand, she very naturally got to the end of the world, in Ireland. She had, as reported, a retinue of three men, but old chroniclers had too much contempt for women to tell us of her lady companions. Those who doubt the universality of the Deluge have thus a famous argument on their side; since if the Irish had all been drowned at the Deluge, how should we know anything about Cesarea, the niece of Noah?"

But he does not hesitate to go behind even Milesius and Noah's niece:

"We know that there was a very uncomfortable state of things once in Northern Europe, called the *Glacial Age*. Then all Scotland and the greater part of Ireland and England looked just like [*sic*] Greenland does now. But that was before Erin was the *Green Isle*, and when the vegetarian system would have had considerable difficulties to encounter, since modern Esquimaux have to do without bread, cornflour, potatoes, and jellies. Yet, as men did exist in Britain before the glaciers retreated nearer the North Pole, one wonders what sort of creatures the *Glacial* Irish were, and whether temperament has changed with temperature."

As we have already said, the anthropological researches of Mr. Bonwick do not throw much light on the political question on which he suggests their having a bearing in his preface. That the Irish were a composite race we knew already. A knowledge of the exact amount of Celtic blood in their veins, or the exact amount of Saxon blood in the veins of the English, would throw about the same light on the question of Home Rule as the dispute about the "Latin races" did on the durability of the Second Empire in France or the balance of power in Europe. If it could be proved that the Irish were entirely Celtic, we should not know much more about the proper treatment for Parnell than we do now. Consequently, Mr. Bonwick's compendium—for it seems rather a

compilation than an original work—cannot have any political value, except, indeed, that it does show how very difficult it would be for any one to attempt a final settlement of the Irish question by anthropological means.

Freaks and Marvels of Plant Life; or, Curiosities of Vegetation. By M. C. Cooke, A. M., LL. D. Published by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge; pp. 463, 12mo.

BULKY though it be, this is a very *thin* book, and one that does little credit either to the respectable and well-meaning society which issues it, or to the well-known cryptogamic botanist who has brought good, bad, and indifferent materials together. He might have written a book on the Curiosities of Fungi from fulness of knowledge. But, although "the prominent features in the investigations which have of late years contributed so much to our knowledge of vegetable life" are really well worth "presenting in a popular form," and it may be that "the labors especially of Mr. Darwin in this direction deserve to be more generally known than they are," one may still doubt whether the endeavor to make them so should not have been left to a more competent and discriminating expositor. Altogether this is a bookmaker's "Freak."

Elementary Lessons in Electricity and Magnetism. By Prof. Silvanus Thompson, of University College, Bristol, England. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1881.

THE reader will find this treatise a very convenient book of reference for a multitude of facts in electrical science. In the author's anxiety to include the latest developments of the subject, he has not exercised, at all times, his scientific caution. Evaporation is mentioned as the source of atmospheric electricity; the existence of electrical currents in muscles and nerves is alleged, without reservation; and in speaking of the influence of temperature upon the magnetic state, the influence of the temperature at which the iron or steel is magnetized is not given. The writer, however, is fairly abreast with the times, and the book is a valuable one for the young student.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbe, F. R. The Temple Rebuilt: a Poem. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1 25.
Amicis, E. de. Morocco: Its People and Places. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 23, 1882.

The Week.

DURING the week there was no gold exported, but near the close the rates for foreign exchange again approached the gold-shipping point. The New York banks gained $2,465,475 in reserve, and ran their surplus up to $3,153,300. This gain came chiefly from Treasury disbursements on account of bond redemptions. Of the $60,000,000 of 3½ per cent. bonds covered by the 105th, 106th, and 107th calls only $8,309,400 remain unpaid. The 108th call for $20,000,000 matures April 8, and no order for the prepayment of these bonds without rebate has yet been issued. Early in the week the 109th call for $15,000,000 of the 3½ per cent. (extended 6s) bonds was issued, to mature $5,000,000 on each of the first three Wednesdays of May. At the Stock Exchange the week has been remarkable. There was a complete change in the tone of the speculation in stocks from depression and weakness to strength and buoyancy; the advance in prices of the leading stocks ranged from 1 to 11 points; United States bonds advanced ¼@¾, and railroad bonds 1@7 points. This change was brought about mainly by a combination of the wealthiest speculative railroad managers, who agreed to unite for the common defence, in the market, of the stocks of their respective properties against the attacks of another class of speculators, of large but inferior means, who have been "raiding" stocks for many weeks. The existence of the combination was revealed to the public, first by the display of securities by Jay Gould, which was alluded to in our last issue, and, second, by a series of published statements in the daily papers. The most important of these statements was that of Mr. William H. Vanderbilt, to the effect that the railroad war on both passenger and freight rates was practically settled, and that a pooling arrangement for five years had been made. His declaration and Gould's display were supported by their orders to buy their leading stocks; they raising the buying price on each succeeding day and taking all the stock offered on each day at the appointed price. In this way, the confidence of dealers in stocks that the market could no longer be successfully attacked induced general speculative buying, and as prices are low for many stocks, the investing public late in the week came in as buyers, as did also to a moderate extent the foreign markets.

Nothing could have more clearly demonstrated the utter absence of efficient leadership among the Republican majority of the House of Representatives than their caucus on Wednesday week. Mr. Robeson, who presided, probably thought it useless, after the experiences he has gone through, to make on his part any attempt in that direction. All he had to say in opening the meeting was that it would be a good thing for the Republican party to have some policy or other, and that suggestions in that respect were now in order. A considerable number of such suggestions followed, touching a variety of things, but nobody spoke with any weight of authority. There were no formal votes taken upon any of the resolutions; but after a great confusion of tongues the caucus finally arrived at what is called "a general understanding" concerning several points of importance, and it may be said that it thus brought forth results of value. In the first place, it appeared that a large majority of the Republican members of the House were opposed to the repeal or reduction of the taxes on whiskey and tobacco. Mr. Kelley of Pennsylvania produced the well-known arguments of the protectionists in favor of the repeal in his usual sonorous style, but found the current of opinion so strongly against him that, while deprecating a formal vote, he found himself obliged to "acquiesce heartily in what appeared to be the prevailing sense of the caucus, and was willing to abide by it." This being the sense of the caucus, it may now be considered as certain that the taxes on whiskey and tobacco will not be interfered with, while the field is open for the repeal or reduction of other internal taxes, such as those on matches, bank-checks and circulation, etc. The second point of the "general understanding" was that the Committee on Rules should not bring up the proposed amendments to the rules until the Ways and Means Committee had made an effort to reach the consideration of the Tariff Commission Bill.

The House of Representatives on Monday resolved, by a vote of 152 to 56, to suspend the rules and to take up the Tariff Commission Bill out of the regular order as soon as the House went again into Committee of the Whole. Only appropriation bills are to be permitted to interfere with this arrangement. It is scarcely necessary to say that the heavy majority by which this was done cannot be looked upon as a test of the position of members with regard to the bill itself. By this vote two things have been accomplished: First, the "obstruction of the public business" which the Republican members of the Committee on Rules expected to occur on this very occasion, and to justify an amendment of the rules enlarging the powers of the majority, has failed to appear. The amendment of the rules will, therefore, lack this dramatic demonstration of its necessity, and may possibly have to be indefinitely postponed. In the second place, the debate on the tariff question is now certain to come. According to Mr. Kasson's prediction, it will occupy about a fortnight, and it seems to be generally understood that amendments will to any extent be permitted to be offered and to be voted upon. Now, we hope it will be a real debate, with attack and defence, one argument answering another, and not a succession of dreary lectures read from manuscript to a drowsy House and unfit to attract the attention of the country. Such a debate may be called forth by a motion, as an amendment to the bill, to instruct the Commission in the sense proposed by Mr. Hewitt in a substitute intended to be offered by him for the Commission Bill. The discussion should take the widest range, drawing every phase of the question within its scope, and it is particularly desirable that the relation between wages and the tariff—or in other words, the pretence that the tariff protects "American labor" and "the American laborer"—should be thoroughly ventilated. It is of less importance what the fate of this bill may be than that the public interest in the subject be revived by a thorough discussion of it.

The Investigating Committee of the House will doubtless perceive without difficulty that Mr. Morton's explanation, transmitted by Mr. Frelinghuysen, does not clear the Peruvian matter up, and that it is hardly likely to be cleared up either by letter or telegram. For instance, when Mr. Morton says that he "has never at any time been associated with any business transactions needing or expecting the intervention of the United States," he has evidently forgotten the clause of the Crédit Industriel contract with the house of Morton, Bliss & Co., which makes its continuance beyond the period of six years depend on the mediation of the United States between Chili, Peru, and Bolivia so as "to secure peace, and the recognition of the concessions, rights, and privileges granted to and secured by the contract above mentioned." So also, although it is true that "the preliminaries of the agreement itself were," as Mr. Morton says, "made by Mr. George Bliss in Mr. Morton's absence, and before his departure for his present post," this is a matter of no consequence. The question the Committee needs to have answered is, not whether the agreement was made in Mr. Morton's "absence"—for absence may mean simply that he was in Washington or Newport when it was made in New York—but whether it was made without his knowledge. It is to be observed, too, that we knew already that it was "made before his departure for his present post." But it was not made before his appointment to his present post. He was appointed on the 9th of March, 1881, and the contract was not closed until August 9, 1881, Suarez having announced his intention to make such a contract with a "first-class American house" in February, 1881. The contract as we have said, was signed on the 27th of August, and Mr. Morton was then in Paris, for he had his interview with President Grévy about Chili and Peru on the 10th of August, and his despatch reporting it is dated the 11th of August. He sailed from New York on the 20th of July, and probably reached his post about the 1st of August We trust Mr. Morton will see on reflection that his statement, that "it never entered into his mind that it would be possible to use or attempt to use his official position as Minister to further the object of the late contracts," is not a sufficient withdrawal of his case from the rule which forbids a diplomatist from entering into any contract likely to create the slightest sus-

picion of his using his official position for commercial purposes. It is not enough that he keeps his mind in the right condition : his acts also must conform to the law.

Mr. Vanderbilt, in an interview published by the *Tribune*, has informed the public why he is opposed to the creation of a railroad commission by law. His point is that such a commission would at once proceed to "compel the New York Central to take its local business on the basis of its through-rates; the Erie and the Pennsylvania Railroads would quickly make such through-rates as would just about ruin the Central, hampered with such a law ; those roads, as far as they did a business falling within the provisions of the law, would overcome their difficulties by their freedom in other States, while the Central, being entirely within the State, would have no chance to show effective opposition." Hence, Mr. Vanderbilt argues, such a commission would be ruinously unjust to the Central, unless the neighboring States had railroad commissions too, treating their roads in the same way. Mr. Vanderbilt is fighting a windmill. What reason has he to assume that the Railroad Commission will at once "compel the railroads of this State to take their local business on the basis of their through-rates"? Such things were indeed seriously contemplated in the early stages of the Granger movement, and there may be still an enthusiastic orator here and there ventilating similar crude notions. But it may be assumed that the Railroad Commission would be composed of men of good sense, informed enough to know that a railroad cannot carry a ton of freight one mile at the same rate per mile at which it can carry it 100 miles. Massachusetts has had a railroad commission for many years ; and when were the railroads of that State "compelled" to run their local traffic upon the basis of their through-rates ? Neither does the bill now before the Legislature confer any such power. It is, indeed, intended, and is also very desirable, that the Commission should look into the matter of special contracts and other unjust arrangements discriminating in favor of one business firm or one locality as against another, and into similar abuses, if they exist.

The announcement that nothing is expected to come of the approaching adjourned meeting of the International Monetary Conference, and that it will probably only assemble to adjourn again, will take no calm observer by surprise. Nobody who was not carried away by that mysterious force, the bi-metallic fever, ever supposed that it would. It is useless now to go over the reasons for this collapse. They have often been produced in our columns. Within the last year, a fresh one has been added in the shape of the total failure of the bi-metallic predictions about the terrible struggle for gold between the great commercial nations. It is apparently no more severe than it has ever been ; interest is low at all the great monetary centres, while speculation is rampant, and silver even in silver countries is piled up in vaults.

"The United Trade and Labor Union of New York City and its Vicinity," which has just been formed out of various smaller organizations, and held its first meeting on Sunday, does not seem after all to be a very practical body. It spent most of its time at this meeting over the question of convict labor, which of all the obstacles to the prosperity of the workingman in this State is probably the very least, though there is doubtless a good deal of merit in the suggestion that criminals should be compelled to supply the articles they need for their own use, but that the State should not try to make money out of them. But its value is derived rather from the demoralization which seems inseparable from the contract system than from the competition with free labor. There is no good reason why a convict should not be made to do in confinement what he ought to have done when at liberty—produce something for sale by his labor. It is about as absurd to complain of the competition of men in jail for crime, as of the competition of bad men out of jail. Nothing releases a man from the duty of labor, and the State has no right to keep a healthy man from laboring, or to enforce idleness as a punishment, or to destroy useful commodities because the maker of them was a convict.

The meeting passed characteristically from convict labor to Mr. Lowell's "inactivity and cowardice" in dealing with the Irish "dungeon" trouble, and the President was requested to remove him at once. Curiously enough, no American Minister in London has ever got Irish Americans out of their dungeons in Ireland fast enough. All the Ministers have been "cowardly and inactive," probably because they felt we were not ready to back up their representations with war. But this excuse is rapidly passing away, for Professor Mezzerhoff, of this city, a Russian chemist, offers to destroy an $11,000,000 British man-of-war for $150, or to go to London, Paris, Berlin, Constantinople, or St. Petersburg, with twenty men, each carrying "an ordinary satchel," and in twenty-four hours destroy the city. It is consequently not necessary to speak timidly to Lord Granville about Irish dungeons, or allow any "rotting" to go on in them, because we appear to have no ironclad navy. We have Professor Mezzerhoff, and large numbers of men willing to go to any leading European capital with an ordinary satchel.

Of the several steamship subsidy bills before Congress the one to which Representative Money has given his name has been selected to be pushed through the Senate, if possible, as an amendment to the Post-office Appropriation Bill now before that body. It has, however, been ruled out of order. It grants $2,500,000 a year for the encouragement of American shipping. Ten years' contracts are to be made for foreign mail service, "after sixty days' advertisement, with the lowest bidders." As the ships must be American-built, it is hard to see where the "bidders" are to come from, unless they bid for merely paper ships sailing upon a paper ocean. There is only one line which could get ready to perform the contract, even in part, in sixty days —the "infant industry" of Philadelphia, which has just been turned off by its railroad foster-mother to shift for itself. If that line is prepared to do the work, it will receive, should this bill become a law, "three dollars per mile for each outward-bound voyage"—say $9,000 a trip to Liverpool. If weekly trips should be made, the company would get $468,000 a year. This amounts to a guarantee of between nine and ten per cent. on a capital of five millions. Perhaps men could be hired to float the flag for this money, but no genuine revival of our foreign carrying-trade can be effected in this way. The fundamental condition of business success is lacking—the capacity of the business to support itself.

Rossi, the tragedian, has been interviewed at Philadelphia with regard to the condition of the dramatic art in this country, and he frankly says that he thinks it in a bad way. He attributes its decadence to the practice of advertising dramatic art and artists "upon the fences in red letters," and insists that before it can reach a high level it must be taken away from "managers' greed" and "from the fences." The sight of the posters on the fences makes him, he says, "sick at heart." This is a feeling shared by few dramatic artists, most of whom, far from being made sick at heart by seeing the fences covered with their posters, are exhilarated and cheered and nerved to fresh efforts by the sight. In the palmy days of the Greek drama the stage was not afflicted by the abuse of which Rossi complains, but this was because the Athenians had few fences and knew nothing about advertising or posters. The use of the fence as a means of communicating ideas is a feature of modern life, just like steam and electricity and manufactures, and it is therefore as idle for Rossi to protest against posters as for Ruskin to proclaim that railroads and mills make him sick at heart. Another criticism made by Rossi is directed against his own manager, for making him act six times a week. The result of this has been that he is kept perpetually moving "from the hotel to the theatre, then back to the hotel and off to the depot." Acting requires inspiration, "and inspiration does not come from either the hotel, theatre, or depot." This is forcibly put, and throws a good deal of light on the character of the performances of many of our most successful travelling companies.

The Civil-Service Reform Association of Baltimore wrote to the new Collector of the Port, Mr. Webster, making inquiries as to his views touching the mode of appointment to office, and urging on him the adoption of competitive examinations. They got a very characteristic answer, which might be used as a common form on all similar occasions by those who like the spoils system, and mean to stick to it, but do not care to avow it. He opened by apologizing for his delay in answering on the ground that his time had been completely absorbed in doing the very thing the civil-service reformers want him to stop doing—namely, listening to persons seeking appointments for themselves and their friends. All the time thus spent was taken

away from his legitimate duties both as a citizen and a Collector. He then makes the customary expression made by all politicians of a desire "to elevate the standard, intellectual and moral, of the civil service of the country," but avoids dexterously saying what he means to do for that end. He frankly confesses, as if in reply to the civil-service reformers, that qualifications for office cannot be determined "by competitive examinations alone." But nobody says they can. What civil-service reformers propose is to ascertain by competitive examinations whether a man is fit for probation in the public service; and they maintain, and nobody ventures to deny, that for this purpose it is far more effective than boss nominations. Mr. Webster says that when he left his present office in 1869, there were 160 employees in the Custom-house, of whom only three remain, and he says the others want to get back to the places which they had "faithfully and efficiently filled," but from which they had been removed, evidently without cause, to make way for the present holders. It is in order to be able to make these wanton changes that politicians fight against competitive examination. They would not remove a faithful and efficient employee if they were not able to designate beforehand the person who should take his place.

Notwithstanding the official denial on this side of the water of the suspension of the negotiations for a copyright treaty, a despatch from London again states that there is no likelihood of any convention being satisfactorily concluded. The failure of the pending negotiations would be a matter for universal regret, because it would establish the present system of international piracy on a secure footing for many years to come, if not for ever. Nor is there any real excuse for its failure. The delay and trouble that have thus far arisen have come solely from the publishers insisting on confusing the question of authors' rights with protection to publishers. As the negotiations have gone on they have consequently tended less and less in the direction of a treaty to establish an international guarantee for literary property, and more and more in the direction of a trade agreement between the publishers in the United States, England, and Canada to prevent the manufacturers of books in each country from being injured in their business by the recognition of international copyright. If the publishers would consent to a treaty giving authors full right to their property without conditions of any kind, there would probably be no difficulty in arranging a convention. Some of the publishers are, we believe, beginning to see this. The failure of the present negotiations will do no American publishers any good except those engaged in piracy pure and simple.

The South American diplomatic inquiry had hardly begun before it produced a very amusing incident in the solemn decision of the Foreign Relations Committee, in secret session, that Shipherd should produce all his correspondence with public men, except members of Congress. This action was hinted to the committee by Shipherd himself, who on being called upon to produce the Peruvian Company correspondence, suggested that there were portions of it which members of Congress might not like to come out; or, in other words, that the letters implicated some of them in matters which if made public would do them no credit. The committee at once decided that they did not want to see any such letters; that what they wanted to know was only what the "other public men" had been doing. The idea of an inquiry into a scandal supposed to involve Congressmen under rules excluding all evidence relating to them, struck Mr. Belmont as being wrong in principle, however convenient to those involved, and on Thursday he introduced a resolution in the House requiring Shipherd to produce all his correspondence, and the resolution was adopted. The most remarkable feature of the whole transaction is that Shipherd and all the members of the committee preserved perfect gravity from first to last. Not a man among them all so much as smiled.

The effect of a notice that a husband will not be responsible for his wife's debts is well understood all over the world; but there is more difficulty in estimating the legal consequences of an advertisement warning managers against engaging wives for theatrical performances. Mr. Woods, whose wife has left him for the stage, has published an advertisement in the *Clipper* to the effect that managers engaging Mrs. Woods "will be prosecuted." This is not the only remedy either to which Mr. Woods proposes to resort. His advertisement continues: "She is between thirty and thirty-five years old, medium height, light eyes, brown hair, just turning a little gray, very slim build, weighing about ninety-five pounds, and when she last wrote home was playing in Ohio. She is recently reported to be in Iowa with a barn-storming show. Members of troupes in which she may be found are liable to have their baggage attached." An attachment of the baggage of the whole troupe, accompanied by a criminal prosecution of the manager, would probably cause serious trouble even in a "barn-storming show." It does not appear that Mr. Woods has taken legal advice. He has probably acted upon the ancient maxim of the common law, that there is no wrong without a remedy.

The interview of the Sultan with General Lew Wallace, reported by telegraph, in which the Sultan sought much information about America, "especially in regard to the judicial system and the mode of collecting taxes," shows that, though he has taken upon himself a larger share of the government than any of his predecessors within sixty years, he is also a student of comparative politics. His attention has doubtless been called of late to the likeness between his own administrative system and ours, which many European writers now point out. In the last *Revue des Deux Mondes* the author of an article on the financial condition of Turkey declares that the only civil service in the world which resembles the Turkish is that of the United States. These allusions have doubtless made the Sultan prick up his ears, and suggested to him that there are perhaps new modes of robbing taxpayers and defrauding the public creditor in use here of which he has not heard, and which he might readily adopt. General Wallace might, however, have politely assured him that we had nothing in this line worth his examination, except our system of winding up insurance companies in this State, and the old moiety system of detecting Custom-house frauds. Both of these would, however, seem to him very imperfect instruments. But we have a judge or two in this State whom we advise him to import at any reasonable expense, and a very choice lot of "receivers," who, we think, could teach even some of the older pashas a few useful wrinkles.

It is becoming more and more clearly recognized that the success of the Irish Land Bill is being seriously impeded by the fact that it offers no deliverance from the arrears of rent accumulated before it came into operation, whether through prolonged rack-renting or the losses of the three recent bad years. Evictions on account of these arrears are taking place all over the country in greater or less numbers, thus keeping up the irritation which the Act was expected to remove, and furnishing an excuse for the continuance of the outrages. It seems, of course, a mockery to allow a tenant to be ejected for non-payment in bad years of a rent which the courts stand ready to say he ought not to pay even in good years. How to deal with the matter it is, however, not easy to say. It is supposed the Government will not venture to interfere *ex post facto* with the operation of contracts, and the landlords half hope that it may undertake to pay the arrears out of the treasury, which is, however, still less likely.

The proclamation of Pierola, who is at work attempting to organize a government in Peru, is a remarkably sensible and moderate document for such a bloodthirsty tyrant (as he has been represented) to put forward. He insists that something must be done at once, and also that if it is to have any permanent value it must be the result of a general popular movement, and not the act of any of the irresponsible "barrack or intrigue-produced chieftains" now before the public. For himself, he declares it to be "indispensable" that he should not be at its head. "This would tend to maintain the personal policy it is so necessary should be destroyed, and would cause many to consider your patriotic labors as employed on behalf of my ambition." Either this is true, or else affairs in Peru have reached the point at which corruption and anarchy have made self-government of any kind impossible; in which case Pierola will probably be ready to take a sterner tone and have something further to say about the necessity of a strong government for those who are unable to produce one of their own. The Chilians are said to look with favor on Pierola's attempt, which suggests the probability that he is no longer a Crédit-Industriel man, or a Dreyfus man, but a true Peruvian patriot again, who longs for peace and a quiet life, with a regularly-paid salary under the old flag.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE Republican members of the House of Representatives held a caucus on Wednesday last with a view to agreeing on some concerted plan of action. It was finally decided to attempt to secure consideration of the Tariff Commission Bill under the present rules, but, if this should be found impracticable, that then the Republicans should at once take up the proposed amendments to the rules, and endeavor to secure their adoption. On Monday a motion to suspend the rules and adopt a resolution providing that when next the House should go into Committee of the Whole the Tariff Commission Bill should be considered, and that it should then be a continuing special order, was carried by a vote of 152 to 56. The probability is that the bill will be passed by a majority of fifty or sixty.

Several good speeches have been made in the House during the week on the Chinese Bill, notably one by Mr. Taylor, General Garfield's successor from the Nineteenth Ohio district, which is reported to have been "one of the ablest and most scholarly and philosophical speeches ever delivered in the House on the Chinese question."

On Wednesday, in the House, Mr. Money, of Mississippi, persisted in making a speech when he was out of order, whereupon Speaker Keifer, after vainly attempting to silence Mr. Money, said that hereafter when members tried to impose on the chair and the House, in defiance of the rules and of efforts to preserve order, the chair would at least take pains to reprimand them. This use of the word "reprimand" was resented by Mr. Money and his Democratic colleagues, who desired to know by what right the Speaker could "reprimand" any member without an order of the House. The Speaker insisted that he had the right, and a scene of much confusion ensued. Peace was restored on Thursday, however, by Speaker Keifer's explanation that he did not use the word "reprimand" in a "technical sense."

The Post-office and Fortifications Appropriation Bills have been passed by the Senate.

The Senate in executive session on Thursday afternoon unanimously ratified a declaration that the United States accede to the Geneva Convention of August 22, 1864, and October 20, 1868, "for the amelioration of the wounded of armies in the field," commonly known as the "Red Cross treaties."

On Thursday, in the Senate, the franking privilege for Congressmen was revived on a motion of Senator Edmunds, and carried as an amendment to the Post-office Appropriation Bill.

The Committee on Appropriations has submitted a voluminous report to the Senate, stating the result of the investigation of the Contingent Fund expenditures of the Treasury Department. The report cites testimony showing that the Treasury funds were used by persons who had Secretary Sherman's Presidential campaign in charge, and that Treasury employees worked on Mr. Sherman's premises on Government time. Mr. Sherman in his testimony denies positively having any knowledge of these matters, and was "mortified beyond expression" when he found it out.

The House Committee on Foreign Affairs has been engaged in investigating the various scandals connected with our diplomatic relations with Peru and Chili. Jacob R. Shipherd appeared before the Committee on March 15. He desired to know whether the order he had received to bring copies of all letters written to or received by him from "officials of the United States" was to be construed as meaning to include his correspondence with members of Congress as well as with officers of the State Department. An executive session of the committee was thereupon held, in which it was decided that only Mr. Shipherd's correspondence with "any United States Minister or officer of the State Department" should be produced. Mr. Shipherd promised to have copies of the correspondence ready by Saturday, and the committee adjourned until that day.

On Thursday Mr. Belmont offered a resolution, which was adopted by the House, calling upon Shipherd for copies of "*all* correspondence between himself and any person or persons whatsoever, and all other evidence in his possession tending to show what said Shipherd did, or attempted to do, to enforce the claims of the Peruvian Company, or to induce the United States to enfore those claims against Peru."

When the committee met again on Saturday the chairman read a letter from Mr. Shipherd, in which he said that he had been "prostrated by a very acute attack of malarial fever," and could not travel, but hoped to be able to appear before the committee on Tuesday morning.

Shipherd finally appeared before the committee on Tuesday, and gave some interesting testimony. He said that he addressed a letter to Mr. Hurlbut, suggesting that he and his friends might have $250,000 worth of stock in the Peruvian Company, and when asked by a member of the committee whether he "regarded Mr. Hurlbut as purchasable," he replied, "Most emphatically, and I dealt with him as I would with a recognized criminal, believing that if I did nothing to protect the company, he would antagonize it." Mr. Shipherd also testified that Senator Blair was engaged as his personal counsel not on account of his legal abilities, nor because he was a United States Senator, but simply because he was an intimate friend of Secretary Blaine's. Shipherd said he had had frequent interviews with Mr. Blaine, in which he had unfolded the whole scheme of the Peruvian Company, and that Mr. Blaine had listened with very great interest. Mr. Blaine finally asked him what he wanted done. Mr. Shipherd replied that he would ask but little of the United States Government at present. All he wanted was that the Government should give notice to both Peru and Chili that this claim was pending, and that therefore no Peruvian Government could innocently sell guano to outside parties. "That shall be my first business," replied Mr. Blaine.

On Friday Mr. Frelinghuysen transmitted to the House Committee on Foreign Affairs an explanation received from Mr. Morton in regard to his connection with the Crédit-Industriel contract. Mr. Morton says that he "has never at any time been associated with any business transaction needing or expecting the intervention of the United States"; that the contract was entered into by the banking house of Morton, Bliss & Co., in the ordinary course of their business, during Mr. Morton's absence, "and before his departure for his present post." Mr. Morton goes on to say that he has never used nor thought of using his official influence in any way whatsoever to further the objects of the contract with the Crédit Industriel.

On Saturday the Civil-Service Committee of the House appointed Representatives Curtin and Neal to confer with Colonel Dudley, Commissioner of Pensions, with reference to adopting the principles of civil-service reform in the additional appointments about to be made in the Pension Office. It was the unanimous opinion of the Committee that the "Additional Clerk Bill" should have engrafted upon it the principles of the reform in order to give it a full and impartial trial, and thus establish a base for further and more general legislation hereafter.

The majority and minority reports of the committee appointed to audit the expenses of the illness and funeral of President Garfield, have been prepared and will soon be presented to the House. The minority report will be presented by Mr. Blackburn, and will oppose the allowance made to the physicians and others by the majority. It is expected that there will be an opportunity to pass upon the items in the bill, some of which will be severely criticised.

Mr. Scoville has signified his intention of withdrawing from the Guiteau case, and Guiteau has written to Mr. W. A. Cook asking him to appear for him at the General Term. Mr. Cook has not yet replied.

Since the publication of Sergeant Mason's sentence, subscriptions have been started in various parts of the country with a view to raising a fund for the benefit of his family. In addition to this, many petitions to the President are being circulated to obtain a mitigation of his sentence to simple dismissal from the army, and the Legislatures of several States have passed resolutions to the same effect.

The author of the attack on President Garfield, which appeared some days ago in the Washington *Post*, has written another letter in reply to his critics, and signed it with his true name, which is William Brown. He was a delegate from Kentucky to the Chicago Convention, in which he supported Blaine, but he is said to be a "Stalwart," and to have "greatly preferred Grant."

Colonel William A. Cook has withdrawn from the prosecution of the Star-route suits. On Sunday his letter of resignation was made public. He says that he was strongly inclined to retire from the cases after the death of President Garfield, but that he was induced to remain because he had good reason to believe that it was supposed that his retirement might interfere with the finding of indictments in certain of the cases. Mr. Cook goes on to say that he found, however, that his relation to the cases had become essentially changed; that the indictments which have been found have been "chiefly in the cases selected by Mr. Bliss"; but that "whether the strongest and most important cases have been included in the indictments is not for me to determine."

Attorney-General Brewster replied in rather a sharp letter, in which he expressed surprise at Mr. Cook's action, and said that he could see no necessity for it. Mr. Cook and Mr. Bliss have both been "interviewed" on the matter, and from Mr. Cook's statements it would appear that he thinks he has been intentionally slighted by the other gentlemen engaged in the prosecution with a view to forcing him to withdraw.

At a meeting of the Cabinet on Tuesday the case of Cadet Whittaker was taken up, and the sentence of dismissal from the service imposed by the court-martial was disapproved on the ground that the technical evidence taken at the trial was improperly introduced. This action sustains the opinion of the Judge-Advocate-General. Whittaker will therefore be released from arrest, but he will be dismissed from the Military Academy, as provided by the Revised Statutes, on account of his having been found deficient in his studies.

President Arthur will give his first public reception on the evening of March 28.

The President has approved the joint resolution appropriating $150,000 for the benefit of the sufferers from the Mississippi floods.

The President has signed the commissions of John Russell Young to be Minister to China and Cornelius Logan to be Minister to Chili.

Judge Blatchford has accepted the Associate Justiceship of the Supreme Court, and on Monday the Senate Judiciary Committee unanimously agreed to report the nomination back to the Senate, with a recommendation that it be confirmed.

Despatches from the Mississippi Valley report the suffering in the overflowed districts to be still very great, although supplies are being distributed and assistance of all kinds rendered as fast as possible. The river has been falling slightly during the week. The Yazoo district is at present the scene of the greatest suffering. The water from the Mississippi and the back water from the Yazoo river meet and form dangerous whirlpools,

which destroy everything in their course. One of these whirlpools struck a church a few days ago, and tore it to pieces in a few minutes. Apart from the mere suffering from want of food and exposure, the loss of life from drowning has been very considerable.

The Democratic Senatorial Campaign Committee have elected Senator Davis chairman of the Committee.

The Iroquois Club of Chicago gave a dinner on Wednesday to celebrate the anniversary of Andrew Jackson's birthday. A number of prominent Democrats were present, who delivered speeches, and letters and telegrams were read from others who were unable to attend.

The leading Independents of Georgia held a caucus in Atlanta, on Monday, and formulated an address to the people, urging the formation of a new party, and calling for a mass meeting of all Georgia Independents, to meet in Atlanta on June 1.

The trial of fifty-eight oyster pirates, captured by Governor Cameron's recent military expedition off the mouth of the Rappahannock River, was concluded in the County Court of Matthews county, Va., on Friday. The men were sentenced to one year's imprisonment in the penitentiary, and the fleet of seven depredatory vessels was confiscated to the State.

A great strike is in progress in Lawrence, Mass. Over three thousand operatives of the Pacific mills in that city have struck on account of a reduction in their wages.

Secretary Hunt has received a report, dated Yakutsk, Siberia, January 6, 1882, from Engineer Melville, of the *Jeannette*, in which he recounts the events subsequent to the dispersion of the three boats of the *Jeannette* on the night of September 12, 1881. He is now engaged in searching for Lieutenant De Long and his party, whom he believes, from his knowledge of the country and the evidence of two of the first cutter's crew who had been sent ahead on the 9th of October by De Long to seek relief, and were found on the 2d of November by him, to be somewhere to the westward of the Lena, in a large tract of barren and desolate country devoid of subsistence. To search this region, Mr. Melville says, will require a large force, with proper authority from the Russian Government. In the course of his search for De Long, which he commenced on the 5th of November, Engineer Melville found three records, which had been left in huts at various points of his route by De Long. The first two are dated at a hut on the Lena Delta, September 19, 22, and 24, and the last one was found in another hut by a Yakutsk hunter, and is dated October 1. In this last record De Long says his party consists of fourteen, and that, as they have been fortunate enough to get game in their pressing needs, they have no fear for the immediate future, and that they are all well except one man, whose toes have been amputated in consequence of frost bites.

FOREIGN.

The debate on the proposed new rules of Parliamentary procedure was resumed in the House of Commons on Monday evening. Mr. Gladstone stated that he would move the first seven and the last two rules to be standing orders. The Marquis of Hartington, Secretary of State for India, said that the *clôture* proposed was nothing more than a modification of the existing restrictions on debates, and that the probable effect of the resolution had been greatly exaggerated. The Government was unable, under the present system, to carry on the business of the country with dignity and effect. If other persons thought they could do so, the Ministry would with pleasure resign, but so long as the Ministry remained responsible, they must appeal to the House to give them those powers which alone are sufficient for the conduct of business.

A meeting of the Conservative members of Parliament was held at the Carlton Club on Friday to consider the *clôture* resolution. The meeting was private, but it is understood that Sir Stafford Northcote expressed a desire to oppose *clôture* to the utmost; his willingness to vote for Mr. Marriott's amendment to the proposed Parliamentary rules, which provides that no rules shall be considered satisfactory which will enable a bare majority to close a debate; and a desire to conclude the discussion before Easter. Those present heartily coincided with his views. The Conservative leaders incidentally laid great stress on the necessity of dealing with the utmost caution with matters relating to Ireland.

Mr. Charles Russell's memorial in favor of revising the clauses in the Land Act having reference to arrears of rent has been signed by more than 100 members of Parliament, and fifty Liberal members have signed a memorial in favor of more leniency toward the imprisoned "suspects."

The electors of Northampton have held a meeting, at which they passed resolutions approving Mr. Bradlaugh's conduct in the House of Commons, and authorizing the Executive of the Liberal and Radical Union to sign a petition to the House, praying that he may be heard at the bar in support of their claim of the right to be represented in the House by speech and vote of duly elected members.

In the House of Commons on Friday evening a motion offered by Mr. Gorst, praying that the Queen revoke or alter so much of the charter of the British North-Borneo Association as gives implied sanction to slavery, was rejected by a vote of 125 to 62. Mr. Gladstone stated that he had assumed the responsibility of granting the charter, and that if the company failed to abolish slavery, the Government would revoke it.

The Berlin correspondent of the *St. James's Gazette* wrote on Wednesday that the Russian representatives at the German Courts have been instructed to tender to the respective Governments to which they are accredited demonstrative assurances that the Czar is firmly resolved to maintain amicable relations with Germany. Notwithstanding such statements as the above, however, various threatening rumors have been circulated in regard to the relations between Germany and Austria and Russia. On Thursday it was telegraphed from Berlin that Austria had finally determined to annex Bosnia and Herzegovina, and that during his recent visit Count von Wolkenstein made overtures to Prince Bismarck concerning the question, and that the latter favors such annexation, and has been using considerable pressure to induce the Porte to acquiesce. This statement was subsequently contradicted, but it is nevertheless probable that there was good foundation for it. It is said that there is a general understanding between Germany and Austria jointly to resist a Russian attack on either power, and that an arrangement of details for immediate action, should it be necessary, has been made.

It is impossible to discover with certainty what the Czar said to Skobeleff in his "reprimand," or what Skobeleff said in reply. There are numerous versions of the matter, and the latest is that "General Skobeleff, replying to the Czar's serious reprimand in relation to his speech in Paris, pleaded in excuse that he did not know himself what he said."

A London despatch from Copenhagen says that the Czar has received convincing proofs that the Nihilists are determined to abandon their policy of assassination, and that Imperial clemency will consequently be extended to political prisoners.

The committee of twenty-two of the French Chamber of Deputies, appointed to examine M. Boysset's proposal for abolishing the Concordat, is reported to be, with the exception of two of its members, opposed to the measure. M. Paul Bert has been elected president of the committee.

The French Government has introduced a bill in the Chamber of Deputies allowing witnesses in law courts, instead of taking the oath before God, to promise on their honor and conscience to speak the truth.

M. Léon Say, French Minister of Finance, has submitted to the Chambers a demand for a grant of 8,000,000 francs to defray the expenses of the expedition to Tunis for the first quarter of 1882.

A despatch from Tunis announces that a plan for a forty days' campaign in southern Tunis has been agreed upon, and the various movements will commence in the course of a week. Three columns of troops will advance from three different points. It is desired to inflict a signal defeat on the Arabs close to the Turkish camps on the Tunisian frontier, as it is thought that nothing else will disabuse their minds of the hope of Turkish aid

A despatch to the London *Times* says that in consequence of a pressing inquiry by England, the Bey of Tunis has admitted the cession of all the principal Esparto grass districts to French capitalists. The value of the exports from these districts is estimated at 6,250,000 francs a year. It is said that M. Roustan used "great pressure" with the Bey to induce him to make the cession.

In the Greek Chamber of Deputies on Thursday M. Tricoupis, the new Prime Minister, in reading the programme of the new Government, said the country must be prepared for the coming changes in the East, and that amicable relations must be maintained with every country, especially with Turkey.

General Wallace, United States Minister at Constantinople, had an audience with the Sultan on Friday and dined with him on Saturday.

The press in Berlin severely criticises the appointment of Mr. Sargent as Minister to Germany, and comments on the "impropriety" of appointing such a successor to men like Bancroft, Taylor, and White.

Señor Sagasta, President of the Spanish Council, at a meeting of his supporters on Sunday, dwelt on the necessity of discipline in order to effect, before the close of the financial year, a complete change in the commercial and colonial policy of Spain; to infuse a spirit of toleration into civil and penal legislation; to improve Spain's relations with her colonies and the foreign nations who are desirous of an extension of commercial intercourse.

A meeting of Spanish Conservatives was held on Saturday to decide upon their conduct during the forthcoming session of the Cortes. Señor Canovas del Castillo, who presided, said the party would continue to attack the policy of the Government, but was not blindly opposed to reforms. The chief point of attack upon the Government would be in regard to the new tax laws.

At a meeting of Democrats in Madrid on Sunday, Señor Martos presiding, it was decided to make special efforts to induce the Government to carry out the Liberal reforms.

Advices from Buenos Ayres to February 24th state that Mr. Walker Blaine was about to resign his mission and would return to the United States with Mr. Trescot. A protocol has been signed at Santiago in which Chili declares that she meant no offence to the United States by the arrest of Señor Calderon, while on the other hand Mr. Trescot repudiates Mr. Hurlbut's action as offensive to Chili. The Chilian Government declares that it will not treat with Señor Calderon, and will make peace only on the following conditions: the cession of Tarapaca in perpetuity; the occupation of Peru as far as Moquegua until an indemnity of $20,000,000 is paid, and the possession of half the guano islands of Peru. Mr. Trescot agreed to these conditions and forwarded a copy of them to Washington.

Advices from Rio de Janeiro state that rain has fallen in torrents during the last six weeks, doing great damage to the railways, and destroying several towns.

TUESDAY, March 21, 1882.

THE MASON CRAZE.

THE movement in favor of the pardon of Mason, the soldier who fired at Guiteau, whether it finds expression in a petition with 20,000 signatures or with 500,000, as is threatened, is a symptom of relaxation of the moral fibre which is anything but pleasant. If it indicated widespread disease—which we do not think it does—it would make the epithet law-abiding inapplicable to the American people. It was quite natural that people should wish to see Guiteau killed. This is what every one wishes who desires to see the sentence lately pronounced on him carried into effect. That sentence was death, and all those who approve of capital punishment and do not believe him insane think he deserves death. But then one of the most marked differences between a civilized and a barbarous community is, that, in the former, private citizens abstain from killing those whom they think ought to be killed. They do this for two reasons. One is a moral one. They know that appearances are deceptive, and that many a man may appear to deserve killing who would, on proper inquiry, turn out to deserve nothing of the kind, and they know that private individuals have not the means of making proper inquiry. The other reason is social. They know that if private persons were allowed to kill off all those whom they considered unfit to live, there would be so many executions that the population would be considerably diminished, and a state of terror would be produced in no way differing from anarchy. Sentence of death would frequently be passed, perhaps even in a majority of cases, by personal enemies, by expectant heirs, by rivals in business, and by insolvent debtors.

The very first step in the organization of a political community, therefore, is the relegation of the duty of killing people to the officers of the law. No community in which this has not been done is civilized, or moral, or religious, or anything else that is respectable. In some parts of the West it has only been imperfectly done. The law does some of the needful killing, but parties of lynchers do the rest, the law being too feeble to do the whole work. But then the communities in which these things occur are more or less barbarous. They may have pianos, billiard tables, good restaurants, Aubusson carpets, and water on every floor, but they want the one thing needful—government strong enough to do all their killing for them. All other parts of the country are shocked and scandalized by their condition. No one would like to have the United States confess that they were not competent to catch their own criminals, or competent to punish their criminals after they had caught them, and had to call in lynchers to help their own officers to give murderers and robbers their due.

The one pleasant and gratifying thing about the Guiteau case was the patience with which the people submitted to what was really a very revolting trial, because it was a legal proceeding. It was the one thing with which hostile foreign critics found it difficult to deal, because the reproach which has always been hitherto levelled against the American people, touching their mode of repressing crime, has been that they were apt either to let it go unpunished or to punish it by irregular methods. The perfect calm with which the public watched the officers of the law pursuing an inquiry of extraordinary tediousness into the commission of a crime which had created unprecedented excitement, did more than neutralize the scandal produced by the mode in which the trial was conducted. It showed that the public could wait, or, in other words, was as law-abiding and time-abiding a public as any in the world.

The credit reflected by this attitude was not diminished in the least by Mason's attempt on Guiteau's life. It was the act of one man, who might have been drunk, or crazy, or in some manner off his balance. Where it begins to touch the national reputation is at the point where the public begins to express itself about the manner in which the military authorities are dealing with Mason. His trying to kill a prisoner whom he had in charge, could not possibly be more praiseworthy than a spectator's trying to do so in the court-room. It is only by looking at a soldier's duty from the *bouffe* point of view that his attempt can be considered no more blameworthy. If there be any value in faithfulness to trusts, in the sanctity of an oath, in the obligation of service voluntarily undertaken, Mason did a far worse thing than a man in the streets who tried to lynch Guiteau would have done. He did nearly the basest thing a soldier can do. He disregarded all the moralities which distinguish a soldier from an armed ruffian. He put himself in the position of a profligate clergyman, or an embezzling cashier, or a drunken temperance lecturer. In taking him up, therefore, as an object of sympathy, and trying to depreciate the authority of those who have punished him, and exalt the quality of his act, his admirers do far more than express their detestation of Guiteau. They help to belittle the very virtues which do most to keep society together, and palliate the loose way of looking at social obligations of which Guiteau's career was a very striking illustration. In fact, the moral atmosphere which Mason's friends would fain create, and diffuse through the country, is the one which produces Guiteaus by breeding in them the faithlessness and wilfulness which instigated his offence. Once propagate the Mason way of looking at duty, and we shall have an Army of cranks, who will not always shoot at the man who deserves death, or prove false to obligations which are of but little importance to the community.

THE FIRST YEAR OF ALEXANDER III.

ON March 13 (March 1, O. S.) Czar Alexander III. repaired to his capital, to pay a solemn tribute to the memory of his father, on the first anniversary of the latter's assassination. In the evening he returned, unharmed, to Gatchina. Mournful as the occasion was, he must have felt thankful that he had safely passed the first Ides of March of his own reign. When he ascended the throne, at the foot of which lay the mangled body of his father, the chances of reigning a whole year must have appeared to him poor indeed. A year has passed, and Alexander III. still lives, his throne stands, and autocracy is still the law of the Empire. This is, however, all that the new Czar can congratulate himself upon when looking back on the twelvemonth which h has survived. No catastrophe has taken place —no catastrophe has *yet* taken place: this is all. The Empire, himself, and autocracy are one year older. Is the future of either more secure to-day than it was a year ago? Has Nihilism been stamped out, discontent allayed, harmony between the throne and the nation created? Is the third Alexander more beloved than the second? Does he trust in the people, or the people in him? Does either trust in his counsellors? Has any initiative been taken for a new course? Has a new line of policy been marked out, or foreshadowed? Has the attachment of the people, of a single class of the nation, been won by firmness, wisdom, liberalism, or moderation? Unfortunately, all these questions must be emphatically answered in the negative. Everything is as it was on March 13, 1881: the same bloody past, a present full of terror and evil forebodings, a future hid in darkness. Worse than that, a new reign has been tried and has been found wanting; there is one hope less.

When Alexander III. succeeded his father a scaffold had to be erected beside the new throne. Even if wisdom counselled generous forgiveness, decency prevented it. The father, the Emancipator, had to be avenged. The spectacle was intended to be horrid and horrifying: it became tragically grand. Zhelyaboff and his associates, standing under the gallows, appeared to the people of St. Petersburg, not like wretches whom society chastises and casts out with loathing, but like self-sacrificing avengers of oppressed generations; like heroic, though perhaps misguided, precursors in a struggle for freedom—a struggle which the blind obstinacy of Czardom rendered both unavoidable and awful. The shadow of a new gallows falls upon the close of the year, and there is no change of sentiment. A score of conspirators have just received their sentences—half of them to die by the hand of the executioner—and, though the public, this time, was not admitted to the trial, the general feeling is that Trigonya, Sukhanoff, Anna Yakimova, etc., are not vile malefactors either, but men and women who cheerfully give their lives for the cause of freedom, and that their blood will be the seed of fresh martyrdoms. It is true that the crimes now to be expiated are not of very recent date, and the hecatomb is still intended for the manes of Alexander II.; but new attempts and new murders have also taken place, new plots are daily pointed out by the vigilant guardians of the court, and the court is still hiding at Gatchina. Surrounded by bayonets, Alexander III. occasionally dares to show himself for a few hours to the people of St. Petersburg, and he has also paid a flying visit to the old capital of his Empire, Moscow. So much he must do in order to avoid the dangerous reproach of cowardice; to do more

would be recklessness. The coronation is indefinitely delayed from fear of bullets and dynamite.

Reforms of a liberal character were hoped for at the beginning of the new reign. The late Czar was believed to have taken, shortly before his death, the first steps toward instituting a parliamentary régime. His trusted adviser, Loris-Melikoff, on whom he had bestowed almost dictatorial power, was universally credited with the inclination to initiate the change, and the necessary energy to carry it through. The Grand Duke Constantine Nikolayevitch favored this transformation. The influence of the new Emperor's Danish consort was also counted in its favor. The Ministers of War and Finance, Dmitri Milyutin and Abaza, that old Liberal, Valuyeff, and Shuvaloff, who knew both Russia and Western Europe well from long experience, would have become staunch supporters of constitutionalism. But Alexander III. had imbibed different notions in his youth; he was an admirer, and to a degree a disciple, of Ivan Aksakoff, the most impassioned apostle of Slavophilism, and of his friend Katkoff, whose Moscow *Gazette* had dethroned Hertzen, and daily preached contempt for parliamentarism in the West-European shape. He shuddered at the idea of a Russian assembly of notables or states-general, which would take the reins of government out of his hand, and most probably lead his people, by rapid steps, from revolution to anarchy and terrorism, and himself and his house, like Louis XVI. and his house, to the block. He clung to autocracy, supported by bayonets and the loyalty of the peasantry, as the only anchor of salvation. The advice of the Moscow party prevailed, and Ignatieff, who had betrayed Alexander II. into the war of 1877 and was removed from his councils after Plevna and again after the Congress of Berlin, became the Ahitophel of the young monarch. Scarcely two months had elapsed under the new sceptre when Abaza, Milyutin, and Loris-Melikoff resigned, and an imperial manifesto proclaimed to the nation and the world that the new Czar was determined to preserve absolute autocracy intact and unimpaired. The nation was to remain without a share in the government; only the peasant, emancipated by Alexander II., was to be benefited by further alleviations of his burdens, and the Orthodox Church and the nobility were to be the main pillars of the throne. Such men as the arch-conservative nationalist Vorontzoff-Dashkoff and the orthodox zealot Pobyedonostzeff were called into the Cabinet. Ignatieff succeeded Loris-Melikoff as the all-powerful Minister of the Interior. Reforms on a small scale were promised, and numerous commissions for special purposes were appointed—to report at some future day, which few have as yet done, and only one with effect. The provincial assemblies, long curtailed of their privileges, were condemned to silence; political offences were entirely withdrawn from the jurisdiction of the regular tribunals; the press was muzzled more rigorously than ever; and the hunt of revolutionists was unremittingly and mercilessly continued. This condition of affairs, too, has outlived the first year of the new reign.

In the last days of Loris-Melikoff's administration—when his position was already completely undermined and his power but nominal—an atrocious popular persecution of the Jews broke out in Ukraine, a province in which recollections of massacres of Poles and Jews, such as Chmielnicki and his revolted Cossacks, committed in 1648, and Gonta and his Cossacks in 1766, are still alive in the memory of a fanatically superstitious people, prone to race hatred and sudden outbursts of ferocity. The outbreak, which rapidly spread over the adjoining parts of southern Russia, was probably spontaneous, many minds being wildly agitated by anarchical passions after the assassination of Alexander III.; but it was soon fomented by low agitators of the Panslavic school, always anxious to fan the flame of national animosity against the non-Russian, as well as by the more unscrupulous of the nihilistic foes of the Government, equally anxious to stir up the people and bring about, by whatever means, a collision with the soldiery. The provincial authorities, waiting for orders from the capital, and not knowing in which direction the wind was going to blow there, looked on with folded arms. On Ignatieff devolved the task of putting a stop to widespread desolation, and preventing the recurrence of the atrocities. The disorders were slowly suppressed, perpetrators of heinous crimes were punished with a paternal leniency in strange contrast with the Government's sanguinary proceedings against political disturbances, and a commission was appointed to investigate—what? the guilt of the Jews in provoking the disorders. New restrictions upon them were to be decreed. It was evident that Ignatieff and his friends saw in the outbreak a useful diversion of the agitated public mind, and in the religious and national fanaticism which had a share in prompting it, a lever for moving the orthodox Russian masses against "the heathen" in the "Vistula Land," and the Ruthenian masses in adjacent Galicia, whenever the hour for action abroad should strike.

For action abroad is, there can be hardly a doubt, the main reliance for the future of Ignatieff and his Slavophil supporters. A vigorous and warlike Panslavic propaganda—revolutionary and fierce, if so it must be—is alone capable of giving a new direction to the aspirations and wild yearnings of the Russian people, of turning away from their internal subversive schemes the bulk of the reckless young generation, of creating a new interest in the crowned head of the nation, thus transformed into a leading champion in a revolutionary crusade against Teutons, Magyars, and Turks. Had such a policy been pursued at all hazards in 1878, they argue, Vera Zasulitch would not have achieved her triumph as a Russian Charlotte Corday, nor Solovieff fired his pistol at Alexander II.; the explosion under the Moscow Railway, the Winter Palace explosion, and the catastrophe of March 13 would not have taken place; the Tchernayeffs and Skobeleffs, instead of the Zhelyaboffs, would be the models of patriotic youth; the Sophia Perovskis, instead of working in mines to be charged with regicidal dynamite, would nurse Russian heroes in field hospitals. The struggle would be long and all-absorbing, and even if it were not to end in the regeneration of effete Europe through Russian blood—a regeneration for which Ignatieff himself has no particular desire—it would surely lead to a reconciliation between the Czar and his faithful people, would bury in oblivion the nihilistic theories of Bakunin and Tchernyshevski, and long keep the Moscow party and its chosen instrument in power.

So far, so good. But as long as the alliance of Germany and Austria-Hungary—called into life by Bismarck—lasts in all its strength, and France, distracted by parliamentary strifes and self-invited African troubles, is unable or unwilling to risk a new grapple with Germany in alliance with Russia, nothing is left to Russian statesmanship but temporizing, the cautious trying of makeshifts, and a tentative advancing, alternating with prudent retreats. Germany must not be definitively provoked, for she might now in a short campaign disastrously defeat Russia, force her to an ignominious peace, and thus ruin the prestige of her dynasty forever. Austria-Hungary must not be assailed, because Germany is determined on preserving her as her ally. Only secret intrigues against her in the Balkan peninsula, like those which led to the Herzegovinian revolt in 1875, to Servia's war, under Tchernayeff's command, in 1876, and finally to Russian intervention in 1877, can be attempted. Czar Alexander III. must go to Dantzic to renew the old friendship of the Romanoffs with the Hohenzollerns. He must keep the peace-loving Giers in the Foreign Office while old Gortschakoff is rusticating. He must frown upon the aggressive utterances of Skobeleff at the celebration of the anniversary of the capture of Gök Tepe.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE CITY OF BERLIN.—I.

If to love light rather than darkness is an indication of good conduct, the government of the city of Berlin must be most excellent. Those to whom it is intrusted appear to take satisfaction in exposing their every act to the widest public. Account is rendered to the whole world of expenses and receipts to the last pfennig, of the motives which have guided the authorities in their past actions, of their future plans, and of their methods; the names, addresses, and functions of all concerned in the administration of the city are published; the citizens are instructed in the city constitution, the relations of city to state, and the changes which the city fathers think desirable.

In the 'Personal-Nachweisung der Berliner Gemeinde-Verwaltung,' information is given in the fewest words concerning the location, purposes, and officers of every city institution, as well as the names and duties of all those who in any way take part in governing the city. It is to the city what a register or catalogue is to a university or college. Like the other publications of the city, it may be purchased of any book-dealer for a moderate price. The Director of the Statistical Bureau of the city publishes every year 'Das Statistische Jahrbuch der Stadt Berlin.' This contains the city's annals expressed in figures. It is to the city much the same as a well-kept diary would be to an individual, if the events it described were arranged and classified at the close of the year. It is a work of scientific value,

which shows in a surprising manner how much useful, curious, and at the same time highly interesting information can be conveyed in tables of figures. But the most valuable of all the city's publications are the reports of the magistracy. Four of these reports have been published. The first, appearing in the year 1842, described the administration from 1829 to 1840; the second, appearing in 1853, embraced the years 1841 to 1850; the third, published in 1863, treated of the decade from 1851 to 1860. The fourth report is the one of which we shall treat in this article.

The preface to the Report on the Administration of the City of Berlin, from 1861 to 1876 inclusive, describes the motives which have led the magistracy to publish it. It is hoped that it will be useful to the authorities of other cities, inasmuch as it furnishes the means of comparing different methods of striving for the same goal. It aims, further, to instruct citizens and officers who have only lately begun to take a part in the government of the city, in the work which has been already accomplished by the several branches of the administration, and to point out clearly the yet unsolved problems which arise from the concentration of a great number of men within comparatively narrow limits. The concluding paragraph of the preface to the third volume shows how clearly the city fathers have conceived the central idea of good government, and how earnestly they are endeavoring to fulfil their duty toward the city. They state that they have written a report which will find, they trust, numerous readers among the citizens—those who are simply voters as well as office-holders—and will lead to a better understanding of municipal affairs in wide circles, since the success of the future administration of the city depends to a great extent upon the earnestness and intelligence with which the Berlinese interest themselves in city institutions, and the fidelity with which they discharge their functions as citizens. Such openness and honest sincerity on the part of city authorities impress one who, like the writer, is a New Yorker, with a strange feeling of unreality. In fact, in reading many parts of this admirable report, one finds it difficult not to believe that it is a description of some city government in Utopia. Can the New Yorker realize the fact that there is a city where the streets are kept clean at a moderate cost, and the work done between midnight and morning so as not to interfere with traffic; where snow and ice are removed from the highways thoroughly and with despatch;* where the streets are well paved or are being paved, and in such solid, substantial manner that it seems as if the pavement must last for generations; where the city is well lighted without any gas-company quarrels; where the city gas works are so well managed that they yield a surplus equal to nearly a tenth of the net revenue of the city from all sources; where there are no rings; where there are no defalcations or thefts on the part of city officials; where there are no fat contracts: where there are no street-paving jobs and no neglected parks? Although a New Yorker might smile incredulously at the statement, there are such cities, and Berlin is one of them. A study of the administration of Berlin may assist us in discovering means to abolish the misrule to which we are subjected.

It can scarcely be more difficult to govern New York than Berlin. Both cities are of nearly the same size and both have grown rapidly. In 1829 Berlin had a population of 242,000; in 1876, one of 979,860†—an increase of over three hundred per centum. The entire expenses of administering the city were 2,317,656 marks* in 1829; in 1876, 34,740,245 marks—an increase of over thirteen hundred per centum. It is naturally a far more difficult task to keep Berlin clean and healthful than it is New York. Berlin is situated on a low, sandy plain. The Spree, with its numerous natural or artificial branches, surrounds the greater part of the city, but its banks are flat and the stream is sluggish. It carries off little dirt, and is more likely to do harm by becoming stagnant in summer than to aid in keeping the city pure. On the other hand, no city could, from a sanitary point of view, be more favorably situated than New York—on a long, narrow island, with shores sloping toward swift-flowing water, while the fresh air from the Bay drives away foul gases arising from decaying vegetable and animal matter. Berlin has had its peculiar trials to counterbalance the evils with which New York has to contend in its ignorant foreign population. Early in this century, it was suffering under French occupation, which was succeeded by the burdens of the War of Liberation. When Berlin obtained anew a considerable degree of self-government in 1808, the public spirit of the citizens had been nearly crushed by the long rule of Prussian absolutism. This is said in order to make it clear that a comparison between the government of Berlin and that of New York is not unfair.

German cities and towns occupy theoretically and, to a limited extent, practically somewhat the same position with regard to the state Government that our States do with reference to the Federal Government at Washington. The German "Gemeinde," *i.e.*, the commune or local political body, is often older than the state of which it is a constituent part. Once possessing sovereign rights, it now retains all that it has not given up voluntarily or otherwise. But the time when there were numerous independent and sovereign villages and cities in Germany lies away back in the Middle Ages. The ill use which many communes made of their liberty, the evils unavoidably resulting from innumerable independent political bodies of small size, and the necessities of modern life led to the triumph of a central state Government. The reaction against absolute local independence was carried too far. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the absolutism of the German princes was able to deprive the communes of almost all power of self government. The mistake which had been made in crushing public spirit in that place where it was most likely to manifest itself, was recognized by Freiherr vom Stein, when the Prussian state lay in ruins as a result of the Napoleonic wars. It then became evident that the subjects had lost interest in a government in which they took no part. One of Stein's most important steps in the work of regenerating Prussia was the *Städteordnung* of 1808. The Städteordnung may be called the constitution of the cities. It contains the fundamental laws which guide them in framing their statutes, ordinances, and regulations. Although the Städteordnung of 1808 has been superseded by others, it has become the basis of Prussian municipal law. There are several Städteordnungen now in Prussia. In the six eastern provinces, including Berlin and the greater part of the state, the existing Städteordnung is that of May 30, 1853. Its main features are in harmony with Stein's Städteordnung and those which prevail in other parts of the monarchy. In describing the administration of Berlin, we are giving account of the general principles of municipal government in Prussia, and in fact in Germany.

The government of Berlin might be called republican with an aristocratic tendency. How republican it is may be seen by comparing it with the government of those three German cities which are at the same time republican states—viz., Lübeck, Bremen, and Hamburg, which are governed much in the same manner. Although these are republican, their position is different from that of an American State from the fact that the confederation to which they belong is an empire. In the right of suffrage the empire is more democratic than Berlin and other Prussian cities: in the former, universal suffrage obtains; in the latter, the right of voting depends upon qualifications. Every male inhabitant of Berlin who is a Prussian and twenty-four years of age is a voter, provided (1) he has lived in the city one year; (2) is not dependent upon a father or a guardian, but has his own household (*einen eigenen Hausstand*) and enjoys control over his own property; (3) has for a year received no alms from public funds; (4) has paid all his municipal taxes during the last year; and (5, *a*) possesses a house, or (*b*) pursues a trade with two employees, or (*c*) pays an income tax—which implies an income of $750 (3,000 marks), or (*d*) pays a class tax (*Klassensteuer*) of $1 50 (6 marks), which would probably include all whose income exceeded $150.

While these regulations exclude paupers and dependents, they would scarcely prevent any industrious, independent laborer from voting. In 1876 there were 145,903 voters in a population of 979,860. In 1874 there were 118,302 who had the right to vote in municipal elections, while 136,052 inhabitants of Berlin enjoyed the right of voting in the Imperial elections. The difference is, after all, considerable, amounting to nearly 18,000, or over thirteen per centum. Perhaps the problem of governing New York would be an easier one if thirteen per centum of the poorest and most dependent voters were disfranchised. The advantage of the regulations in Berlin is that they exclude no class, save the class of paupers, dependents, and vagabonds. Every honest, industrious laborer has his vote. The German theory is that the interests of municipal freedom require caution in granting the suffrage. The politically dangerous elements are so strong in cities, that an increased state control might otherwise become unavoidable.

There exists, however, in Berlin as in other Prussian cities, an arrangement which gives to the wealthy greater influence than to the poor. The voters are divided into three classes according to the taxes they pay. The highest taxpayers are placed in the first class. This begins with the citizen who pays the highest tax, and ends when enough of the most considerable taxpayers are included, so that the sum total of the taxes they pay is equal to one third of all the taxes paid by all the citizens of the municipality. The second class begins where the first leaves off, and goes far enough down to include the second third of the entire tax. The remaining citizens form the third class. Each class elects the same number of representatives to the municipal assembly, and each has, consequently, the same influence in the city government, since all the power of the voters is exercised through their representatives. In 1876, a trifle over 2.5 per centum of the voters paid one third of the taxes, and consequently belonged to the first class. About seven per centum of the voters paid the second third of the entire tax, and belonged to the second class. Some ninety per centum of the citizens belonged to the third class, and in municipal government had in consequence only half the influence of the ten per centum of the voters comprising the two upper classes.

* The writer has already described the methods and expenses of street cleaning in Berlin in an article published in the *Evening Post*, April 6, 1881.

† The population in 1880 was 1,118,630.

* A mark is $0.238.

THE QUARREL OF LORDS AND COMMONS OVER THE IRISH LAND ACT.

LONDON, March 7-9, 1882.

WE have just experienced another of those sudden storms which now sweep so often over the troubled sea of English politics; and, like most of our storms, it had its origin in the west—that is, in Ireland. It was not, however, due to those from whom disturbances are usually expected—the Irish National party—but, on the contrary, to the Irish landlords, or, as they call themselves, the English garrison in Ireland. They were, of course, extremely annoyed by the passing of the Land Act of last session, which they accepted only because there seemed no hope of resistance, and because it opened up a prospect of their getting some part of their rents paid, even if less than they had hitherto claimed. When the Act began to be put in force this winter, when the Judges of the Land Court, with their Assistant Commissioners, set to work to fix rents all over Ireland, they watched the proceedings first with anxious curiosity, then with alarm, lastly with rage. In the great majority of cases rents have been reduced, sometimes as much as twenty-five or thirty per cent. Such a reduction of course means much more than it seems to mean, because the landlord usually has to pay the interest on mortgages, and other charges, portions for younger children, and so forth, out of the gross rental, so that what he keeps for himself may be a great deal less. Thus a reduction of twenty-five per cent. on a gross rental may mean a reduction of fifty per cent. on his net receipts.

The irritation of the landlord class found vent in attacks on the Land Court and their assistants; charges that they were administering the act in a partisan spirit and straining its language against the landowner; repeated cries for compensation from the imperial treasury. Public opinion in England was not much moved by these complaints. It thought that the general reduction of rents proved that rents had been excessive. It heard the tenant farmers alleging on the other side that the reductions made had been insufficient. While admitting that the case of the poorer Irish landowners was a hard one, it felt in a vague way that they were suffering for the faults of themselves and their predecessors, and that their condition would have been even worse but for the intervention of the English Parliament; for if they were left to the tender mercies of the Irish population, they would probably be driven off the land altogether. And the English public generally had become so utterly weary of Irish questions that it was plainly indisposed to spend time in discussing landlords' grievances, so soon after Parliament had passed an act which was intended to set land questions on a new footing. Perceiving, therefore, that they had little to hope from the House of Commons or from popular sympathy in England, the Irish landowning party bethought themselves of that branch of the Legislature in which they and their friends are supreme. They moved in the House of Lords for a committee to inquire into the working of the Land Act, partly, as is believed, with the object of deterring the Land Commissioners from further reductions of rent, partly in order to gather materials on which to build a case for compensating those landlords whose rents have been reduced. The Government opposed the proposition, alleging that the Act had been far too short a time in operation for such an inquiry to do anything but mischief. However, Lord Salisbury supported the Irish peers, so the committee was granted by a large majority. Mr. Gladstone promptly gave notice in the House of Commons of a resolution declaring that any inquiry at the present moment would tend to defeat the working of the Act, and must be injurious to good government in Ireland. This pointed to a collision between the two Houses, and at once sent up the political thermometer as nothing but a constitutional question can do.

Opinion was much divided. Of course regular Tory partisans applauded the vigor of the House of Lords in acting on its own responsibility, and regular Radical partisans welcomed the prompt answer of the Government, and the opportunity of attacking the House of Lords which the conflict provided them with. But sensible people generally regretted the whole affair. The House of Lords was blamed, not only by its political opponents, but even by many Conservatives, who thought that it had ventured into an untenable position, and shown itself once more in the somewhat odious attitude, dangerous to its own stability, of a body thinking less of the legislative functions which the Constitution gives it than of the private interests of its members as great landowners. They felt it to be a mistake for the great Tory party to allow itself to be, so to speak, "captured" by the Irish landlords; and many were the secret murmurs against the precipitancy of Lord Salisbury, who had suffered himself (it was said) to be led astray by the factious Irish partisanship of such an Orangeman as Lord Cairns. Liberals, on the other hand, although they admitted that the Government could not pass over the appointment of the Lords Committee, and could but seek to parry a blow aimed so directly at the Land Act of last session, asked whether greater efforts might not have been made to arrive at some compromise, and quietly to persuade the leading Conservative Peers to minimize the inquiries of the committee, or turn them to some harmless direction. It was not merely that moderate Liberals shrank from anything like a constitutional struggle, feeling that an old ship like our Constitution should be as little strained as possible; they saw with alarm the prospect of an expenditure of time which would sadly delay a decision on the new rules of parliamentary procedure, and in fact throw into disorder the whole business of the session. There was thus a good deal of despondency and vexation diffused through the Liberal party, which, coming on the top of a certain amount of discontent regarding some of the rules of procedure proposed by Mr. Gladstone, produced a whole crop of alarming rumors. People went about saying that the Liberal party was breaking in pieces, that the Cabinet was itself divided, that a dissolution was impending. As usually happens, each rumor, however improbable in itself, lent a kind of color to other improbable stories. We seemed to have suddenly drifted into a great crisis, and the Irish landlords had at least the satisfaction of believing that they had created more alarm than they ever expected.

Just when the disquietude had reached its height, one Saturday afternoon Mr. Gladstone sent out a lithographed invitation to all the members of the Liberal party to meet him at his house on the following Monday. Such gatherings of a political party are sufficiently uncommon among us for the news of one to create some sensation. Mr. Gladstone has rarely used them—so rarely, that he has been charged with leading his party too despotically, instead of taking them, as Lord Beaconsfield did or appeared to do, into his confidence by personal interviews. This further heightened the curiosity to know what the Prime Minister had to say or intended to do. Many people affirmed that he would announce his resignation, or at least a dissolution of Parliament, and our club quidnuncs had a fine time of it on the Sunday which elapsed between the notice and meeting. Sunday is, *par excellence*, the day of gossip and unbridled credulity in this news-loving town. Monday, at 3 o'clock, saw the Liberal members of the House of Commons surging into the Premier's official residence in Downing Street, in such a crowd that they filled, not only the large Deputation Room, but a long corridor which leads to it, whence nothing could be seen and little heard of the proceedings. Over three hundred had assembled. So far from talking of resignation or dissolution, Mr. Gladstone stated, with even more than his usual vehemence, his determination to persevere with his resolution condemning an inquiry into the Land Act, and set forth his reasons for this course, asking his assembled supporters if they had anything to say on the subject. It would not have been an easy task to dissuade a course the Ministry were so strongly committed to; far more difficult, indeed, to have differed from Mr. Gladstone in his own house than in the House of Commons. However, it really seemed as if everybody was agreed, and earnestly agreed, to stand by the Government. People were pleased at having been called together in this unusual way; they took it as a compliment to themselves. They were thrilled, "exalted," as the French say, by the idea that a crisis had arrived. They were stimulated by the sympathy of numbers; one after another got up to express shortly his complete approval of the course the Government had taken, and unabated loyalty to the Ministry. An atmosphere of effusion, of fraternity pervaded the meeting, and when it broke up, after fifty minutes, the members walked down through the heavy rain that had begun to fall to Westminster Hall, filled with a sort of enthusiasm sufficiently rare among our legislators. The results were seen when, an hour afterward, Mr. Gladstone moved the suspension of the other orders, that he might bring on his resolution. Sir Stafford Northcote, as leader of the Tory party, opposed this proposal, but in a weak and half-hearted way. In fact, he and his friends were cowed by the jubilant ardor with which their meeting had inspired the Liberals, and which rose to its highest point when, after a short debate, they defeated the combined forces of Tories and Irish Parnellites by the unusually large majority of 133. The Parnellites opposed, because they oppose whatever the Ministry proposes, but also because they desire an opportunity of pointing out, not that the Land Act is, as the Tories say, too strong, but that it is too weak. Then the resolution itself was brought forward by Mr. Gladstone in a speech not only singularly powerful, but remarkable for the tact with which, while outwardly respectful to the Lords, he contrasted their irresponsible position and non-representative character with the place which the House of Commons holds as the really sovereign power in the state. This tribute to its greatness is a theme which the Assembly itself enjoys, and it is traditionally popular in the country.

Accordingly a great impression was made all over England and Scotland as well as in Parliament itself, and the Liberal party seemed to have passed at one bound from depression and disquietude to a temper of triumphant confidence and hearty harmony. Had it been possible to proceed briskly with the debate and finish it while the echoes of Mr. Gladstone's voice were still ringing in men's ears, the House of Lords would probably have paused and ultimately abandoned its committee. But under our cumbrous parliamentary system, this could not be done. Votes in Supply had to be interposed, private members' rights brought up other subjects for debate, and when the discussion on the resolution was resumed, the landlord party caught at the opportunity of venting its lamentations with a prolixity which drove away the audience and made it feel sick of the whole business. At the time of writing these lines a division has

not yet, after ten days, been taken, and may probably not be taken for three days more. Meanwhile the Lords Committee has set to work—various proposals for a compromise which passed between Lords Salisbury and Cairns and the Government having come to nothing—and has called Irish witnesses before it. Mr. Forster refused to appear, but some of the officials of the Land Commission have already presented themselves. No practical result, except a further unsettling of men's minds in Ireland, is likely to follow; but unhappily a precious fortnight of Parliamentary time will have been wasted over this unprofitable dispute. The blame of having begun it rests with the House of Lords, but the mischief tells upon the Government, who suffer in public estimation for everything that goes wrong. Already the enthusiasm which Mr. Gladstone awoke ten days ago has begun to die away, and the people say to one another that the session will be a wasted one. Everything now depends on the success of the Government not merely in carrying their new rules of procedure, but in carrying them within a reasonable time.

The recent shooting at the Queen has given us cause once more to be astonished at the ignorance of English public affairs in which the press of the European continent is plunged. They have attributed a political significance to this act of a crazy and half-starved vagabond, and have talked about Nihilism, Socialism, Fenianism, and so forth in the usual strain of that philosophic pedantry or fanciful ingenuity which, in Germany and in France respectively, insists on seeing deep into a millstone. The occurrence has made very little sensation in England, just because everybody knew that it had no significance whatever, either political or social. No one could draw from it even so much of a moral as was drawn from Guiteau's act, because, although the offender may turn out to have been not more absolutely abnormal than Guiteau, he does not belong to any class, and cannot be said to have been, in however slight a degree, the product of any set of influences, except of those low physical conditions which disorder men's brains, and make the love of notoriety the parent of crime. Had there been the least possibility of connecting him with Fenianism, it would have been seized on. Happily there has been none. Y.

THE TYRANNY OF MINORITIES IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, March 1, 1882.

"NOTHING is more surprising to those who consider human affairs with a philosophical eye than to see the readiness with which the many are governed by the few, and to observe the implicit submission with which men resign their own sentiments and passions to those of their rulers."

This remark of Hume's has a far wider scope than he gives to it. Nothing is more surprising than the power of minorities. In England, at least, the people—in other words, the majority—are in theory king. The historical forms of a monarchical constitution mask this fact, but no statesman, no practical politician, no man who is not the slave to mere words and formulas, hesitates to admit that any measure supported by a decisive majority of the House of Commons, and deliberately desired by the constituencies whom the House represent, would undoubtedly become law. The monarchy would vanish, the Union would be dissolved, the moment that a decisive majority of the electors wished to get rid of the throne or became supporters of Home Rule. Yet for all this, every observer knows that the most essential fact in English public life is the influence of minorities. Commoners like to be led by Lords. Workingmen distrust artisans. The very committee who propose what is called a workingman candidate for election hardly wish for his success; they are at times suspected of casting ballots against their own nominee. Hence England is governed by rich men. No legislature in the world represents such a mass of wealth as the two Houses of Parliament.

Whether this influence of minorities is on the whole to be deplored or to be admired is a question of speculation. The existence of this influence is a matter of fact. Influence is power, and power is always liable to abuse. What is to be noted is, that the power of minorities is fully as liable to abuse as the power of majorities. This, indeed, is often tacitly denied. A minority is often assumed to possess—just because it is a minority—some special claims to wisdom; the weight of a small number of persons must, it is fancied, since it cannot depend upon numerical superiority, rest at bottom on reason and argument. This, however, is not so. Minorities no less than majorities have erred, and will err. It is true, no doubt, that

> "The people's voice is surely very odd:
> It is, and it is not, the voice of God."

But it is no less true that crotchet-mongers and fanatics are not generally persons of sound judgment, and that the "man in a minority of one," who ought, according to some philosophers, to be the wisest of the wise, usually is, or ought to be, the inhabitant of a lunatic asylum.

Nor is the influence of small bodies of necessity based on legitimate grounds. Minorities constantly owe their supremacy to illegitimate sources of power. In hundreds of instances social arrangements, based on the truest theories and approved by the wide experience of competent judges, can, from the nature of things, be carried out (if at all) only by something like the united action of all the persons concerned. When this is so, a minority possess, and constantly attempt to abuse, the power of veto. Thousands upon thousands of all classes are assured that it is a blessing that trade should be suspended on Sunday; yet if one tradesman in ten thousand opened his shop, the Sunday rest would be at an end: his rivals could not compete with a trader who gained each year one-seventh more than themselves. The law enforces combined action—the law, that is to say, protects the majority from the tyranny of the minority. A small class, again, are frequently united by the bonds of fanaticism or of self-interest; if it were not for the law, this union would more often than not give to minorities most disastrous triumphs. The anti-vaccinators would enforce their views at once, if the courts did not intervene. In this instance, a minority combines twofold power. The liberty of one person in ten thousand to leave his children unvaccinated would render abortive the scheme of medical prevention. The anti-vaccinators are enthusiasts, their opponents are men of sense standing on the defensive. The struggle as it is cannot be termed unequal; the victory of ignorance, prejudice, and enthusiasm is one of the possibilities of the future. Protected interests, again, proverbially die hard. Every member of a privileged class fights with tooth and nail for his privileges; the public are languid defenders of the public good; what is everybody's business is nobody's business. London is without a real municipality; the funds of the city companies are employed on purposes which are either useless or noxious. Yet the municipal reform of London makes no progress: a class defeats the nation—a minority triumphs.

This point, however, needs, I think, hardly to be pressed upon your readers. The persons really interested in opposing civil-service reform, or in supporting the misgovernment of New York, are, I conjecture, few if compared with the citizens of the whole Union or with the citizens of the State; but every *Nation* I read tells me that interested minorities are at least as hard to defeat in America as in England. The whole history of protection is, in fact, a history of the success with which persons banded together in virtue of a common "sinister interest" (to use the expression of Bentham) can override the interest of the majority of the inhabitants of the civilized world. A small battalion of zealous and disciplined troops can hold at bay thousands of undisciplined, apathetic, and disunited assailants. The triumph of free trade in England is precisely one of those exceptions which prove the rule. The pressing and obvious interest of the manufacturers was pitted against the apparent interest of the landowners. As it happened, the interest of the cotton lords was the interest of the nation. Classes fell out, and the nation came by its own.

I dwell on the obvious but often forgotten truth that countries suffer from the tyranny of minorities, because it is a truth which has a very close bearing on a good number of questions now occupying and perplexing the minds of Englishmen. The country has reached that stage of political development in which every one admits that the will of the people must, in the last resort, be the sovereign arbiter of all political controversies, but in which the habit of yielding loyal obedience to the popular will is not yet fully established. The genuine and most creditable respect felt by Englishmen for individual liberty combines, among the upper classes at least, with anti-democratic sentiment to produce a very considerable amount of confusion on all sides as to the extent, the nature, and the limits of the rights of minorities. At the moment there is, I conceive, very considerable peril that the rights of the whole nation as represented by the majority may be in several respects sacrificed out of undue deference to the supposed claims of minorities. There is, for instance, current a notion (which is the more dangerous because it is the perversion of a fine and noble idea) that no man can be rightly punished or made to obey the law whose disobedience arises from following the dictates of his conscience. Hence the difficulty of dealing with the martyrs of the anti-vaccination craze. There are members of Parliament who apparently hold that while vaccination ought to be enforced by law, no one ought to be subjected to the penalties by which alone the law can be enforced. From the same source arises all the embarrassment in dealing with the Rev. Mr. Green and clerics of his stamp. These gentlemen demand, in perfect good faith, the right to remain officials of a church of which they disobey the laws. I am quite aware that this is not the way in which they put their case. Mr. Green's view would be that he obeyed what he held to be the law of the Church, while disobeying the misinterpretations put upon the law by the courts. The curious point, with which alone I am concerned, is, not the peculiarity of his views, but the attitude taken up by great numbers of persons who have no sympathy with Ritualism. They grant that Mr. Green disobeys the law; they grant that the law ought somehow to be upheld; but they cannot feel easy in their minds to see a man punished for doing what he holds to be right. A conscientious man is, a great number of people more than half believe, beyond the moral jurisdiction of the courts. A convicted briber ought not, it was urged the other day, to be sent to prison, because bribery was no crime in his eyes. The practical result of this sentiment is that a minority of a minority rule the National Church. The mass of churchgoers have, there is every reason to suppose, no desire for any material change; the clergy are a minority among churchmen; out-

and-out Ritualists are a minority among the clergy: yet thoroughpaced Ritualists defy the law. It is more than possible that Mr. Green and his fellows will win the day, and that, in spite of the wishes of the majority of churchmen, the National Church will more and more closely adopt practices not in harmony with the belief of the nation. When this happens, the Anglican body will cease to be the National Church. Such a result, be it bad or good, will in the main flow from the difficulty of defeating a conscientious minority.

Exactly the same confusion of opinion or sentiment which makes men who hold the Ritualists to be wrong in breaking the law, feel as though it were persecution to punish Ritualists for a breach of law, is a source of a good deal of the hesitation in English dealings with Ireland. One set of persons try hard to persuade themselves, in spite of all evidence to the contrary, that the Home Rulers cannot be, what I have no doubt that many of them are, sincere believers in their own political creed. Another set of English critics, recognizing the patent fact that Mr. Parnell and many of his followers are conscientious fanatics, find great difficulty in approving any mode of proceeding which may involve the punishment of crimes against the state when committed by conscientious criminals. I have found men so influenced by the respect supposed to be due to the irregularities of conscientious fanatics as to look with singular leniency on the roughs who, to express their disapproval of coercion, have attempted to set up a Coercion Act on their own behalf, under which Liberals such as Mr. Bryce and Sir Charles Dilke are to be prevented by main force from addressing their constituents. The claim of a discontented minority to put an end to free speech in London has been forcibly put down by the action of the police. But an observer who turns his eyes from the misdoings of three or four hundred Irish laborers, who cannot with any fairness be taken to represent the immense Irish population of the capital, to the proceedings of the wealthy Conservative party, will find instructive instances of the arrogance, the power, and the very possible tyranny of a minority.

The Tories represent at this moment a defeated minority; yet, under the guidance of Lord Salisbury, they are attempting to usurp the rights of the nation. If any one thinks this language too strong, let him look to what has happened in the House of Lords. From the artificial constitution of that body the Tory party has for more than a century commanded an immense majority in the Upper House. Every other part of the Constitution has changed; the peerage has been untouched by the hand of reform. Hence, whatever Minister has been in power, were it Russell, Aberdeen, Palmerston, or Disraeli, the Peers have always had the power, if they gave effect to their theoretical rights, of opposing a veto on every measure which the Liberals of the day approved. As a matter of fact, the influence of the Peers has directly or indirectly delayed, hampered, or maimed every scheme of reform. The House, however, have been hitherto influenced by the spirit of prudence, and have in practice never pushed their rights to anything like their theoretical limits. The Duke of Wellington and Peel impressed on their followers two maxims: the battle of Conservatism was to be fought in the Commons; the Queen's Government was to be carried on. Each of these principles has now been for the moment thrown to the winds. The Committee on the Land Act is a deliberate attempt to nullify the effect of legislation approved by the nation and passed by vast majorities through the Commons. The Committee, further, if it carries out the intention of those who demanded it, will fatally weaken the executive, and at the same time interfere with the action of the judicature. The House represent nothing but the hatred, well or ill founded, of landowners to the Irish Land Act. The House are therefore the organ of a minority. They claim to override the deliberate decision of the nation. The demand no doubt will be waived or compromised—this, at least, is my expectation. That the claim should have been made shows how far a minority of rich men may push their ideas of their own rights.

But the temporary error of the Peers is a far less serious matter than the attitude taken up by the Conservatives of the House of Commons. Any one who reads the English papers will know that obstruction threatens to bring Parliamentary government into discredit. Any one who carefully studies modern Parliamentary history will easily satisfy himself that, while the work to be done by Parliament is tenfold greater than it was, say, at the beginning of the century, the mass of talk talked in Parliament has increased in at least an equal degree. The curtailed reports of the papers give no idea of the volume and the inanity of Parliamentary loquacity. The disease is patent; the cure is equally clear. The Ministry propose that the House of Commons should adopt rules under which a majority may say that the time has come when debate must be closed. If the Ministerial proposals have a defect, it is that they clog the exercise of this right with far too many provisos and safeguards. I need not, I think, argue before the American public that the enforcing of what it is now the fashion to call the closure is essential to the due transaction of Parliamentary business. The matter to which I call attention is the policy of the Conservatives. They in effect challenge the right of a bare majority to close debate at all. They assert each member's illimitable right to the indulgence in unlimited twaddle. The willingness of Tories to place the right of closure in the hands, say, of a two-thirds majority, or to adopt measures which I have heard described as the "personal clôture"—*i.e.*, devices by which obnoxious Home Rulers may be silenced—makes the Tory case all the weaker. To give power into the hands of a two-thirds majority is to give an infinite opening for intrigue. It would mean in many cases nothing less than conferring on the Opposition a new right of veto. The experience of last session proves, I am told, that this is no idle conjecture. If any minority needs special protection (which I do not admit), it is a body such as the Home Rulers, which, being unpopular in England, may, if it does not obtain a hearing in Parliament, not obtain a hearing at all. The noticeable matter is, as I have already insisted, that the Conservatives at bottom object to that supremacy of the majority which is the basis of English institutions.

The reason is obvious: under Mr. Disraeli's guidance, or misguidance, the Conservatives took a leap in the dark. They made the town constituencies really democratic. They are now, consciously or not, alarmed at their own handiwork. The majority of the House are likely to be influenced by democratic sentiment. The people may begin to govern as well as reign; the Tories are therefore bent on tying the hands of the sovereign. This is the open secret of the new notion that the majority of the House of Commons is unfit to determine the course of business. To tell a Conservative that the machinery of Parliament is antiquated and unsuited for its present work, is to waste one's breath, for no Tory really wishes that a machine should work rapidly which is all but certain to turn out articles of democratic workmanship. The Tory position is quite intelligible, though a critic may fairly regret that it should be defended under the show of a factitious and unnatural anxiety for freedom of debate. While debates are reported, while the Government of to-day is under the perpetual expectation of becoming the Opposition of to-morrow, while the press is unshackled, while public meetings are free, it is idle for any English party to affect fear of being gagged. The true danger is, that the efficiency and the dignity of Parliament should be sacrificed to the exorbitant claims of Conservative sensitiveness. Whoever observes the "readiness with which the many are governed by the few" may understand that in a country where wealth, social distinction, and rank have such weight as in England, the peril of the moment may well be the despotism of a Conservative minority.

A. V. Dicey.

RECENT ARCHÆOLOGICAL DISCOVERIES IN PHRYGIA.

Athens, February 10, 1882.

During the autumn of 1881 Mr. W. M. Ramsay, a travelling student in archæology from the University of Oxford, made an expedition into the interior of Asia Minor, which resulted in the discovery of a great number of Phrygian rock-cut tombs. Having previously visited some of the Phrygian monuments, Mr. Ramsay saw the importance of securing accurate drawings of them; and as the Hellenic Society offered to send an artist for this purpose, he started on a second excursion last October. Taking a route seldom travelled over the highlands of the interior, the party came upon immense rock cemeteries, the greater part of which had never been discovered. The most interesting of these were at the head of the valley of the Sangarius, the divine river of ancient Phrygia and the mythical parent of its kings. Near the source of one of the western branches of the river, on the top of the highest part of a broad plateau, two extensive cemeteries were found. The northern one has been known in part a long time. It was discovered by Leake in 1820. In a secluded pine-covered valley that winds between high hills lie hundreds of tombs of all styles and forms and sizes. The most remarkable among them is the previously-known tomb which bears a Phrygian inscription containing the words "To King Midas." Its entrance has never been found. The perpendicular face of the rock, seventy feet high, is covered with beautifully carved geometrical patterns, most of which are in excellent condition, the edges being as clear as when first cut. As the rock-cut tomb of the Syrian was an imitation of his modern dwelling, so this Phrygian ornamentation is supposed to be derived from the woven texture of the nomad's primitive tent.

About a mile from the cemetery, on the side of the valley, is a curious little fort, all the parts of which—walls, gates, cisterns, houses, and underground passageway leading out to the side of the hill—are cut with great delicacy out of the solid rock. It is in a perfect state of preservation. Though this fort was previously known, there is no evidence that any former traveller climbed the cliff above it, where, on the plateau overlooking the valley, an extensive city lies, exceedingly curious and full of interesting remains, carved from the rock. Its sculptures and altars are particularly numerous. Beside one of the latter is carved a rude figure of Cybele, which is probably the oldest known representation of the goddess.

The second great rock-cut cemetery, twenty miles due south of the former, was never known before. It resembles the other in general character, and contains hundreds of tombs, the con-

struction of which dates from the earliest times to the Christian era, probably in unbroken series. Corresponding to the tomb of Midas in the first cemetery, and fully equal to it in interest, is a large tomb which projects in the form of a cube, forty feet in dimensions, from the side of a hill. The grave is a chamber inside the rock, which is entered by small windows cut in the centre of the front of the cube, twenty feet above the ground. Over the entrance an obelisk is carved in relief, and on each side of this an enormous lion, twenty feet long, stands rampant. Underneath each of the lions lies a little cub.

This lion tomb bears a striking resemblance to the famous lion gate of Mykenæ. The gate was the most sacred part of an ancient city, and among the most sacred of its structures were the tombs; the lions found on these two monuments may, therefore, be considered to have originated from one idea. This idea, according to Mr. Ramsay's theory, was native to Phrygia. He found as many as nine examples of the kind, ranging from the archaic one above described, which is at least as early as 800 B. C., down through a series of gradually modified examples to as late a period as 400 B. C.; and he concludes from the character of these Phrygian sculptures that the most archaic of them—probably far older than the date above assigned—belong to a period anterior to that prehistoric age of Hellas, the heroic age of the Pelopidæ, of which the lion-gate of Mykenæ is the only sculptural monument that remains. If this be indeed the case, Mr. Ramsay's discovery seems to confirm the tradition previously recognized as the most trustworthy of all the Greek heroic myths, that the Pelopidæ, those powerful families who impressed a foreign civilization upon the rude tribes of Hellas, were emigrants from Asia Minor.

The artist of Mr. Ramsay's party has made a series of drawings which include about twenty-five of the tombs. All previous representations of these have been far from correct, and the several representations of the Midas tomb which have been published bear no resemblance to each other. The best of them is Texier's, which is rather remarkable, as it is the only case in which a drawing of his is known to have been tolerably accurate. Mr. Ramsay's collection will therefore throw an immense amount of light on Phrygian art, a subject hitherto practically unknown. Everything has pointed to a probable connection between the art of Greece and that of Central Asia Minor. The ornamentation of archaic Greek vases—especially the palmette and lotos alternating in a band, and the early form of the acroteria — exhibits a remarkable analogy to many Phrygian works. But though every writer on Greek art has assumed a relation between that and the art of Phrygia, no one has been able to do more than lament the lack of sufficient material to trace the connection satisfactorily. Such material has now been found. Whether we believe with the majority of archæologists that Greek art was derived from Phrygian, or hold to the opposite theory that the art of Phrygia was an outgrowth of the Greek, it is evident that Mr. Ramsay's discovery has confirmed beyond controversy the existence of an important link between the two. He concludes that the testimony of the great rock cemeteries is sufficient evidence that Phrygian art was the parent of the Greek. The rock sculptures in relief enable us, he thinks, to trace one hieratic representation all the way from Babylon to Greece by a series of examples, which include one discovered last year in Cappadocia, one in Phrygia, and the so-called Niobe on Mount Sipylos, near Smyrna, from which is derived one of the commonest hieratic representations of the worship of Cybele in Hellas.

Mr. Ramsay obtained over two hundred unpublished Greek and Latin inscriptions in Pontus, Cappadocia, Galatia, and Phrygia, besides securing accurate copies of all the inscriptions previously known in the old Phrygian language—a work never satisfactorily done before—and two new Phrygian inscriptions, one of which contains the name of the goddess Cybele. The Phrygian alphabet is almost identical with the early Greek at the time previous to the introduction of the non-Phœnician characters. Its inscriptions probably belong to the seventh century B. C. Mr. Ramsay was also able to clear up many points in the geography of the country, and to place accurately several towns which were formerly assigned to wrong positions.

The valuable results of this short expedition, made at slight expense, indicate how much work might be done by the contemplated American School of Archæology at Athens. It is possible to travel in the interior of Asia Minor with comfort and safety, though a stranger may easily get into difficulties, unless properly informed. Mr. Ramsay owes his training in this respect to Sir Charles Wilson, the British Consul-General of Anatolia, with whom he made his first journey. Similar opportunities are often offered, especially to residents in the East, and a school of young men, trained to distinguish the character of ancient remains and form intelligent conclusions, might accomplish a large amount of interesting and important archæological work. C. W. B.

Correspondence.

THE DALMATIAN REVOLT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I read in your excellent journal of February 16 an essay, entitled the "Revolt in Dalmatia," written by Mr. Edward A. Freeman. Having lived myself for years in Austria, and visited in 1878 the then newly-occupied provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, I find in the article alluded to—to say the least—many unreasonable exaggerations and inimical assertions against Austria, which may lead persons unacquainted with that land to form an entirely wrong idea. All the late disturbances on the eastern side of the Adriatic have been stirred up by foreign influence, and the present insurrection in the Bocche di Cattaro is, all over Europe, ascribed to Panslavic and Russian intrigues, favored, however, by the wild and stubborn character of the Bocchese, who, used to unfettered liberty on their mountain heights, defy every effort to bring them to a settled and more civilized mode of living. I see no reason why the Bocchese, who enjoy the same rights and are governed by the same laws as all other Austrian Slavs, should be exempt from military service, while their brethren of the same race submit without a murmur to this hard, but in the present state of European affairs, inevitable evil.

Every man who knows the enmity and jealousy of the different races living together in the Austro-Hungarian Empire will admit that the only possible way to govern such an aggregation of different people is to satisfy the most powerful and numerous of them without wronging the weaker ones. This is what Emperor Francis Joseph is attempting to do, though it is a hard and ungracious task. The Germans and Hungarians are in Austria the bearers of civilization and progress, and the possessors of wealth, and are, therefore, aside from their numerical superiority over the Slavs, by right entitled to the influence they possess. The security of Austria and southeastern Europe requires that a lot of roughs—call them Bocchese, Krivoscier, or Herzegovzen—who at any moment may start afresh the so-called Eastern Question, be kept down; and an excellent way to attain this is by military service, in which these brave but otherwise unwelcome subjects learn at least to obey and respect the acknowledged authority of their country. It is, therefore, desirable in the highest degree for the peace of Europe that the "hired and kidnapped bondmen" (a new expression of Mr. Edward A. Freeman's for soldiers) of Emperor Francis Joseph should teach these eternal Bocchese brawlers that Austria is tired of having a lot of hirelings who, at every opportunity, are ready to fight the authority of their own country, provided they get paid for it, be the money furnished by the Russians, Panslavists, or any other race or nation which has an interest in bringing Austria into trouble.

Very respectfully, P. Knoch.

Portland, Oregon, March 5, 1882.

MEDICAL EXAMINATION OF APPLICANTS FOR PENSIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As a matter touching pension frauds, something should be said in regard to pension-examining surgeons. The same Congress that perpetrated so great a swindle as the back-pay bill for a long time withheld the appropriation for paying medical examiners, and then cut the fees down to a dollar for each case There are pension boards in every city, and pension examiners in every village and hamlet, of the Union. They are required to attend to cases as they come in, or set apart Wednesday of each week for such examinations. They are to make a careful and thorough investigation of the case, often requiring instruments of precision which few possess or can use, and decide as to its origin in the service, its duration and termination, and then to fix a rate of pension, from a given scale, according to the disability. A decision is insisted on, and, if favorable, it is almost invariably sustained and the pension granted; if unfavorable, the result is shown further on. No competent surgeon would in private practice make such an examination for less than $5, even in the country; and no life-insurance company gets such work done for less than $3, and often pays $10. For the pittance of $1, duplicate accounts must be forwarded to Washington at the end of the quarter, there frequently to wait three months for approval, and then duplicate receipts must be forwarded to the local pension-agent before the money is received.

Being a member of the profession, I should be loth to say any surgeon would be dishonest; among so many, some must be incompetent, others err in judgment, some be sympathetic. Many of them were in the service and are now the recipients of pensions; if not, as age disables them they are looking up testimony and making application for themselves. The applicants are often their friends and patrons, and are pretty well informed by the pension solicitors who make or refuse a rate. In many cases a considerable sum of money is involved. In my circle, which is not large, I have been repeatedly offered gratuities of from five to five hundred dollars, if claims were allowed. With all confidence in my profession, it is not in human nature that some of its members should not accept a *douceur*. We are instructed to report all frauds on the Department; yet we have known few to be investigated, and never known a pension stopped. It is certain if once granted, except under an old rule of biennial examination, abrogated some time ago.

We have been more than suspicious that the pension attorneys at Washington had access to

our private reports; we are certain that they know our individual peculiarities, and if we disallow a claim, another order is easily obtained to another surgeon; and often this is repeated several times, until one is struck that will allow the claim. Time and persistence bring a pension to every one who can secure an order for an examination.

The much-ridiculed Sixty-Surgeon Bill of Commissioner Bentley would have obviated much of this evil, and have saved the Government millions of dollars, as well as the morals (the souls, I came near saying) of a large number of people. A less efficient remedy, that would still accomplish much, would be to pay a reasonable fee, and then make careful inquiry as to character and standing, from available sources, and diminish the number of examiners one-half. The office would then be respectable, and a long stride made toward honesty and economy.

Yours, etc., WINTER SMITH,
U. S. Examining-Surgeon.

JONES PRAIRIE, IOWA, March 15, 1882.

THE LIQUOR-TRAFFIC COMMISSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your remarks in No. 872 of the *Nation* upon the passage of the Senate bill creating a commission to examine the relations of the liquor traffic to revenue, crime, etc., suggest several points of specific inquiry which should be covered by the investigations of such a body, in addition to those mentioned by you—viz.:

1. Can drunkenness in the mass be diminished in any way so effectually as by rendering it physically impossible for the intemperate to procure the means of intoxication?

2. Can this be practically accomplished without putting temperate drinkers under the same restrictions as the intemperate?

3. Has prohibitory legislation in America been at all successful in limiting the traffic in stimulants? If so, where and under what circumstances has it been most successful?

4. What is the exact amount of revenue derived in the United States from licenses to sell liquor?

5. What is, approximately, the amount of public expenditure that can be traced directly to drunkenness as its cause, in increased cost of police, criminal administration, support of the poor, the insane, etc.? And what is, approximately, the economic loss in diminished production, destruction of values by fire, accident, etc., resulting from drunkenness?

6. Are the advantages that would be secured by the abatement of drunkenness—if that can be effected by law—of sufficient magnitude to justify the infringement of the liberty of temperate drinkers; and will prohibitory legislation necessarily and under all circumstances, whether representing the will of a large majority of the voters or not, be followed by evils that will outweigh those arising from the amount of drunkenness which prevails under the license system?

These questions have, in a vague and general way, been variously answered heretofore by the advocates and opponents of prohibition respectively, but never, I think, in a manner that will command the entire confidence of dispassionate inquirers. It remains to be seen whether any commission appointed by Congress will examine this delicate, but infinitely important, subject with the necessary thoroughness and impartiality.—Respectfully, L. T.

BALTIMORE, March 18, 1882.

Notes.

A BIOGRAPHY of the late Dr. Leonard Bacon is contemplated by his family, and letters or other documents which might aid in its preparation are requested to be sent to the Misses Bacon, 247 Church Street, New Haven, Conn. They will be returned if desired.

An American author, Mr. Frederick May Holland, of Concord, Mass., whose 'Sordello' was published last year by G. P. Putnam's Sons, is about to help on the newly-organized enthusiasm over Robert Browning in England by publishing, through George Bell & Son, London, a volume of 'Stories' from that poet.

Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, have in press a volume embodying the American lectures of Dr. Edward A. Freeman, entitled 'The English People in their Three Homes, and the Practical Bearings of General European History.' It is brought out by special arrangement with the author.

White & Stokes, New York, announce 'Summer Gleanings,' by Rose Porter—a sort of floral diary, having on each page apt poetical selections, a space for pressed flowers, and others for jottings and sketches.

The *Moravian*, Bethlehem, Pa., is publishing a work of some importance to English readers—namely, a 'History of the Unitas Fratrum,' a church founded in the fifteenth century by the followers of Huss in Moravia and Bohemia. The author is Bishop Edmund de Schweinitz, the biographer of Zeisberger, who has gone to sources very few of which are in the English language.

We learn from the *Woman's Journal* that Mrs. Mary A. Livermore has copyrighted the title of a book, 'The Heavenly Side of the War,' which will embrace her experiences in connection with the work of the Sanitary Commission.

To say that Mr. Spofford's 'American Almanac for 1882' has appeared (New York: American News Co.) is sufficient for those who have ever had occasion to consult the four previous issues. There is no publication in this country comparable to it for the fulness and variety of its statistical contents, and the editor, the merchant, the banker, the politician, or the simple citizen desirous of information will seldom turn to it in vain.

The success of Josephine Pollard's 'The Decorative Sisters' appears to have been greater than a purely juvenile reception would account for. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. have just brought out a new edition with green cloth covers tied with yellow silk, and grotesquely æsthetically stamped or painted in bright colors. The book will, doubtless, continue to do service as a sort of polite satirical gift in the nature of a valentine.

The same publishers have employed hand-painting on the covers of 'Set Apart, and other Poems,' by the late Miss Frances Ridley Havergal, and of 'The Voice of St. John, or, The Story of the First Easter Day,' a poem, by the Rev. W. W. Newton.

The second volume in Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s handsome uniform reprint of Bret Harte's complete works consists of 'The Luck of Roaring Camp,' and other stories.

Chief in point of interest of the contents of the *Journal of Social Science*, No. 15 (New York: Putnams), is the chapter on infant development, which, in addition to the papers read at Saratoga on the subject and some American observations, includes Taine's and Darwin's notable reports upon the progress of their own children in intelligence.

With the 13th part, the new 'Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon' (New York: L. W. Schmidt) reaches the rubric *Arbeiter*. The maps continue to be excellent—the Empire of Alexander the Great; Thebes (Ancient Egypt); and, on one sheet, Northeastern Africa, Arabia, and Lower Egypt.

Part V. of Reiss and Stübel's admirable work on the 'Necropolis of Ancon in Peru' (New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.), brings its ten additional scrupulously colored plates, embracing one landscape (in the foreground a deep grave of false-headed mummies); a rich aristocratic mummy sack, with some of the poorer and commoner sort; mummies with wig and ear ornaments; painted sepulchral tablets; numerous woollen stuffs, in the Gobelins style and otherwise, noticeably strong and sure in design and color; black earthenware, grotesque and shapely; and some red urns, simulating the human head and body, conceived with a degree of humor not commonly ascribed to the Peruvians.

No. 2 of vol. iv. of the *American Journal of Mathematics* is wholly occupied with a portion of the late Prof. Benjamin Peirce's memoir on Linear Associative Algebra, read before the National Academy of Sciences in 1870. It is annotated and to some extent revised by his son, Mr. Charles S. Peirce.

A writer in the current *American Journal of Philology* (vol. ii., No. 8) gives a sample page of the new Philological Society's Dictionary, and a very clear idea of the stupendous character of the work. It is now expected to make not less than six quarto volumes, each somewhat larger than Webster's Unabridged. It is gratifying to learn of the hearty coöperation of American readers in this undertaking, and a surprise to be told that the chief editor, Dr. Murray, is not financially able to devote his entire time to it.

A Dictionary of Belgian writers, with a catalogue of their publications, during the half century 1830–1880 ('Bibliographie Nationale'), has begun to appear at Brussels. It is very comprehensive, and promises to be bulky, and is, says the *Athenæum Belge*, magnificently printed.

—We very much regret having blundered last week in representing the *North American Review* to have been the medium of Dr. Le Plongeon's reports of his discoveries, whereas its correspondent is M. Désiré Charnay.

—"M. L." writes us from Rochester, N. Y.:

"In your interesting article on 'The Organization of College Faculties' the well-known line "Im engen Kreis verengert sich der Sinn," is not by Goethe, but, as you undoubtedly know, from the Prologue to 'Wallenstein's Lager,' by Schiller."

—"S. M. C." writes us from Keokuk, Iowa:

"Mr. Leigh Hunt, City Superintendent of Public Schools at Mt. Pleasant, Iowa, has had for several months in operation in them a system of school savings and the practical teaching of providence. In the absence of a savings bank he got one of the national banks to take the deposits of the school children upon a simple system of accounts. His instruction, given to both teachers and pupils, extends even to the primary classes. This method has worked well. Several hundred dollars of savings are already in the bank. Children are inventing methods of making money, while the attendance, interest, and scholarship of the schools seem noticeably improved by the experiment."

—The Wisconsin Assembly, we are glad to see, on March 15, by a vote of 58 to 33, passed a bill appropriating $100,000 for building in the centre of the Capitol Park, of fourteen acres, a secure edifice for the State Historical Society. The known disposition of the Senate, and the hearty approval of the Governor, make this vote equivalent to enactment. Legislative patronage of the Historical Society began in Wisconsin within six years after the State's admission into the Union, with a grant of $500 in the year 1854, when the volumes in its library were no more than fifty. The bounty was continued, and annually increased. In addition to one wing of the Capitol warmed, lighted, carpeted, and shelved at pub-

lic expense, the State has for many years paid the salaries of a secretary, three librarians, and janitor, and furnished $4,200 annually for the purchase of books. It has defrayed the expense of publishing twelve octavos (seven of historical collections and five of catalogues), and made a special appropriation to pay for binding. The Historical Society has itself a binding fund that now amounts to $10,000, but purposes not to use it till the income of it shall reach about $1,000 a year. The contractors are to be required to complete the Historical Hall so that possession can be taken of it on New Year's Day, 1884, or just thirty years after the State's first care for the infant Society. The Society has received many gifts from individuals, associations, and governments, domestic and foreign. After this new departure it cannot fail to receive more.

—*Lippincott's* for April contains for its leading illustrated article an account of life in Normandy, by Margaret Bertha Wright, who has evidently had opportunities of observation, but whose passion for "word-painting" needs to be a little restrained. For instance: "As I walked between unhedged patches of dimpling grain, I saw the opposite coast vaguely through a mist, shimmering like the wicked wimpling of absinthe." This is evidently a carefully composed sentence, but it is open to the objection that dimpling grain is such an unfamiliar idea that the reader feels that he ought to be led up to it more gently than this, while the statement that absinthe "wimples," wickedly or otherwise, or that a coast seen through a mist looks like absinthe when it wimples, raises in the mind a slight feeling of suspicion and incredulity which interferes a little with our enjoyment of the word-picture. George Newell Lovejoy, in some verses called "Disappointment," displays a good deal of ingenuity and fancy; the poem is better worth reading than most of the magazine poetry of the month, though it must be said that Disappointment and Truth are not either logically or poetically opposites. "Our Substitute for a Navy," by Charles F. Johnson, jr., is one of those unpatriotic articles with which the press now teems, which expose the condition of our navy to the gaze of other sea-going nations, and lead the Chilians to caricature us in their comic papers. The first sentence of the article, "The United States possess one of the finest navies of the world, considered strictly as bric-à-brac," is rather suggestive of a caricature itself. The pirate Kidd is always a fair subject for a magazine article, and Mr. Charles Burr Todd makes the most of it in a sketch of the career of that enterprising Scotchman, from his earliest appearance as master of a coasting vessel plying between Boston and New York, to his last sad end in Execution Dock. Piracy can hardly be said to be an attractive career any longer, but the teachers of youth may still draw a useful moral lesson as to the caducity of all success in life not based on a strict attention to duty, from the fact that Kidd was caught and hung after tasting the pleasures of piracy for only four brief years.

—The *Atlantic* for April opens with an article by Mr. John Fiske on "Europe before the Arrival of Man," which popularizes a good deal of geology for the general reader, and corrects for him also some of that vast stock of misinformation and vague error on the subject of the early history of the earth which he mistakes for science. To take one rather curious illustration, the general reader, being familiar with the fact that this history is divided by geologists into three periods, the primary, secondary, and tertiary, may very likely be in the habit of jumping at the conclusion that they are all of equal length. At any rate, when he learns that as a matter of fact "the beginning of the tertiary period carries us back barely *one-twentieth part* of the way toward the first beginning of fossil-bearing strata," he will, if he is a candid general reader, admit that he would have guessed a fraction much more like one-third. Mr. Fiske's explanation of this is as follows: "On the whole, the geologic record of the tertiary period is much more completely preserved than that of the two earlier periods. We see more clearly into the details of life at that time, and consequently have a more vivid picture of it before us; and this more vivid picture, as is natural, usurps an undue place in our minds." An article on "Shakespearean Operas," by A. E. Barr, recalls the recent reproduction of Thomas's "Hamlet" in this city, with Gerster in the rôle of *Ophelia*, formerly sung by Nilsson, and reminds us that Thomas is only one of a long line of composers who have failed to discover that Shakspere can never be made to fit into the mould of the Italian opera. In Italian opera the purpose of the music is the lyrical expression of primary, unintellectualized emotion, called forth by striking situations. Its *scenas* and *arias* are therefore much more nearly akin to the "points" of melodrama than to high tragedy of any school. The plays of Shakspere which lend themselves most readily to music are those which Shakspere himself interspersed with songs, such as "Midsummer Night's Dream," "The Tempest," and "As You Like It"—fanciful lyrical dramas, which have led to the production of some of the prettiest music in the world, but still not operatic music. Mr. Philip Bourke Marston writes a short article, introducing to our notice a new poet, Mr. Arthur J. Munby, the author of 'Dorothy,' a pastoral poem in alternate hexameters and pentameters. We have no space for any long extracts from the poem, and must content ourselves with pointing out to the able critics who are now engaged in analyzing this powerful work that short extracts are rather likely to deter the reader from venturing into its depths. For instance, the lines beginning:

> "Winter, she helped old John a laying down straw for the cattle,
> Cleaned out the stables and byres, nothing afraid of the bull,"

may be a deeply interesting and valuable contribution to English literature when taken in their proper connection, but when isolated and examined by themselves, they seem rather flat. Mr. Marston seems to think that "Dorothy" is a new kind of poem, but it belongs to the same school of two masterpieces of established reputation, Clough's "Bothie" and Goethe's "Hermann and Dorothea," both written by poets who, at least in versification, were more skilful than Mr. Munby. Elizabeth Stuart Phelps begins this month her "Doctor Zay," a story with a curious history, given in an introductory note addressed to Miss Phelps by Mr. Howells. In this he records the singular fact that before Miss Phelps had written her novel she gave him the outline of her plot, and that on hearing it he found that it dealt with the same situations and the same characters, to a certain degree, as his own "Dr. Breen's Practice," then already written and partly printed; that he urged her to complete it, and assured her that no one would for a moment suppose that she had borrowed any of it from him. There is certainly nothing in the opening chapters to suggest any such "conveyance"; indeed, we may frankly say that we think Miss Phelps's story, as far as it has gone, would be even better if it were a little less original.

—In the April *Harper's* not a few readers will turn first to Professor Gildersleeve's account of Pheidias, his Athena Parthenos, and the yard-high statuette copy of it discovered in Athens at the close of 1880, of which a side view from a photograph is given. They will be disappointed in nothing unless in the image itself, which undoubtedly has that "squab" look which Professor Gildersleeve ascribes to it, and in other respects (as in the right arm and hand) seems to fall considerably below the perfection of Attic sculpture. One interesting evidence of its being a mechanical reduction of the original, is the three marks, or measuring points, on the back of the Athena, and of the Victory which she holds in her hand. An incidental remark in this paper appeals to general experience, where the writer says: "I have sometimes fancied that the nationality makes itself felt even in photographs; that the French photographer, the German photographer, manages to give a Gallic or Teutonic deflection to the rays of the sun." Or, as we once heard it said of an American photographed abroad—we believe in Russia—"he looks as if he couldn't speak a word of English." Papers nominally lighter than the foregoing are Mr. George P. Lathrop's "Spanish Vistas" (Burgos and Madrid), and Mr. Ernest Ingersoll's "Silver San Juan," both copiously and beautifully illustrated. Mr. Lathrop succeeds in the difficult task of infusing freshness into the description of a bull-fight. Professor Woodberry begins what appears to be a popular "History of Wood-Engraving," eventually to become a book, unencumbered with foot-notes and references to authorities. In this first instalment he traverses ground familiar to all who have studied the "origins" of printing, but presents a facsimile of a hitherto unpublished woodcut of the Crucifixion (about 1445). Finally, we may mention Mr. Henry W. Lucy's intimate picture of Mr. Gladstone's domestic life at Hawarden. A somewhat new phase of the Premier's countenance is given in Mr. Kruell's able rendering of a London photograph.

—The March number of the *Rundschau* contains an article by Professor Haeckel describing his trip to India and his preparations for a scientific expedition to Ceylon. Through an irregularity of the mails, his second letter, in which he gives his impressions of Bombay, arrived before the first, and was printed in a previous number of Rodenberg's periodical. Professor Haeckel began his career as lecturer at the University of Jena more than twenty years ago. His vacations he has devoted, after the manner of his teacher, Johannes Müller, to systematic zoölogical experiments at the sea-coast, mostly along the Mediterranean, but also at Helgoland, Canary Islands, and the Red Sea. One of his earliest desires, stimulated by a perusal of the works of Humboldt, Schleiden, Kittlitz, and Darwin, was to visit the tropical regions; but he has had to wait till his forty-eighth year before this wish could be realized. Early in October last he left Jena on a six months' leave of absence, two of which were to be consumed by the journey, and four spent in Ceylon. Twenty, or even ten years ago, a scientific expedition required little more than a microscope and a few other simple instruments; whereas, Haeckel's outfit filled up sixteen trunks and boxes, only two of which contained his personal effects, the others being filled with physical and anatomical instruments, alcohol and other conserving fluids, glasses, nets, photographic apparatus, painters' materials, etc. It was his intention to include in his labors deep-sea dredging of the Indian Ocean; but he failed to secure the means required for such an expensive undertaking, which is all the more to be regretted as those regions are almost entirely unexplored, and it is now known that, contrary to the former supposition that animal life ceased at a depth of 2,000 feet, it really extends to 27,000 feet, and includes hitherto unknown animals of diverse classes, varying in the different zones like the mountain vegetation of different altitudes.

—On the principle of *nomen sit omen*, Haeckel attaches importance to the fact that the steamer which conveyed him who first named a whole class of animals Heliozoa bore the name of *Helios*, and that the first hotel he stopped at on his Indian tour was named "Elephant." The "zoölogical bias" is shown here in the classification of hotels he inserts, by the way. He thinks he has noticed on his numerous journeys that hotels can be divided into three classes—the zoölogical, the dubious, and the dynastic. These last, named after a prince or king, are almost always poor, the dubious are what their name implies, and the zoölogical, such as Golden Lion, Black Bear, etc., are usually good, especially for bachelors, artists, and naturalists. Of the four steamship lines between Europe and India, he gave the preference to the Austrian Lloyd as the most comfortable and the cheapest line, and one which on this as on previous occasions showed a willingness to extend to scientific tourists special favors and special accommodations. The voyage proved calm and monotonous, and the Professor apparently spent most of his time looking at the flying fishes, porpoises, and birds, and regretting that the motion of the ship was too rapid to allow him to catch some of the fine specimens of cœlenterata as they passed. He did not become seasick, but his "poor German-professor-stomach" found that three out of the five daily meals were quite sufficient for its needs. While the appetites of the other passengers increased every day, his own diminished, and he expresses amazement at the wonderful capacity of the Englishmen on board. Contrary to the general opinion, he thinks that the appetite of the English far surpasses that of the Germans. Of the passage through the Suez Canal, he says that whereas eight years ago it was the universal opinion that the expenses of the canal would always exceed the profits, the latter are now so considerable that they will soon yield a handsome profit. The greatest drawback at present is that the canal is too narrow to allow two ships to pass by each other, except at specially widened places at long intervals, so that hours are often wasted by one ship in waiting for another. In the next century probably either the canal will be widened or another one constructed, thus allowing one set of ships to go north and another south without interruption.

—In the triple issue, Nos. 10, 11, 12, of vol. xiii. of the Bulletin of the Essex Institute (Salem, Mass.) will be found some interesting "Notes on Forest Trees," contributed by Mr. John H. Sears, and made by him while collecting wood specimens for the Central Park Museum of Natural History last year in northern New York. Unexpectedly one meets with the following trace of popular superstition, which takes us back to the days of witchcraft and the evil eye. Mr. Sears is speaking of the Gray or Scrub Pine (*Pinus banksania*):

"This tree is known as the 'unlucky tree' by the people in this part of the country. The more observant ones call it a cross between the pine and spruce. I met several men of good general education who were convinced of the danger arising from this tree, and who cited cases of its malignant influences (similar to the stories told of the upas-tree of Java). It is considered dangerous to pass within ten feet of its limbs, and more so to women than to men. It is equally dangerous to cattle; so that whatever ill befalls a man, his family, or his cattle, if there is one of these trees on his land, it must be destroyed—burnt down by wood being piled around it, for no one would venture to cut it down."

—The "dictionary" catalogue seems likely to overrun one more country in its victorious course. Sig. Costantino Maes, vice-librarian of the Alessandrina at Rome, has prepared, unofficially, an index to the author-catalogue of that library, prefixing it with remarks (with which every one in America is familiar) about the utter insufficiency of an author-catalogue alone to assist students, and about the improbability that a classed catalogue will suit any one but its maker. He is enthusiastically in favor of the simple alphabetical order, "bella, semplice, antica guida e immutabile." Sig. Maes needs but one step more—to mix his authors and subjects in a single alphabet—and he will have a dictionary catalogue. It is noteworthy that he seems to be entirely ignorant that anybody before him has ever thought of an alphabetical subject-index. Probably English and American catalogues are scarce in the Alessandrina.

—We learn by telegraph of the death of Dr. John Muir, of Edinburgh, well known as one of the most meritorious of English Orientalists. Born at Glasgow in 1810, he went to India in the East India Company's service when only eighteen years old, and, after the full term of twenty-five years, returned, still in the prime of life, to pass more than another quarter century in just as faithful and devoted labor on behalf of India at home. A brother, Sir William Muir, distinguished himself in general political service, and has been for many years Governor of the Northwestern Provinces. John Muir's retiring disposition and strong literary taste led him into another line of activity and distinction. He acquired in India an unusual knowledge of Sanskrit, along with a facility of metrical composition in that language which he exhibited in a highly-esteemed little treatise in defence of Christianity, intended for Brahmin readers. After his return he made it the business of his life to help in all possible ways, with pen and purse, the comprehension by Europeans of Hindu institutions and their history—most especially, of Hindu religions. He published various articles in learned journals. He made metrical versions of passages from Sanskrit writers having an ethical character, which he printed privately and distributed among his friends; they have been recently collected to form one of the volumes of Trübner's Oriental Series. But his principal work has been his 'Original Sanskrit Texts on the Origin and History of the People of India, their Religion and Institutions,' in five volumes (the first four appearing in a second edition before the addition of the fifth in 1870), giving abundant and carefully selected (transliterated) extracts from the first sources of knowledge, with translations and explanations. This is a classic work, which every student of India keeps constantly within reach. He was also always on the lookout for deserving literary enterprises which he might encourage and aid; and many such have owed their success to his unreported generosity. He offered in 1846 a liberal prize at Cambridge for an exposition of the errors of Hindu philosophy. In 1862 he endowed a Sanskrit professorship in the University of Edinburgh; it was first held by Aufrecht, and now by Eggeling. Dr. Muir was a man of the most amiable character, estimable in all private as well as public relations, and, though he had his decided opinions of men as well as of things, absolutely averse to all controversy and strife.

—We extract the following tribute to Dr. Muir's scholarship from a letter just received from one of our English correspondents:

"It is not, however, from the 'Metrical Translations from Sanskrit Writers,' or from his five volumes of 'Original Sanskrit Texts,' that one can adequately gather how thorough was his mastery of the sacred language of the Brahmans. Ability to translate Sanskrit is nothing very extraordinary; but to compose in it so as to satisfy the most exacting criticism is an accomplishment with which few Europeans have ever been credited. At the head of these few, and immeasurably superior to all the rest, stood Dr. Muir, in comparison with whose Sanskrit that of Dr. W. H. Mill, and that which is traditionally attributed to Robertus de Nobilibus, is maladroit, cramped, and jejune, not to speak of its being occasionally unidiomatic. Such, in fact, are the Sanskrit verses, numbering many thousands, of Dr. Muir, that experts can easily understand the incredulity as to their being of his authorship, which was manifested by the learned Pandits to whom, before they were consigned to the press, they were submitted, and by whom they were but very seldom indeed found to be susceptible of even the slightest amendment. Christian doctrine forms, for the most part, their subject-matter."

—No. 5 of the 'Memoirs of the Science Department' of the University of Tokio is entitled "Measurements of the Force of Gravity at Tokio, and at the Summit of Fuji-no-yama," by Prof. T. C. Mendenhall. The author was connected with the expedition sent out to Russian Asia, by the United States Government, to observe the transit of Venus in 1876, and though not a pioneer in the work to which he set himself in Japan, since Professors Ayrton and Perry had attempted the same problem, his methods seem to have excelled those of his predecessors in eliminating the possible means of error. He conducted his experiments in the physical laboratory of the college, with fairly good apparatus. Eleven time-determinations were made on two successive days, May 26 and 27; the time of vibration of the pendulum being the mean of two or three independent measurements of the chronograph record made by different persons. Making the necessary corrections and reductions, Professor Mendenhall finds g (=gravity) =7.9784, which is slightly higher than the figure obtained by the use of the generally accepted formula for the calculation of the value of g for any latitude. It will be remembered that the mean of all results thus far obtained by experimenters (Reich, 5.438; Baily, 5.660) is 5.639; that is, that the density of the earth is 5.6 times that of water, or roughly, that the weight of our planet is six sextillions of tons. According to Prof. Mendenhall, the earth-mass would turn the scale at a still higher figure on the cosmic scale-beam. His equally careful second series of experiments was made on the top of Japan's peerless mountain, correctly called Fuji-no-yama, or Fuji-san, but not Fuji-yama. The pilgrims' huts for the nonce were occupied by the observers and with the instruments light and heavy, the Buddhist priest permitting. The mountain is 12,441 feet high, and its angle, assuming the mass to be a perfect cone, 138°. The value, at that height, of $g_2 = 9.7886$ was obtained; or, if the mountain did not exist, the value would be 9.7865. The density of the mountain, as furnished by the mean results of three well-known geologists in Japan, was, $d = 2.12$, and the attraction of the mountain is only .00021 of the attraction of the earth. Using the standard of Baily, however, $d = 2.08$. The result of the two series of experiments, even after allowing for all known sources of error, and calculating even from the accepted standard of Baily, is to show that the mountain is deficient in attraction, a fact which may serve to throw light on the structure of volcanoes, which word describes the history of Fuji-san.

—An uncommonly rich and varied programme was offered to the patrons of the Brooklyn Philharmonic Society on Saturday evening. It opened with Mozart's E flat Symphony (No. 543, Köchel), which, simple as it may seem, offers almost as great difficulties to the players as the most elaborate modern composition. But Mr. Thomas and his musicians were fully equal to their task, and the result was as finished a performance as we have ever listened to. Mrs. Osgood sang with a clear, resonant voice and in good style the exquisite cavatina "Glöcklein im Thale" from "Euryanthe," Weber's

finest and too much neglected opera, which, we notice, is at last to be produced in London, under Hans Richter, in May. The audience was so much pleased with the song and its interpreter that it had to be repeated. In the next number—selections from Mr. Paine's "Œdipus" music—the orchestra was assisted by the Philharmonic chorus and Mr. Toedt. The instrumental parts, including the prelude and postlude, have never been played before with such passionate energy and such a "stereoscopic" display of all the lines and colors of this interesting composition; and if the vocal part was not equal to the instrumental in smoothness, some allowance must be made for the uncommon difficulty of the work. The overture and a scene from another neglected opera, Schumann's "Genoveva," followed. In listening to such music as was here rendered from "Euryanthe" and "Genoveva" many probably wondered that these operas are not more popular. The fault in both cases lies in the undramatic subject; in Schumann's case, also in a want of dramatic definiteness in the music. Mr. Henschel showed in the "Genoveva" music that he possesses a powerful and agreeable voice, and that he understands the art of phrasing. In the Sanctus from Beethoven's Missa Solennis in D major, which followed, he was ably assisted by Mrs. Osgood, Miss Winant, and Mr. Toedt; while in both this and in the last piece—the "Glory be to the Father," from Handel's Utrecht Jubilate—the chorus and orchestra combined in a performance of great impressiveness. The concert received additional interest from the presence of Professor Paine, who had been the guest of Mr. Thomas for several days.

—When Johann Strauss, after a long career as waltz and polka composer, some years ago suddenly abandoned this field of activity and began to write for the stage, his friends and admirers had some reason to anticipate an unsatisfactory result. Operetta composers of merit already existed in sufficient number, and it seemed doubtful whether Strauss could compete with these specialists in their own department. Besides, there was no one competent to take the place of Strauss and supply the world with new and piquant dances for every year's carnival season. Strauss, however, soon dispelled all these doubts. His early works, "Indigo" and the "Carnival," by which he got his training for the stage, were rather weak and of transient value, but in his later works, in "Fledermaus," "Spitzentuch," and finally in the "Merry War," he raised himself to the front rank of operetta composers. And, best of all, while supplying Germany with a new operetta every year, he did not fail to provide the usual number of new waltzes, polkas, and quadrilles. These he simply took out of his stage works, in which, as was to be expected, they formed the principal attraction. Thus it came to pass that residents of Vienna who were not so fortunate as to secure a ticket for the first night of a Strauss operetta were enabled to hear the best tunes in it a day or two later in their beer-gardens, ballrooms, and very shortly even in their backyards during the daily visits of the irrepressible organ grinder. His latest work, "The Merry War," was produced in Vienna early in the winter, and had some weeks ago already got beyond its sixtieth performance. It has also been produced in a score of other German and Hungarian cities, always with equal success. Vienna excepted, we doubt if in any city a performance of more uniform merit has been given than was witnessed on the 15th inst. at the Thalia Theatre. In the first place the scenery was so attractive, especially in the first act, where the background is taken up with a large semi-real waterfall and a mountain to the right, that it received a special salvo of applause when the curtain first rose. The number of persons on the stage was unusually large and gayly costumed, and the chorus proper, precise, and in perfect tune. The orchestra, including on this occasion a harp, was well trained and as effective as its size permitted it to be. To give Strauss's music its full significance and force it would have to be much larger, for Strauss has in his own department no rival in the art of instrumentation, as all can attest who have heard his waltzes played by Mr. Thomas's full orchestra. Much clever and laughable work was done by Frl. Jules, as commander of an army of female warriors; Herr Link, as a silly nobleman who is always letting out everybody's secrets; Herr Adolfi, a Dutch dealer in tulip bulbs, whose whole stock in trade has been consumed by a band of soldiers; his wife, Frl. Seebold, who did the best singing of the evening; Herr Klein, Frl. Schamidatus, Frl. Stubel, and others.

—The libretto, by Zell and Genée, while above the average in construction and dialogue, is too complicated in action to be summarized. Suffice it to state that the war which Strauss has set to music is called merry because it is waged between two Italian principalities for the sake of a ballet-dancer who has been engaged to dance at the same time for both parties, neither of which is willing to yield. In character the play is not comedy, but pure farce, leaving much to the by-play of the actors. Strauss's music, however, is of a much nobler character, being as far removed from the grotesque buffoonery of Offenbach as from the inanity of most operettas of the day. There are several uninteresting numbers, especially in the first and third acts; but in the first and second acts there are not only dances, but purely lyric pieces of great piquancy and novelty. Dr. Hanslick commends the "Merry War" for the absence of those pompous ensembles, *à la* Meyerbeer and Verdi, which Suppe, Milloecker, and others always introduce in their works. But it seems to us that the finales of all three acts of the "Merry War" are sufficiently complicated and overwhelming to appear in any grand opera; and they are besides characterized by great beauty and good taste. Instead of picking out and describing the best numbers in detail, we advise all, Americans and Germans, to go and pick them out for themselves. As there is not much dialogue, and the plot is explained in English on the programme, a knowledge of German is not essential to the enjoyment of the music, which bears repeated hearing. Indeed, we were surprised to find that, in spite of abundant applause and enthusiasm, some of the best numbers were not as fully appreciated at a first hearing as they deserved to be. If Strauss should come to America this summer, we trust the managers of the Thalia will secure his services for a few gala performances of his best operettas.

THE VOYAGE OF THE VEGA.

The Voyage of the Vega. By A. E. Nordenskiöld. London and New York: Macmillan. 1882. 8vo, pp. 756. Portraits, maps, and cuts.

THE essential facts of this memorable voyage have become familiar to every one through the newspapers. No voyage of modern date has excited an interest more widely spread among all classes in both hemispheres. The "circumnavigation of Europe and Asia" is an idea easily grasped, appealing powerfully to the imagination, and, in its final accomplishment, arousing admiration more than proportional to the scepticism previously generated by more than three centuries of failure. It will therefore suffice, for our purpose, to say that the *Vega* sailed from Gothenburg in Sweden on the 4th of July, 1878, was frozen in on the coast of Siberia on September 28th, wintered, was released on the 18th of July, 1879, and reached Stockholm *via* the Suez Canal on the 24th of April of the following year, without serious injury to the vessel or to the health of any of her crew. The homeward voyage from Japan was almost a triumphal progress—festivities, testimonials, and medals following one another almost to weariness at each succeeding port.

Apart from its incidents, it will be of interest to compare the voyage with Arctic expeditions in general, and profit by the lesson, if any, to be drawn from such comparison. There is no doubt that to the general public Arctic voyages are becoming wearisome. This results partly from the fact that the Arctic regions have been written about to satiety, and it is almost impossible to bring forward anything on the subject new to the reader, except geographical details which naturally have a strong family likeness among themselves. Admiration of "pure grit," which has long been the real support of Arctic adventure, palls, in time, when this quality appears to be exhibited uselessly while there are other channels open by which it might be made of use to mankind. It seems to us that the popular weariness is justified in the case of many Arctic expeditions with which we are familiar. The only sound ground upon which the public may properly be taxed for such voyages is that of the advancement of scientific research. That such work in the Arctic is absolutely required for the promotion of certain important branches of investigation is true. That such studies can be served by haphazard collections of inexperienced, enthusiastic, untrained, unscientific young gentlemen from the public service or private life, assembled in a more or less imperfect and imperfectly equipped vessel, and loaded with instruments of which they are incompetent to make thoroughly good use, is not true, and the public are perfectly justified in their expressions of distaste for such methods of proceeding. It is true, again, that inexperienced and untrained men have made praiseworthy contributions to knowledge, but it has been at a wholly unreasonable expenditure of life, strength, and means. It has been using bad tools where the best were needed and, in most cases, might have been obtained.

In refreshing contrast to this was the method adopted in the expedition of the *Vega*. The qualifications of the commander need no explanation; by years of training, research, and experience he has made himself the most competent living man for such a trust. His assistants, most of whom had had previous experience under his own eye in Arctic work, were all men of thorough education and competence for their respective duties. The vessel was chosen from among those built by hard-headed, common-sense business men for navigation in the ice, and, though of but moderate steam power, was adapted for her work to an uncommon degree. A better vessel might doubtless have been built, but the element of economy necessarily entered into the considerations involved. The party as well as its chief knew what was wanted to be done, and were prepared to do it, instead of having everything to learn and nobody to teach them.

The story of the voyage could have been told in a chapter or two. The scientific results, by intention or necessity, are largely reserved for treatment in another form,* though glimpses of their nature and pregnant hints appear here and there in the text. The work is thus largely devoted to a review of the progress of discovery in Siberia and along its Arctic border, of which the voyage of the *Vega* was the crowning

*"The Scientific Results of the *Vega* Expedition (Stockholm: Academy of Sciences), of which some 500 pages have appeared.

achievement. This review is very thorough, though it would seem as if some quite modern travels, such as those of Bush, Kennan, and various Russian officers, were at least as well worthy of mention as some of the completely unfruitful boat journeys of the early Promishleniks. A full and interesting account is given of the Samoyeds and other dwellers on the shores of the polar sea. This population appears to be considerably less numerous than formerly, having largely migrated southward into the more fertile and hospitable regions of Siberia since Russian rule ended internecine difficulties, and promoted more varied means of obtaining a livelihood. The Arctic bird and mammal fauna is well described, many lists of plants appear, and some of the invertebrates are very beautifully illustrated. The habits of the Tsauchu, commonly miscalled Chukchis, near the wintering-place of the *Vega*, are pretty fully illustrated and described. It is certain, however, that a wider experience would have somewhat modified the impressions produced on the *Vega* party by their intercourse with these people in this limited and relatively somewhat peculiar locality. A knowledge of the seasonal migrations of certain seals and the walrus about Bering Strait would have enabled a better estimate to be arrived at in relation to the fauna of the wintering-place. The abundant Kamtchatka wild sheep of the Chukchi peninsula go unnoticed.

Valuable observations on the character of the sea ice, and confirmation of the previously-announced opinion that the plains of Siberia and a part of eastern America thereto adjacent have not been subjected to glaciation, are recorded and discussed. The presence of fiords on the Chukchi peninsula is taken as possibly indicating a local glaciation there, and extremely important data as to the nature and manner of formation of the ground ice are presented to the reader. The work closes with an account of the voyage homeward, some interesting notes on Japan, an acknowledgment of the testimonials heaped upon the honored travellers, and thanks from the chief to the members of his party for their faithful coöperation, which alone made success possible. Marked by freedom from dogmatism, an evident desire to do full justice to his collaborateurs, an absence of controversy and self-appreciation, the work is what we might reasonably have expected from its author, having a previous knowledge of his acquirements as a scientist, and of that dry humor and charming sociability which distinguish him as a man.

It is now in order to consider in what manner this important work has been presented to the public in an English dress. The translation is by Mr Alexander Leslie, who, as well here as in the 'Life and Voyages' of Nordenskiöld, published in 1879, gives overwhelming evidence of his unacquaintance with the English language and his incompetency for the task he has undertaken. He testifies in a "translator's preface" to the services of two ladies who read proof for him, but it is not apparent that the proofs were read at all. Not only are typographical errors, recognizable as such, by no means rare, but the Swedish idioms have been reproduced with a literalness which is both ridiculous and annoying. Many words are taken over without translation—*e. g.*, "evertebrates," for invertebrates; "leister," for fish-spear. Many are literally translated, and thus no longer make sense; as, "blinding white," for shining; "our loose earthy layers," for alluvial strata; a "reddish yellow," for a reddish *yelk* (of an egg); "self-colored," for uniformly colored; "self-dead," not for suicides, but animals which have died a natural death. "At sight of a whale all men were out of themselves with joy." "Sound" constantly appears for strait. Egregious errors are introduced by translating a word meaning *shell-fish* as "crustacea," whereby the plate (p. 286) is denominated "Fossil crustacea of the tundra," when it does not contain a single figure of a crustacean (the same error is frequently found in the text, and "mollusk" is repeatedly and wrongly used as synonymous with *invertebrate*). "Find" is used as an equivalent for "discovery," and is for some occult reason italicized. The list of similar blunders might be almost indefinitely extended.

Another gross blemish is the want of uniformity in writing proper names. Those of persons are misspelled to a disagreeable extent. Thus we have Morton, Wrangel, Küber, Clarke, Eschscholz, Kellet, Maynod, for Martin, Wrangell, Kyber, Clerke, Eschscholtz, Kellett, and Maynard, and many more such. The names of places, in the variety and stupidity of their transliteration, beggar description. Their phonetic value does not appear to have been considered at all. The Russian word for land is reproduced in three different ways on one page; the "j" is used, with utter recklessness and no uniformity, for the value of "i" throughout. Thus we have Semlja in one case, Zemlya in another (why not Sjberja in a third?); Svjatojnos, Sviatojnos, and Swjatoinoss for Sviatoi-noss; Yenisej (why not Jenjsej?) for Yenisei, Chutskojnos for Tchukotskoi-noss, Tajmur for Taimyr, etc. Sometimes *v*, sometimes *w*, appears for the Russian *b* in allied or identical words. The word Chukchi, a bastard at best as an adjective, is deprived of its final vowel and made unpronounceable throughout a great part of the book. Distances are not reduced to any uniform or English standard, but appear in kilometres, Swedish miles (6.64 English miles), German miles, and geographical miles (these last often called "minutes" without any explanation); depths are in metres, not fathoms; heights in metres; small areas sometimes in square fathoms, sometimes in centimetres.

Were a classical work so bungled, the translator and publishers would be overwhelmed with derision, and much the same treatment is deserved in the present case. The illustrations are numerous and good, but badly printed, and with the Swedish references in some cases left unchanged; or, if changed, not done with accuracy. Lastly, the binding is poor, though the cover is in excellent taste and prettily designed.

ELTON'S ORIGINS OF ENGLISH HISTORY.

Origins of English History. By Charles Elton, sometime Fellow of Queen's College, Oxford, and of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister-at-Law; author of 'The Tenures of Kent,' etc. London: Bernard Quaritch. 1882. 8vo, pp. 458.

Mr. Elton's 'Origins of English History' is "the result of an attempt to rearrange in a convenient form what is known of the history of this country from those obscure ages which preceded the Roman invasion to the time when the English accepted the Christian religion and the civilizing influences of the Church." The last chapter treats of "the English conquest"; all the rest of the book is devoted to the period, generally left for the most part out of view by historians of England, when there were no people in the island who called themselves English. The first three chapters treat of Pytheas and other travellers and geographers of classical antiquity; chapters iv. to x. are devoted to the Celtic and non-Celtic tribes that occupied Britain before the Angles and Saxons; chapter xi., to the Roman occupation; chapter xii., to the English conquest.

To one holding Mr. Freeman's opinion, that the native population were, to all intents and purposes, exterminated by the English invasion, all this can hardly appear a part of the origins of English history, but at best a matter of antiquarian interest, touching those who occupied the island before the present race. Mr. Elton, however, is of those who believe that the English people, no less than the French—although no doubt in a less degree—are composed of a number of successive strata, as we may call them. A large part of the volume is devoted to the tribes who preceded the invaders of the fifth and sixth centuries, and, as he thinks, have left their traces in the population and the institutions, no less than in archæological remains; who, therefore, no less than the Angles and Saxons, form a constituent part of the "English" nation. Mr. Elton counts more of these strata than are usually recognized, and a considerable part of his work is devoted to substantiating his view, that there were two distinct races between the palæolithic age, of which really nothing is known, and the Celts. These two races were the neolithic tribes—dark, slight, and with long heads, "who built their long barrows and polished their weapons of stone"—and the men of the bronze age, tall and fair, with "round skulls, who were buried in round tombs and had learned to work in metal." These two races appear to be clearly made out; but here Mr. Elton takes issue with Mr. Skene, who, as cited upon page 158, considers the round-headed men to have been Celts, while Mr. Elton (p. 160) regards the Celts, as well as the Anglo-Saxons, as dolichocephalous.

The bronze-age invaders, who suddenly appear intermingled with the earlier neolithic inhabitants, were, he says (p. 144),

"tall men of the fair Finnish type that still prevails so largely among the modern inhabitants of Denmark and in the Wendish and Slavonian countries. They differed remarkably from the straight-faced, oval-headed men who are identified with the Celts, the Germans of pure blood, and the 'Anglo-Saxons' of our early history. They were large-limbed and stout, the women being tall and strong in proportion, as in a community where life was easy and food cheap. The men seem to have been rough-featured, with large jaws and prominent chins, and skulls of a short, round shape, with the forehead in many cases retreating rapidly, as if there were need of an occipital balance to carry off the heaviness of the large lower jaw."

These "strange and wild communities," Mr. Elton thinks (p. 170), afterward "became merged or included in the Pictish nation; and it may be hoped that something more will be learned about them when the Pictish sculptures are interpreted." Meantime, of the little that is known about the Picts, there is one fact (p. 174) that appears to point to a non-Aryan character. This is the custom of inheritance in the female line: the royal dignity "never went from father to son; but when the King died the crown went to his next brother, or, in default, to his sister's son, or in any event to the nearest male relation claiming through a female, and on the female side." This is a custom familiar enough in primitive nations, but only found in a few obscure instances among Aryan nations. "There is an abundance of positive evidence," continues Mr. Elton, "that the Aryan nations had established the 'agnatic system,' by which the family was confined to males and unmarried women descended from a patriarchal ancestor, even before the divisions which brought the Celts into Europe." This is perhaps stated too strongly (see Mr. Yonge's 'Essay on Anglo-Saxon Family Law,' p. 149); but at any rate the *family*, if not the agnatic family, does appear to have been a characteristic institution of the Aryan peoples. Mr. Elton's suggestion, that the exceptions to this (as among the Spartans) are instances of the survival of the customs of an older people, is worthy of consideration.

To the same cause, the persistence of pre-Aryan institutions, Mr. Elton traces, among other things, the curious custom of "Borough-English" or "Junior-Right," by which the inheritance passed to the youngest instead of the eldest son or daughter. This custom he finds, intermingled with gavelkind or primogeniture, in various parts of England, but nowhere in Ireland or Scotland; in various parts of Germany, but nowhere on the Scandinavian mainland; extensively in Eastern Europe, and in some other parts of the world. This, too, appears to be irreconcilable with the established doctrine in regard to the Aryan race—that of a primogeniture wholly different in origin from feudal primogeniture: the custom "which connected the eldest son with the duty of guarding the hearth and performing the family rites" (p. 210). (We will notice here, by the way, a very useful collection of the facts which testify to the worship of the hearth among Celtic and Slavic peoples.) This custom, therefore, at variance with the Aryan institutions with which it is surrounded, he ascribes to a survival of pre-Aryan usages. Whether Mr. Elton's theory that the round-headed race were non-Aryans be accepted or not, there can be no doubt that he has done good service by emphasizing so strongly the pre-Aryan elements in the population of England, and that the suggestion of a survival of their customs furnishes a useful hypothesis to explain the apparent inconsistency that exists between the strongly-marked Aryan institutions, built upon the family, and the singular customs that are found here and there among nations that pass as Aryan. The weakest point in the theory of ancient society worked out by the late Mr. Morgan is the assumption that the Greeks and Romans, the Germans and Slavs, went through all the phases of progress found among the Iroquois and the Mexicans.

We have given at this length Mr. Elton's theory about the intermediate race—tall, fair, brachycephalous—because it is really the most significant part of his book, and because upon it he takes distinct issue with so high an authority as Mr. Skene. As to the Celts themselves, who followed this bronze-age people, he presents a view different from that generally accepted. We are accustomed, on the assumption that the Irish and Welsh languages were as far apart as possible, to consider these as representing respectively the two branches of the Celtic race (Gaelic and Cymric), and to connect the Celts of Gaul with the Welsh of Britain rather than with the Gaels of Ireland. Mr. Elton shows, from the investigations of Professor Rhys, that the evidence of language has been misinterpreted: that in the early centuries (the fifth and sixth after Christ) "the Welsh and Irish languages resembled each other in the very points on which they afterward differed" (p. 101). Consistently with this view, instead of treating the Welsh and Irish as independent branches of the Celtic race, he treats "the Britons of the Interior" as a whole, in chap. ix., distinguishing them merely from "the Gauls in Britain" (chap. v.)—that is, the immigrants from Gaul, including the Cantii, the Trinobantes, the Iceni, the Catuvellaunian confederacy, etc., the occupants of southeastern Britain. The customs and institutions of each of these groups, with their state of civilization, are carefully described.

One of the best bits of work in the volume is the reconstruction, as we may almost call it, of the voyage of Pytheas, in the two opening chapters. All the fragments that mention this voyage are collected and compared, and a high degree of value and authority is vindicated—and it would seem established—for this pioneer explorer. His voyage, we are told (p. 15), was "from Cadiz around Spain to Brittany, from Brittany to Kent and several other parts of Britain, from the Thames to the Rhine, round Jutland along the Baltic to the Vistula (which was mistaken for the Tanais); thence out of the Baltic and up the Norwegian coast to the Arctic circle; thence to the Shetlands and the north of Scotland, and afterward to Brittany again; and so to the mouth of the Garonne, where he found a route leading to Marseilles." He "did not visit Ireland or the western coast of Britain." The results of these discoveries are seen in "the extent and accuracy of the knowledge which the earliest classical writers possessed concerning the north of Europe, as compared with the comparative ignorance and confusion of later times." If the whole book will be welcome to historical students, these chapters will be of great service in the study of classical philology. The two closing chapters, upon the Roman occupation and the English conquest, do not need any special notice, except to remark that they contain an admirable summary of the history of Britain during the first six centuries of the Christian era.

If we were disposed to point out any defect in the workmanship of this book, it would be that the author is not always clear and precise in the statement of his problems. In chap. vi., for example, a brief sketch at the outset of the conditions of the inquiry—exactly what is known and established as to the prehistoric tribes, and the substance of the leading theories—would have been very acceptable. We on this side of the Atlantic, at any rate, are not so familiar with the long and the round barrows, the dolichocephalic and brachycephalic remains, the dolmens and the cromlechs, as not to find some obscurity at first. The book is a remarkably handsome one, and is provided with copies of ten ancient maps, mostly from the Latin Ptolemy of 1478 and that of 1525.

HUNGARY.

"*Magyarland*": Being the Narrative of Our Travels through the Highlands and Lowlands of Hungary. By a Fellow of the Carpathian Society, author of 'The Indian Alps.' 2 vols. London. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1882.

"Our travels" are the travels of British ladies, and our "fellow" is one of them. She is a good sketcher with pen and pencil, and her descriptions of the Hungarian mountains and plains, of Magyars, Slovaks, Ruthenians, and other dwellers in the polyglot land encircled by the Carpathians, will afford much amusement and a little correct information to her readers. It is not her first journey to that romantic country. She opens her narrative with visions of Buda-Pesth which reappear before her fancy. "The porphyry hills of Buda stand out blue against the sky. . . . What stirring memories come crowding into the mind! What changes have come over this ancient city of kings since imperial Rome sat proudly enthroned within its confines, and in her days of power erected this [which?] amphitheatre, enduring type of her greatness and her brutality! How varied and mighty have been thy fortunes, proud Secambria, since thy proconsuls celebrated in this arena their cruel fêtes!" Which we must prosaically explain by adding that Old-Buda, a place adjoining the Buda of these visions, stands on the site of ancient Aquincum, a Roman town where emperors *might have* sat enthroned, and proconsuls *might have* celebrated fêtes, and that mediæval chroniclers talk of Sicambria, a royal seat of Attila on the Danube, which critical history rejects as a fiction. And then "we hear the triumphal strains of martial music that proclaim the overthrow of Rome and the erection of Attila's iron throne," and see "Árpád and his chieftains from the North, who celebrate in their turn, on the ruins of Attila's palaces, with the music of lyres and the clash of cymbals, the Magyar's conquest of Pannonia." All these appear to us—in a romantic dream—crowding out Charles Robert, Louis the Great, and Matthias Corvinus, who did sit enthroned in Buda. "Truly, a wondrous history!"

It was a lovely May morning on which our travellers started. In Paris they lingered for a day to call on a Hungarian merchant. He was absent, but a Frenchman volunteered advice as to the route. He could not refrain, however, from muttering: "Que les Anglais sont originals (*sic*)!" They ought to be satisfied with visiting Pesth. "Vous avez raisong, mussoo," said an American who was present. "Natur' made Hungary a first-class country, but they've got a mode of locomotion there that whips all creation. As to railways, they've none to speak of; and when you do find 'em, the pace at which the lumbering old machines crawl along is a caution even to snails. If you want to do the Danube," etc. This great familiarity of our authoress with typical Gallicism and Americanism may serve as an earnest of her accuracy in depicting Magyar things. In Venice she learned from a railroad *inspettore* that to the Hungarian frontier she had to go through Cormöns (*sic*), and that Italians "do not often travel, and to Hungary never," the climate of Hungary being "una (*sic*) clima da Diavolo." The necessary provisions for the inner man were procured; "for the necessities of the outer man" the travellers "were already well provided by the possession of a large bunda, a relic of former travels. This magnificent garment of Hungarian invention is a glorious institution," being grandly adapted to the climate of the country, where, as we are told to our amazement, "the chill which immediately follows the setting of the sun often causes the temperature to sink 20° Réaumur in the short space of two hours." (Hear, hear!) It is of Hungary, and not of the desert of Sahara, we are reading. And strange like the climate is also the great plain of Hungary, of which we have the following, not altogether fanciful, description:

"The majestic Alföld, or plains of Hungary—the European Pampas, as they have been called—though hardly as boundless as the Ocean, are scarcely less fickle: now soft and tender, under a calm and cloudless sky, as they slumber in the dreamy haze of sunny noontide, now all glorious in the resplendent hues of the out-goings and incomings of Day; anon fierce and tumultuous, as a violent wind sweeps over them, which, meeting with no obstacle whereon to spend its fury, whirls shrieking in frantic circles like an angry demon, tosses the trembling and resistless hillocks of sand into billows, or, with a hissing noise, lashes them into fragments like ocean spray. Here also in summer, as on the great African desert, the traveller crossing the sandy wastes is often misled by the delusive mirage. In the distance a lake or village or lonely *csárda* (tavern) lures him on and causes him to lose his way. . . . Who can describe the awful grandeur and stillness that reigns over this boundless region as Night comes hastening on, bringing with it the stars, to hang like silver lamps in the sapphire deeps?" etc.

Our authoress reaches the extreme southwestern corner of Hungary, and, glowing with poetic imagination, believes she has "now reached the threshold of the great plains," although the whole of the hilly and wooded Trans-Danubian Circle, a main division of the country, is still between her and those plains, not to speak of the real Alföld, which is in the eastern half of the kingdom. "The vast prairies we have now entered"—in fanciful thought—have ever been considered, we are told, "the Eldorado of brigands, who until recently—that is to say, until ten or twenty years ago—kept the otherwise peaceful dwellers of the plains in a perpetual

state of terror and alarm. . . . Amongst these brigands of modern time were men of education and family; not only this, it has even been darkly hinted that magnates who at one time held responsible positions under Government have been more than suspected of joining these marauders for the purpose of recruiting their enfeebled finances." More startling still, and evidently more "darkly hinted," is "the fact of there having been no fewer than twelve hundred of these robber-criminals imprisoned at the same time within the walls of the fortress of Szegedin, the capital of the Alföld." (We used to believe that Debreczin was the capital.) In explanation of this extraordinary state of things, we hear that the Turks held the greater part of the country in possession "until a comparatively recent date"—that is, strictly speaking, until two hundred years ago; that "the Magyars are radicals in all political and national affairs"—which makes us wonder how the Deák and Moderate Liberal parties have managed to control Hungarian politics from the restoration of the constitutional régime in 1867 to this day: that ——. But we have no more time for this book; we leave and recommend it to those who relish a modicum of true information mixed up with a goodly measure of fanciful and lively talk. We must, however, still protest against the profuse admixture of Magyar and Slavic words, half of which are incorrectly printed. Thus, to cite a few examples, we find on page 104, vol. i., "József" (three times) for *József*, "britzska" for *bricska*, and "Féjévar" for *Fejérvár;* on page 106, "Muska" for *muszka*, "Ángolok" for *angolok*, "Ió" for *Jó*, and again "Féjévar," followed by the same thrice-wrong word on the following page; on page 110, again three times, "József"; and on page 116, "Varósmarty" for *Vörösmarty*, the name of "the Schiller of Hungary."

Chancellorsville and Gettysburg. By Abner Doubleday, Brevet Major-General U. S. A. (Campaigns of the Civil War. Vol. VI.) New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1882.

In commenting upon the preceding volumes of this series we have endeavored to call attention to the unbiassed and unpartisan spirit in which they have been written, to the manner in which preconceived opinions have been laid aside in the endeavor to form an accurate and impartial historical judgment, and to the fact that the authors have made a careful study of all materials, published or unpublished, in the possession of the War Department; have used this material in proper proportions, have given full weight to conflicting testimony, and have named their authority for every statement that was likely to be disputed. This historical spirit has permeated each one of the preceding military narratives; and though many people may refuse to accept their conclusions, every one must acknowledge that they have been reached by fair-minded and patient investigation. This uniformity is now sharply broken by a book which is conspicuous for the absence of every one of the good qualities above referred to. The historical spirit is entirely lacking, startling statements are constantly made without any authority being given for them, questions of numbers engaged and losses incurred are quoted at second hand, minor details are dwelt upon at length, while great facts are hastily passed over, and there is a vein of personal animosity running through the book which throws discredit upon everything in it.

The campaign of Chancellorsville—most brilliantly begun, most pitifully ended—was lost primarily by Hooker's inefficiency, and secondarily by Howard's neglect to take proper precautions on his right flank. We think that there is hardly any question at this day of the relative importance of the faults committed by these two officers. Even for Howard's neglect Hooker is himself in some measure responsible, for although he sent Howard a positive order at 9:30 A. M., saying that there was reason to suppose the enemy was moving toward his right, and directing him to be prepared for an attack in that quarter, yet, at 4:10 P. M., he sent a despatch to Sedgwick, saying that the enemy was flying, trying to save his trains. By this despatch Hooker showed that he had modified his opinions of the morning, and did not consider an attack upon Howard as probable. Had he still anticipated an attack on his right, it would have been his duty to reiterate his orders to Howard. Nothing, however, can relieve Howard from the responsibility for his inaction in this matter, which amounted to disobedience of orders of a very serious character. But the injustice done by this book consists in bringing Howard's action into such prominence as to make it appear that the whole battle was lost by him. So far is this from being the case that, even considering the Eleventh Corps as completely destroyed and non-existent, Hooker had still nine men to five of Lee; and both before and after the rout of this corps Hooker committed such mistakes, and was so feeble and irresolute, that his defeat was certain against such antagonists as Lee and Jackson.

If the battle was lost by any one single mistake, it was already lost on the 1st of May, when Hooker, after meeting but trifling opposition, voluntarily withdrew from the open ground toward Tabernacle Church into the dense thickets of the Wilderness. The disaster was increased by Hooker's ridiculous order to Sedgwick, by the manner in which he allowed himself to be driven back by an inferior force on the 3d of May, and by his utter inaction on the 4th of May during the severe attack upon Sedgwick. In short, Hooker was fairly beaten by the superior skill and boldness of his antagonist, and his responsibility for the defeat was clearly and sharply defined. This book endeavors to divide the responsibility and throw the greater part of it upon a subordinate general, against whom, as is evident throughout, the author has strong feelings of personal resentment.

The battle of Gettysburg is described in the same personal vein, deficient in dignity as well as in accuracy and impartiality. From beginning to end Meade is nowhere commended, and the criticisms passed upon him are not those just criticisms which can be made upon any commanding general, but are mere sneers. At one point they pass beyond all bounds in asserting that "there can be no question" that Meade desired to retreat on the night of July 2d, but was restrained by his corps commanders, when, in fact, Meade testified under oath, in the most explicit language, that he had no such intention, and all the principal generals, except Butterfield, testified to the same effect. The animus against Meade is so marked that it becomes necessary to point out—what otherwise would be unjust—that General Doubleday, having been temporarily in command of the First Corps, was relieved on the night of July 1st by a junior officer, and that on July 7th he left the army, and passed his time during the remainder of the war as a member of courts-martial and military commissions. In his testimony before the Committee on the Conduct of the War, he ascribed his relief to the following cause: "No man who is an anti-slavery man or an anti-McClellan man can expect decent treatment in that army as at present constituted." That was his opinion in March, 1864, and there is no reason to believe it has changed. He now believes it to be his duty "to give to posterity the benefit of his personal recollections." Such recollections are very interesting, but they are in no sense history; and the whole tenor of this book is so essentially different from that of the series in which it is placed, and there are so many other good accounts of the battle of Gettysburg, that we hardly think it necessary to follow these personal recollections in detail.

Transactions of the Cambridge Philological Society. Vol. I., from 1872–1880. Edited by J. P. Postgate, M.A., Honorary Secretary. London: Trübner. 1881.

The Society whose Transactions are here recorded has existed only eight years. It started into life under the auspices of two of the most eminent members of the University of Cambridge, Prof. Cowell and Mr. R. C. Jebb. The first list of the Council of the Society includes most of those whose names have obtained recognition out of England—Munro, Skeat, Paley, J. E. B. Mayor—each of whom has contributed something to the present volume. As Oxford has not at present taken the same course, and has indeed only recently begun to print a yearly abstract of the proceedings of its own Society, a unique interest attaches to this first collective record of the philological activity of the sister university. The *Journal of Philology*, the only recognized English organ in this department, is also published by Cambridge; and were it not for the newly-started *Anecdota Oxoniensia*, a really enlightened undertaking inaugurated by Max Müller and other ardent supporters of research, the world at large might imagine that somnolence had overtaken the older university, or at least that it was contented with illuminating its own members.

The volume before us is, as might be expected, mainly occupied with discussions of difficulties in classical authors—notes, in fact, on particular passages from the works most recognized in the classical tripos. As this extends over a very wide field, the papers are of course highly multifarious, including not only such well-known works as the Homeric poems, the Tragics, Thucydides, Cicero, Catullus, Virgil, Horace, etc., but also those less widely studied—Pindar, Hesiod, Theophrastus, the Greek orators, Lucilius, Tibullus, Propertius, etc. Aristotle has an able exponent in Mr. H. Jackson, who has also, in conjunction with Mr. Paley, contributed to one of the rare discussions we have been able to find in these 420 pages on Plato. Prof. Mayor's papers are on the whole the best part of the book. They fall into two heads, (1) lexicographical, (2) antiquarian. Under the first head special attention may be called to the remarks on the last two editions of Forcellini's 'Lexicon' (De Vit, Corradini), and on the American Latin Dictionary of Lewis and Short, which Prof. Mayor (probably the greatest living authority on the subject) pronounces to be more copious and trustworthy than any of the same bulk that has yet appeared in any language. To the second head belong the papers tracing the origin and growth of the expressions "poetical licence," "to save appearances," "in puris naturalibus," "hemina sanguinis." Mr. Munro contributes an ingenious paper on a well-known passage of Lucilius, and another on the era of that author, who, since the publication of L. Müller's important edition, has begun to be better known and more studied. To complete this triad of eminent philologers, there are two or three papers by the late Richard Shilleto—on Greek compounds with ἀ- and δυσ-; on συνασοφεῖν and ἀσοφία; on Greek deponents with aorist in -θην—all of which will be found fully up to the level of that great scholar at his best.

Among the contributions of less notable men may be mentioned two articles by Hermann

Hagen on Greek army doctors and on the treatment of the bodies of criminals at Athens; Mr. Pearson's note on Σείριος ἀστήρ in Hes. op. 415, and several short papers by Mr. Ridgway. Mr. A. W. Verrall's contributions are characterized by a perverted ingenuity which not only fails to produce conviction, but produces a strong reaction to plain sense; they show, however, considerable reading and a great deal of vigor. Mr. Postgate, the Society's secretary and editor, has some interesting remarks on Propertius, and has added to the volume a good résumé of Propertian criticism in 1880. Dr. Hayman, of St. John's College, Oxford, has the singular fortune of having two lengthy and somewhat tiresome papers, "On the Connection between the Legends of Greek Tragedy and Heroic Myth," and "Remarks on Prof. Paley's 'Post-Epic or Imitative Words in Homer,'" printed *in extenso*—a compliment which they hardly deserve from the intrinsic merits of their style or matter. There are a few articles on inscriptions, and one or two on MSS. hitherto uncollated. Mr. Skeat and Mr. Magnusson represent non-classical philology. Finally, as a sort of appendix, are added five reviews of what was written in 1880 on Homer, Plato, Aristotle, Propertius (mentioned above), and Servius. The last is by Prof. H. Nettleship, of Oxford, and is, though short, one of the most considerable articles in the volume. It is much to be hoped that this able scholar will do for the Philological Society of his university what Mr. Postgate has done for Cambridge.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Tallahassee Girl. [Round-Robin Series.] Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Adams, C. K. A Manual of Historical Literature. New York: Harper & Brothers.
Alexander, Mrs. The Freres: a Novel. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Amory, Martha Babcock. John Singleton Copley: His Domestic and Artistic Life. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Angier, A. Charles Lamb. New York: Harper & Bros.
Bain, A. James Mill: a Biography. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $2.
Bain, A. John Stuart Mill: a Criticism, with Personal Recollections. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1 25.
Bell, T. J. History of the Water Supply of the World. Cincinnati: Peter G. Thompson. 75 cents.
Blaine's Eulogy on Garfield. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 50 cents.
Blanchard, R. Abraham Lincoln the Type of American Genius: an Historical Romance. New York: Charles L. Woodward. $1.
Boston Record Commissioners' Report. City Records, 1660-1701. Boston.
Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexikon, Parts 11-13. New York: L. W. Schmidt.
Christian Religion: Articles from the *North American Review*, by Col. Robert Ingersoll, Judge J. S. Black, and Prof. George P. Fisher. New York: *North American Review*. 50 cents.
Dana, A. H. Enigmas of Life, Death, and the Future State. New York: Charles P. Somerby. $1 25.
Dorr, Julia C. R. Daybreak: an Easter Poem. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 60 cents.
Doyle, E. Cagliostro: a Dramatic Poem. New York: W. B. Smith & Co. $1.
Farlow, W. G. Marine Algæ of New England and Adjacent Coast. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Galdós, B. P. Gloria: a Novel. From the Spanish. 2 vols. New York: Wm. S. Gottsberger. $1.
Gerard, E. D. G. Beggar My Neighbor. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Giberne, Agnes. The World's Foundations: or, Geology for Beginners. New York: Robert Carter & Bros.
Gurteen, S. H. A Handbook of Charity Organizations. Buffalo: The Author.
Harte, Bret. The Luck of Roaring Camp; including other Papers. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Holden, Prof. E. S. Studies in Central American Picture-Writing. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Journal of Social Science, No. xv. Saratoga Papers of 1881. Part 2. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Memories of Old Friends: Being Extracts from the Journals and Letters of Caroline Fox, 1835-1871. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.

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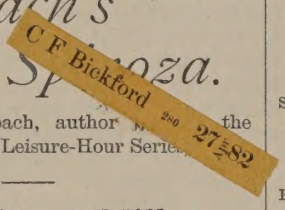
WILL PUBLISH SATURDAY:

Auerbach's Spinoza.



By Berthold Auerbach, author of 'On the Heights.' 16mo (Leisure-Hour Series).

John Stuart Mill.

A Criticism. With Personal Recollections. By Alexander Bain, Emeritus Professor of Logic, University of Aberdeen. 12mo, $1.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 30, 1882.

The Week.

THERE was no gold exported during the week, and at the close foreign exchange, while near to the specie-shipping point, did not warrant exports. The New York banks gained $184,000 in their surplus reserve during the week, which, considering the usual drain of money to the New England and Middle States to facilitate April settlements, was better than was expected. The Treasury on the 1st of April will begin paying out about $7,500,000 for interest, and, on the 8th, $20,000,000 for 3½ per cent. bonds included in the 108th call; these sums may be prepaid, but orders to that effect have not yet been issued. The New York money market has been easier, and rates lower, than at this season for many years; and in every European money centre the tendency is to lower rates for money, the Bank of England having during the week reduced its posted discount rate to 3 per cent., and the Bank of France to 3½ per cent. The foreign markets are taking more and more of our securities each week, and it may be that this demand will be sufficient to prevent further gold exports. The upward movement in prices at the Stock Exchange which began two weeks ago has continued, and has gained strength as the week has advanced. The large speculative capitalists who started the upward movement continue on the side of higher prices, and, besides the foreign demand for stocks, the domestic speculative and investment demands have been large. The business of the railroads is said to be good, and this more because of the increase in local and miscellaneous traffic than on account of the movement of grain, which continues comparatively light. The general trade of the country is apparently sound and prosperous; the amount of goods changing hands is very large; credits are not unduly expanded, and collections are good. A bad feature, however, is the labor trouble, which in the Eastern textile factories and in the coal districts has assumed important proportions. The course of our foreign trade continues to run toward increasing merchandise imports and diminished exports.

The bill "regulating" the Chinese immigration is now before the President, and there is some talk of his vetoing it. The only ground on which he could do so would be that it violates the Treaty of 1880. That provides that the United States Government "may regulate, limit, or suspend the coming or residence" of Chinese laborers, but "may not absolutely prohibit it," and that the limitation or suspension shall be "reasonable." The bill suspends the immigration for twenty years, and the question is raised whether this is reasonable, and on this question the President will probably have to pass. It may be said as a general rule that any legislation fixing a period during which a human being may or may not do a thing, must, in order to be reasonable, take into consideration the length of human life. A man's working years, or the period during which he is likely to take any important step, such as emigration, for the bettering of his condition, may be said to run from his twentieth to his forty-fifth year. To prohibit a Chinese laborer from coming here for the next twenty years would therefore amount in practice to total prohibition for all laborers who have already reached their twentieth year, or, in other words, for the generations which have already reached manhood. We do not see how this can possibly be considered reasonable, or can be regarded as anything but an evasion of the treaty. Five or even ten years' suspension would not be open to the same objection, because it would only cover a quarter or half of a man's years of enterprise and hard labor, and would serve all the purposes of an experiment, and might be renewed, if the "Mongolian hordes" still threatened us, at its expiration.

The President will do well to bear in mind, too, that as a party measure for use at the next election, the bill has already failed. It was introduced to "make capital" for the Republican party on the Pacific slope. The Republicans were by means of it to appear to the industrious whites of California to be holding the door firmly against the heathen rush. But the Democrats have in a most disgusting manner come in and voted more solidly for the bill than the Republicans. They are, therefore, entitled to half the capital which may be made out of the enterprise, and if one side gets as much capital out of it as the other, it is the same thing as if neither got any at all. The President can, therefore, deal with the measure without regard to party benefit, on broad grounds of public policy and national good faith. He may very profitably consider, too, the possible future inconvenience of putting in the statute book a formal recognition of the different social and political values of different races. He must have noticed how eagerly the Southern whites welcomed the acknowledgment which the bill makes that race may be an incurable defect for political purposes, and that particular localities have a right to call for national legislation against any race they do not like. Nothing could be more convenient for those who maintain that the negro problem is not yet settled, and who may some day in the not very far future be a more potent body in Washington than they are now. In fact, Senator Jones admitted as much in his speech, Republican though he be.

The effect of mere bluster in the conduct of foreign relations can scarcely be more forcibly illustrated than by Mr. Blaine's attempts at a "spirited foreign policy." His celebrated despatch to Mr. Lowell on the exclusive right of the United States to protect the neutrality of the interoceanic canal, or rather to control the latter—a despatch in which the tail of the British lion was demonstratively twisted—had the natural effect of making the question a matter of national honor with Great Britain, and of drawing from Lord Granville a very cool but very decided reference to the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, with an array of argument which Mr. Blaine did not show himself able to meet. The attempt to urge the mediation of the United States upon Mexico and Guatemala, to settle a boundary question between them, resulted in a note from the Mexican Government teaching the American Secretary of State a very impressive lesson in history, and then in a settlement of the disputed question without American interference. And now it is reported by telegraph that the Colombian Congress is likely to call upon the Executive of that Confederation "to give a year's notice to the United States of the intention of the Government of Colombia to withdraw from the stipulations and obligations of the treaty of December 12, 1846, between the two countries." It is further stated that "Article 35 of that treaty is particularly condemned as vague and not easy of interpretation, and likely to bring about discord between the contracting parties." This is the very same article referred to by Mr. Blaine in his despatch to Mr. Lowell as entrusting the United States with the exclusive right and duty to protect the neutrality of the interoceanic canal. It appears now that the manner in which Mr. Blaine availed himself of that article in his discussion of the canal question resulted in starting in the Colombian Congress a movement in favor of rescinding the whole thing, and of "paving the way for a joint guarantee of neutrality between the Republics of the New and the commercial nations of the Old World in behalf of the Panama Canal."

Shipherd's testimony on Wednesday week was more guarded than that given the day before, and seemed to indicate a desire to "hedge"; but he stated one or two facts of some importance as giving a clew to his own mysterious operations in connection with the Peruvian Company. It seems that he retained as "counsel" not only Senator Blair and Mr. Boutwell, but Mr. William H. Robertson, Collector of this port. He declares that Senator Blair at first refused to take a retainer, but afterward consented to take one, which he finally returned on finding that the matter was to come up in Congress. There is nothing remarkable in Shipherd's retaining lawyers; but why should he retain these three particular men? As to Senator Blair, he testified on the 21st instant that his motive was to get the ear of Mr. Blaine, with whom the New Hampshire Senator was on intimate terms; he now says that this was also one of his reasons for employing Mr. Boutwell. To use his own words, "the further question was discussed as to just how the Secretary of State should be approached; my own suggestion was that the approach should be made by Governor Boutwell; that he was counsel for the United States [in the Franco-American Claims Commission]; that the Secretary of State was in such relations to him that he could at any time have proper access to him; and I asked him to un-

dertake this affair." The retainer of Mr. Robertson was undoubtedly dictated by the same motive. It is, at least, difficult to see any possible reason for thinking of him as one of three lawyers in all the length and breadth of the United States to do legal work for such a concern as the Peruvian Company, except his being one of the most prominent "Blaine men" in the country. Shipherd's account of his interviews with Messrs. Boutwell and Blair is very funny when we remember what the Cochet claim against Peru is. Mr. Boutwell declared that there was "not a flaw in it," while Mr. Blair remarked that the Cochet claim opened to the United States "the grandest opportunity that was ever afforded to a nation in the history of the world."

Senator Brown, of Georgia, while speaking in favor of the Tariff Commission Bill, admitted that the tariff was unjust in some particulars, but contended that it would be necessary to raise some $200,000,000 of revenue yearly from it, and that it should be adjusted so as to promote manufacturing interests. He did not say this as a possible Republican or as an Independent, but as a representative of the Democratic party, of which he protested that he was "proud to be a member." He announced that this grand old party "would not in the next campaign insert in its platform a plank of tariff for revenue only." It might be said that it makes little difference whether the Democrats do so or not, because in 1880 they were afraid to use it and promptly threw it away. Still, if they shall be of the same mind in 1884 that they were four years earlier, for the sake of consistency and frankness it is to be hoped they will say what they mean. Senator Brown predicts that they will do this, and that the party will "speak for a tariff for revenue with incidental protection." This would not be surprising. It would only illustrate the curious and fatal capacity of the Democratic party not only for holding fast to old doctrines which have become obsolete and have lost favor with the people, but also for abandoning time-honored principles at the very time when they show fresh vitality and are gaining wider popular acceptance.

Now that there is to be an attempt to construct a new navy, we trust it will be borne in mind that the navy consists of men as well as of ships, and that no improvements or outlay in construction will make up for low morale in the crews. If we may judge from the goings-on of a certain portion of the public in the Mason case, our respect for discipline does not increase in the same ratio as our wealth and mechanical ingenuity. Putting drunken men back into the service after dismissal by court-martial is a practice for which no skill on the part of our shipbuilders can compensate. But this is only part of a series of abuses. Officers unfit for their places for other reasons than drunkenness are kept in the navy, by the practice—of which, by the way, we have just had an example in the Whittaker case and the Mason case—of setting aside the verdicts of courts-martial on technical grounds without ordering a new trial; by the abuse of the pardoning power, which is the drunkard's best friend; and by Congressional influence in reversing decisions of naval courts and retiring boards. In fact, public sentiment with regard to the moral side of the navy problem is in a decidedly lax condition, and something ought to be done to brace it up while we are constructing those new ships which are to make the British property-holder quake in his boots. He would not quake a bit if he knew how many drunkards we kept in commission, and how much pardoning of naval scamps we did, no matter what stories he heard of what was going on in our navy-yards.

Judge-Advocate-General Swaim, who, after recommending the setting aside of the finding of the court-martial in the Whittaker case on a technical defect, has now done the same thing in the Mason case, without in either instance ordering or recommending a new trial, may be a very useful sort of man for an Administration to have on the premises, but it is nevertheless true that his performances are excellently well calculated to bring military justice into complete contempt. In fact, as long as the United States has him in its service the need of courts-martial does not clearly appear. Those that are held under his rule appear to resemble much the jury which was summoned in Nevada by some lynchers to try a Mexican horse-thief. It once or twice brought in a verdict of acquittal, but was sent back by the presiding Vigilant for further consideration. At last, seeing what was wanted, it found the man guilty, and was thereupon informed by the court that this time its verdict was correct, and that to save time the culprit had been hanged about half an hour previously. If the Whittaker and Mason courts-martial had been more knowing, they might have saved themselves a great deal of trouble by finding out beforehand what kind of verdict was needed. Courts-martial whose findings can be set aside on technical grounds by anybody's order, without the ordering of a new trial, are, to speak plainly, mere farces; and if the practice of setting them aside in this way in important cases goes much further, it will be far better, both for public morality and military discipline, that they should be abandoned as a means of administering justice. There has been so much of it in both the Army and Navy of late, in cases which do not attract public attention, that it is no exaggeration to say that American naval and military service has ceased to be governed by law, and has passed, like that of the Sultan, under a régime of favoritism worked through intrigue. The Whittaker and Mason cases differ from many which have gone before only in their conspicuousness. If the Judge-Advocate can set aside decisions of the military courts on technical grounds, without directing a retrial, which furnishes the only check on arbitrary or corrupt interference with the course of justice, he had better be allowed to announce openly beforehand which offenders he wishes to be punished and which to go free, and thus save expense, and above all save the country the scandal of having courts of justice turned into a laughing-stock.

Whittaker had been found guilty by the court-martial of imposture and perjury, and sentenced to dismissal from the service and imprisonment. He will now escape punishment as a criminal, but will not be, as he confidently expected, wholly restored to his place in the Academy. He is dropped for want of proficiency in his studies, and says he is going to learn shorthand and become a reporter or some kind of journalist. The moral injury which has been done him by sending him to West Point is probably irreparable, and the Congressman to whom he owes his nomination has much to answer for. Persons who are put into new and trying positions in order to make good the title of an oppressed race or class to equal rights, should be carefully selected and made of the very best stuff, because their failure is not and cannot be an individual misfortune simply. Poor Whittaker, however, seems to have had no qualification for the responsibility that was thrust upon him, except his color, and prejudice against color cannot be conquered simply by color. He has now left his race worse off by far than if he had not gone to West Point at all. We trust that when the next trial of a colored cadet is made he will be carefully selected, and offer the best guarantees as to his moral and mental stamina.

General Swaim's report in the Mason case may be called absolutely original, and merits the attention of Mr. Gilbert, the operatic author. He recommends the setting aside of the decision, on the ground that Mason, when he fired in through the window of Guiteau's cell, did not see Guiteau, who, as a matter of fact, was reclining on his cot, and had a substantial brick wall between him and his assailant, and could not have been hit by the ball. Moreover, "the exclamation of Mason, after having fired, that he didn't know whether he killed Guiteau or not, shows that he fired purely at random, without any reasonable certainty of assaulting him or killing him." Accordingly, if you knew a man was lying under a bundle of hay in a barn, and you wanted to kill him, you would be at liberty to fire liberally into the hay without being guilty of a felonious attempt, provided you "exclaimed" afterward that you did not know whether you had hit him or not. Under the same rule, the practice of the Irish intimidators of firing in through the windows of houses would be, too, reduced to mere glass breaking. One might shoot a man in the breast at point-blank range, but if it turned out that he had on a bullet-proof vest, and that the ball had glanced off, he could not say that an attempt had been made on his life. General Swaim thinks the court might have found Mason guilty of conduct prejudicial to good order and discipline in firing off his rifle at all, but as it did not, there is nothing for it but to let him go free. We trust the President, in spite of the "pressure" brought to bear on him, will deal with this matter in a manner worthy of the best morality of the country. In any case, it would be far better to pardon Mason boldly on the ground that he was a good fellow, than release him on the wretched quibbles which General Swaim has dished up.

The Irish in this city are making use, in behalf of the Irish-Americans now confined in British dungeons, of the Act of Congress of July 27, 1868, in order to urge the President into taking some action for their liberation. The Act says that "whenever it is made known to the President that any citizen of the United States has been unjustly deprived of his liberty by or under the authority of any foreign government, it shall be the duty of the President forthwith to demand of that government the reasons of such imprisonment, and if it appears to be wrongful, and in violation of the rights of American citizenship, the President shall forthwith demand the release of such citizens." This act is pure buncombe, and if the Irish had more regard than they seem to have for their reputation for political sense and shrewdness, they would not only expect no good from it, but would never publicly mention it. It was passed in 1868 to stop the mouths of the Fenians, and has every mark of contempt for the Irish understanding. It cannot be "made known" to the President that a man has been unjustly deprived of his liberty in a foreign country, without a judicial inquiry, and even if the judicial inquiry showed that he had been unjustly imprisoned, the President would have no right to demand his release unless he had been *illegally* imprisoned. The President cannot see that Americans abroad get abstract justice; his business is to see that they get legal justice. Moreover, he has no shadow of authority, nor can Congress give him any, to demand the liberation of any prisoner held by the constituted authorities of a civilized state. All that he can ask for is that such prisoner be brought to trial, so that his guilt may be judicially ascertained. It is only through such trial that the President can know whether "the imprisonment is wrongful, and in violation of the rights of American citizenship." If the ordinary criminal court of the country finds the American citizen guilty, the President's mouth is closed, whatever his opinion may be of the verdict. All that he has a right to complain of in the case of the Irish-American "suspects" now in dungeons is that they are not brought to trial, though the courts are sitting, or else expelled from the country. This is a wrong, and ought to be remedied. Nothing does more to discredit the Irish cause with the civilized world than the way Irishmen allow themselves to be gulled by pieces of Anglo-Saxon demagogy like this act. An Irishman hawking it round as a cure for his woes is a most melancholy though somewhat ludicrous spectacle.

They have been having a judicial impeachment case in Minnesota, the facts in which are of some interest. The testimony will be found extremely entertaining by persons who find entertainment in that kind of testimony. According to a brief abstract given in the *Times*, it reveals the impeached judge in all conceivable forms of intoxication, riot, and debauchery. One class of witnesses describes him drunk in the court-room, unwashed, blear-eyed, maundering, bullying witnesses and lawyers, and making the transaction of business impossible. On several occasions court was adjourned to give him time to recover. Some of his official performances were most grotesque. One of his charges to the jury is known throughout the district as "Cox's temperance lecture." Another witness describes a case in Lyon county, in which Judge Cox held court in a saloon to issue naturalization papers, and demanded that the newly-made citizen should "treat" before he would sign the papers. It seems to have been the regular practice for court, bar, jury, witnesses, and spectators to get drunk together nightly, and the witnesses testified that Cox never passed the bottle. One witness wanted to describe a scene where the rest of the party rolled the fuddled judge over on his back and played cards upon his judicial abdomen, but the matter was ruled out. The judge has been removed by the Senate, and disqualified from holding judicial office for three years—a sentence which is almost as entertaining as the evidence.

While it is impossible not to sympathize with the feelings of Dr. Lamson's relatives and friends over his present unhappy plight, we trust there is no truth in the story that they are trying to get Mr. Lowell to ask for a reprieve in order to give time to produce evidence, not that Dr. Lamson is insane, but that there is "insanity in his family." This ought to be impossible after the exhibition of the insanity defence which we have been offering the world in the Guiteau case. No suggestion of Dr. Lamson's insanity was made before or during the trial. No such suspicion appears to have been entertained about him. The evidence of his having procured and administered aconite to his brother in-law was overwhelming, and that of his having made a similar attempt on him previously was almost equally strong. The motive was supplied by the fact that he would get possession of half the boy's estate. The amount was small, it is true, but it was large for a man who was unable to pay his board bills. The one circumstance in his favor, that he went to London to surrender when he heard he was suspected, is neutralized by the fact that he might have been arrested in France, and that he had no money to fly with, even if flight would not have been a confession of guilt.

There is no question of the fairness of the trial, or of the ability of the defence. In the transaction itself, as proved on the trial, and in the Doctor's demeanor during the trial, there was every sign, not only of sanity, but of great acuteness and deliberation. It is not surprising that his friends should exhaust every resource to procure a mitigation of punishment, but it is no part of the United States Minister's business to interfere in the matter, because there is no way in which the case can be made to wear an international character. Moreover, no one who reads the evidence can avoid seeing that if Dr. Lamson were held to be insane on the ground that there was insanity in his family, it would amount to a plenary indulgence for everybody who could show that he had at some time or other had an aunt, or cousin, or grandmother in a lunatic asylum. This would enormously increase our criminal population, and strike the most tremendous blow against moral responsibility the world has ever seen. There is nothing deducible from a man's having had insanity in his family, except a tendency to insanity. It does not follow, because a man has had an insane father or mother, that he is himself insane. It only follows that he has a constitutional liability to become insane. Nor would it follow that if such a man committed a crime, it was the madness working in him which led him to commit it, unless we could show that the sane never committed crimes. The fact is, however, that the immense majority of crimes are committed by persons who must be considered sane, if anybody is to be considered sane and society is to be held together by laws. The only theory on which it is possible for courts and juries to work in dealing with crime is, that every man must be punished for doing what he knew beforehand would bring upon him punishment which he feared and tried to avoid. This may not be a perfect hypothesis, but for the purposes of civilization it is a good working hypothesis, and must endure till something better is discovered.

The division in the House of Commons on the question of adjourning the debate on a resolution calling for the equalization of the borough and county franchise, will probably furnish the Ministry with an additional reason for pushing the closure. The majority against it was only 192 to 137, but it showed that the House was ready to entertain the proposal if made, or was, in other words, an invitation to the Ministry to bring in their County Franchise Bill. Lord Hartington has announced in various speeches that if they do not get the closure they will dissolve Parliament, which has acted as a powerful whip on the lukewarm Liberals, and will probably make them ready for anything in reason. In these times few members are sure of reëlection, and it costs nearly every man $5,000 to secure it, and there are not many Liberals who would not sooner follow Gladstone as far as he is likely to go than incur this risk and outlay. With the county franchise lowered to the borough level, the Ministry could go to the country with a tolerable certainty of gaining enough county seats to make up for the loss which they will undoubtedly incur in Ireland. It is all but certain that forty or fifty Parnellites will take the place of as many Irish Liberals, giving the extreme Irish section the power of turning the scale, if the English and Scotch members remain divided as they are now. So that it is almost a necessity for the Ministry to make a further inroad into the Conservative strongholds—the counties—at the next election. In the boroughs at present every man who is a householder and pays poor rates, or is a lodger in lodgings which, unfurnished, would rent for fifty dollars a year, has a vote. In the counties the voter must, besides being a ratepayer, be the owner of lands bringing $25 a year over and above all rents and charges, or the occupier of lands of the ratable value of $60 a year. This excludes the farm laborers and a large proportion of the village population, and gives the landlords in most counties the control of the constituency.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE House passed the Chinese Bill on Thursday in substantially the same form as it came from the Senate. This is the only business of importance which has been done by the House during the week.

The Chinese Bill has been sent to the President, but he will not act upon it until the question has been considered and examined in all its bearings by the Cabinet.

The Senate passed the Tariff Commission Bill on Tuesday, by a vote of 38 to 15, after an uninteresting debate, and the discussion of the bill in the House was begun on the same day.

The Senate Committee on Civil Service authorized Senator Pendleton, on Tuesday, to report the Civil-Service Reform Bill as it was originally introduced by him in the early part of December.

The Senate Committee on Foreign Relations has agreed to report for ratification the two commercial treaties recently negotiated with Servia and Rumania. The Committee on Military Affairs has agreed to recommend the passage of a bill to increase the permanent annual appropriation of $200,000 for arming the militia of the several States and Territories to $600,000.

The Speaker laid before the House, on Monday, a communication from the Secretary of the Interior, in response to a resolution calling for an estimate of the amount of money which would be required to pay the pensions of the survivors of the Mexican and Indian wars prior to 1846, from which it appears that $65,380,480 will be required to pay the Mexican war pensions, and $28,201,632 to pay the Indian wars pensions.

The House Committee on Education and Labor has reported adversely a bill to reimburse the College of William and Mary in the sum of $65,000 for property destroyed during the late war.

The House Committee on Appropriations have decided to recommend non-concurrence with the Senate amendment to the Post-office Bill, restoring the franking privilege to Senators and Representatives.

The examination of Shipherd before the House Committee on Foreign Affairs was continued on March 22. The witness said that no offer of stock had been made to any officer, "diplomatic or otherwise," except General Hurlbut, and that no intimation had been made to him by any officer of a desire for an interest in the company, and that no officers of the United States had any interest in the company except Collector Robertson, of New York, who had received a retainer for legal services. The other testimony was in regard to the way in which Shipherd had become interested in the company, and other matters of minor importance. On Thursday the examination was continued, and Shipherd testified that overtures had been made to another member of Congress besides Senator Blair to accept a retainer from the company, but that it was finally declined, "on the sole ground that the interests involved might in some form come before Congress." When asked what were his motives for engaging the legal services of this gentleman—whether it was on account of his political relations to the Executive Department or simply for his legal ability—Mr. Shipherd replied that it was for "reasons purely personal to the member himself, as distinguished from any aid which he might render as a member of Congress." On Friday a physician's certificate was presented to the committee, stating that Mr. Shipherd was ill and would not be able to leave his room for several days, and the investigation was thereupon adjourned.

The Washington *Post* printed an interview with Mr. Blaine on the Chili-Peru question on Friday. Mr. Blaine maintained that "Peru is to be despoiled, and that the profits of the spoliation are to be divided between Chili and the English bondholders and speculators," and says he thinks "the moral power of the United States judiciously exerted could have saved the autonomy of Peru," and that the talk of a possibility of a war with Chili was "arrant nonsense," and that, as the result now stands, "we have acquired the hatred of the Peruvians to the latest generation, and at least the contempt of the Chilians."

Señor Martinez, the Chilian Minister at Washington, has received official despatches from his Government confirming the authenticity of the text of the protocol agreed upon between the Chilian Government and Mr. Trescot, as already published. Señor Martinez says that the conditions set forth in the protocol represent the extreme limit of concession which Chili will grant to Peru.

The President has approved the act establishing the northern boundary of the State of Nebraska, the act relative to the lease of Government lands at Plattsburg, New York, and the act authorizing a railroad bridge across the Mississippi River at Wabasha, Minnesota.

Judge-Advocate-General Swaim has made a report to the Secretary of War on the case of Sergeant Mason, in which he holds that the sentence of the court-martial is invalid on account of certain irregularities and informalities in the proceedings of the court. Immense petitions continue to be presented to the President asking for Mason's pardon.

The Secretary of War has issued a special order dismissing Cadet Whittaker from the Military Academy, on the recommendation of the Academy Board, because of deficiency in his studies.

The Secretary of the Treasury has received information that the investigation into the opium-smuggling transactions recently detected in San Francisco develops a scandalous conspiracy to defraud the Government on the part of certain city and Federal officers. The conspiracy was revealed through a correspondence conducted in the Chinese language.

Secretary Hunt received a cable despatch from Lieutenant Harber of the *Jeannette* search expedition on Saturday, announcing the arrival of himself and Master Schuetze at Irkutsk in good health.

Attorney-General Brewster has written a letter to Dallas Sanders, Assistant District Attorney of the United States at Charleston, S. C., urging the prosecution of the election cases there, beginning with the most influential persons accused.

It is said that there is little doubt that the Secretaryship of the Interior has been offered to Senator Teller, and that his nomination will be sent to the Senate in the latter part of the week.

Speaker Keifer has removed Mr. Hayes, the official stenographer of the House, apparently solely for political reasons, since Mr. Hayes is a Democrat. This action on the Speaker's part is without precedent, and will probably be the subject of discussion in the House in a few days.

The New York Board of Trade and Transportation have sent a letter to members of Congress enclosing a petition signed by 2,000 of the "best firm names" in New York, favoring the Lowell Bankruptcy Bill.

The Mormons are said to be strongly in favor of the appointment of non-residents of the Territory for Election Commissioners under the Edmunds bill, on the ground that the appointees to Federal offices in the Territory are "scalawags." The Gentiles, on the other hand, consider the Mormon unanimity for a commission of strangers a strong argument against it, and think that there is danger of non-residents not understanding the situation, and of their being, for that reason, "hoodwinked, tricked, or cajoled."

A report has been received in Washington from Captain Wheeler of the Engineer Corps, the delegate of the United States to the Geographical Exhibition and Congress at Venice. Letters of distinction, which were the highest awards at the Exhibition, were awarded to the Corps of Military Engineers and to the Departments of War, the Navy, the Treasury, and the Post-office, for publications issued by these several departments on scientific and other subjects.

Mr. John H. Smyth, of North Carolina, was nominated by the President on Thursday to be Minister-Resident and Consul-General to Liberia, to succeed the late Dr. Garnet. "He is a young man, a lawyer by profession, and one of the blackest men in the world," and occupied the position of Minister to Liberia before Dr. Garnet's appointment.

Proceedings in the Star-route cases were begun in the Criminal Court at Washington on Saturday. The various counsel for the defence filed motions to quash the indictments, but the motions were not argued, and it was decided to postpone further hearing as to Dorsey and Brady until Friday next. The persons indicted in the straw-bond cases, however, were arraigned, and all entered a plea of not guilty. Attorney-General Brewster has decided not to fill the vacancy in the Star-route counsel caused by the retirement of Colonel W. A. Cook, but will select additional counsel to assist Mr. Bliss.

Mr. Charles H. Reed, counsel for Guiteau, has had an interview with General B. F. Butler at which he tried to persuade him to enter the Guiteau case for the defence. General Butler, however, declined to have anything to do with it.

The Republican Congressional Campaign Committee met in Washington on Monday night, and elected Mr. J. A. Hubbell, of Michigan, as chairman.

The strike at Lawrence, Mass., still continues. Nearly 5,000 persons are now out of employment. They are quiet, and no act of lawlessness has yet been reported

The waters in the Mississippi Valley are slowly falling. Great suffering continues in some regions, however. The Secretary of War ordered that 250,000 rations be purchased in New Orleans on Saturday, for the use of the destitute people of the Mississippi, and that 100,000 rations be issued to the Commissioner of the State of Arkansas at Helena. This issuing of Government rations is said to be having a demoralizing effect on the negro laborers in certain sections, many of them refusing to do any work, saying that the Government would send them rations.

The American Association of the Red Cross has issued an appeal asking for contributions to send its agents among the sufferers by the recent floods, "with a view to ameliorating their condition, so far as it can be done by human aid."

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow died at Cambridge on Friday, having just entered on his seventy-sixth year.

FOREIGN.

A resolution was submitted to the Congress of the United States of Colombia at Bogota, on the 15th of February, calling upon the Executive to give a year's notice to the United States of the intention of the Government of Colombia to withdraw from the stipulations and obligations of the treaty of December 12, 1846, between the two countries. The Executive is authorized to enter into new treaties with the United States and the Spanish-American republics of the Continent, with a view to conciliating, if possible, all the legitimate interests concerned in the free transit of the Isthmus of Panama. Article 35 of the treaty of 1846 is particularly condemned as vague and not easy of interpretation, and likely to bring about discord between the contracting parties. The resolution was passed with a view to paving the way for a joint guarantee of neutrality between the republics of the New and the commercial nations of

the Old World in regard to the Panama Canal.

In the House of Commons on Monday evening there was an animated debate on the proposed rules of Parliamentary procedure. Mr. McCarthy assured the House that there had been no conspiracy of conciliation between the Home Rulers and Conservatives. Mr. Gladstone said he believed it was the general feeling of the House that a division should be taken on Thursday next. Mr. Thomas Sexton then announced that he had received a telegram from Messrs. Parnell, Dillon, and O'Kelley, stating that they had asked Mr. Forster for permission to be present at the division, and had undertaken to refrain from any other political action during their absence from prison, and to surrender after the division. Mr. Sexton asked whether permission would be granted, and the Speaker ruled that the question was disorderly. During the debate on the motion for adjournment the Parnellites declared that if fair play was not granted them, they would use all forms of the House to obstruct debate.

The O'Donoghue, replying to Justin McCarthy's circular to the Home Rulers, urging them to vote against the *clôture*, says that the defeat of Mr. Gladstone's Ministry would be fatal to the best interests of Ireland, since it would hand over the Land Act to those who would do their best to defeat its workings. He thinks that if wise counsels had prevailed, Ireland would already be contented, and that the *clôture* is the legitimate and necessary assertion of the power of a majority.

Mr. Forster made a speech in the House of Commons on Tuesday night, on the Irish situation, which was greatly cheered. He admitted that the Protection Act had not done a great deal, but declared it had done something, for it had prevented many outrages and murders. He said there were signs of hope in Ireland, but that outrages must be stopped, and if they were not, it would become his duty and the duty of the House of Commons to provide still stronger measures.

Outrages in Ireland appear to be increasing again. On Friday night a party of thirty armed men attacked the house of a farmer near Thurles, County Tipperary, but were repulsed by a party of police who killed one of the men. Another despatch reports a case in which a band of disguised men cut off the nose of a man because in a Poor-Law Guardian contest he canvassed in opposition to the candidate of the Land League. Other outrages of various kinds are reported.

There have been disturbances in Galway, Ireland, between the Eighty-eighth Regiment (the Connaught Rangers) and the Eighty-fourth, an English regiment. On Thursday night the Connaught regiment, assisted by a mob, attacked a picket of the English, and "cheered for Ireland." There were several bayonet wounds on both sides.

Mr. Parnell has declined to write letters from Kilmainham Jail, unless under very exceptional circumstances, as he objects to imposing on the governor of the jail "the unpleasant duty of reading private letters."

Patrick Egan, treasurer of the Land League, has received during the past month £22,000 from the branches of the League in the United States and the English colonies.

In a debate in the House of Commons on Wednesday evening, on a motion declaring in favor of the equalization of borough and county franchise, on a motion for adjournment of the debate, the vote was 192 to 137 against it. Mr. Gladstone had intimated that the vote would be taken as indicative of the opinion of the House on the main question. The result is considered as having settled the question that the regulation of the county franchise is clearly within the mission of the present Parliament.

In the House of Commons on Thursday, Mr. Gladstone moved an annuity of £10,000 for Prince Leopold, and a pension of £6,000 a year for his widow in case of his death. Mr. Samuel Story, Radical member for Sunderland, objected to "spending the public money in support of titled idleness," and Messrs. Labouchere, Broadhurst, and Healy also made speeches opposing the grant; while three members of the Government, Sir Charles Dilke, Under Foreign Secretary, Henry Fawcett, Postmaster-General, and George Otto Trevelyan, Secretary to the Admiralty, abstained from voting. The motion was passed by a vote of 387 to 42.

The case of Dr. Lamson, an American doctor who was recently convicted of poisoning a relative of his, and who has been sentenced to death, is exciting great interest among Americans abroad, a large meeting of whom was held in London on Monday to take some action in behalf of the prisoner. Many affidavits were read and much verbal testimony given, going to prove that he is insane, and a resolution was unanimously adopted requesting Mr. Lowell to urge a reprieve on the ground of insanity, the proofs of which were considered very strong and convincing.

An invitation, signed by 300 persons, including the Earl of Shaftesbury, Earl Cairns, Mr. Samuel Morley, Canons Farrar and Fleming, and a number of other prominent men, has been sent to Messrs. Moody and Sankey, who are now at Glasgow, asking them to spend a year in London in evangelical work.

The Emperor William's birthday was celebrated in Berlin on Wednesday, the 22d. The city was gayly decorated, and crowds cheered the Emperor. In replying to a deputation of the Conservative Central Committee, who presented an address expressing devotion to his Majesty, the Emperor said that "the times were serious, and considering that the Czar a year ago had fallen a victim to party anarchy, who could now feel himself safe?" The Emperor added that he had learned with pleasure that the country approved his recent message. Dinners were given to celebrate the occasion by the Czar and the Emperor Francis Joseph, in St. Petersburg and Vienna, respectively, at which the Emperor William was toasted.

The object of fixing the coronation of the Czar for a late date is said to be to permit the exhibition at Moscow, which will open in May, to be closed before the occurrence of the ceremony. It is thought that if the two events were to occur simultaneously, the great concourse of people attending the exhibition would give an opportunity to the Nihilists who, as is shown by recent arrests, are concentrating their forces in Moscow.

General Skobeleff, speaking at a banquet in his honor in St. Petersburg, on Wednesday evening, toasted the British nation, and referred warmly to the friendly relations between England and Russia.

The London *Jewish World* received a telegram from St. Petersburg recently, stating that the Czar had refused to confirm the recommendations of the Commission on the Jewish question (that the Jews be compelled to quit the rural districts) on the ground that such expulsion would almost ruin agriculture, and that the recommendations are generally conceived in a vindictive spirit. It is reported that General Ignatieff has ordered all the Jewish chemists of St. Petersburg to sell their businesses.

The Turkish Government, after much delay, has granted permission to a Russian transport, with convicts and troops for Siberia, to pass through the Bosphorus, on the condition that this permission be considered unique and shall never be cited as a precedent.

The Governments of England and France have instructed their representatives in Egypt to request of the Khedive a special hypothecation of the revenues assigned to the service of the international debt, and the other Powers have approved the demand.

Despatches from Tunis state that the Italian Consul has made a formal protest against the concession of the esparto monopoly to a French company as a flagrant violation of the treaty between Italy and the Bey of Tunis. Sir Charles Dilke also stated in the House of Commons on Thursday that Lord Lyons, the British Ambassador at Paris, had been instructed to call the attention of the French Government to the esparto monopoly in Tunis.

Eight French generals are said to have assembled in Tunis to form a definite plan for a campaign in the south of Tunis.

In the French Chamber of Deputies on Tuesday a credit of 8,000,000 francs for the Tunis expedition for the second half of the current year was voted.

The French Budget Committee has been elected. It is largely favorable to M. Say's financial proposals.

The bill to repeal the prohibition of American pork has been the subject of discussion in the Chamber for the last few days, and on Tuesday it was passed with an amendment authorizing Minister Tirard to prescribe the mode of inspection.

The Committee on Petitions of the French Chamber of Deputies, after conferring with M. de Freycinet, the Prime Minister, as to the best means of ending the scandal of the Monaco gaming tables, has decided that the subject is not one for the consideration of the Chamber, but for diplomatic action.

A Paris despatch states that the Governments of France and the United States have formally notified the powers that the reassembling of the Monetary Conference must be indefinitely postponed. The object of the postponement is said to be "to allow public opinion in England to ripen."

Statements have been made to the effect that the Emperor Francis Joseph was meditating a visit to King Humbert, but negotiations have been suspended since the Italian Ambassador intimated that King Humbert would be happy to welcome the Emperor in Rome, which appears to have displeased Francis Joseph, as he had formerly shown great consideration in meeting the King of Italy in Venice. A meeting in Rome is regarded as out of the question, since a meeting there would certainly offend the Pope.

Signor Magliani, the Italian Minister of Finance, presented his financial statement to the Chamber of Deputies on Saturday, from which it would appear that Italian finances are in a flourishing condition. The ordinary receipts exceeded the ordinary expenditures for the year 1881 by 140,000,000 lire. The surplus for 1882 is estimated at 7,000,000 lire, in spite of an additional 12,000,000 allotted for army purposes. The Minister of Finance gives absolute assurances that the abolition of the forced currency will be completely accomplished as soon as the Treasury obtains a sufficient metallic reserve.

At a consistory held on Monday the Pope created seven Cardinals, including Archbishops McCabe of Dublin, Lavigerie of Algiers, and Luch of Seville. The Pope afterward delivered an allocution on the position of the Church. On Saturday he received Archbishop McCabe with the greatest cordiality.

Four hundred and fifty peasants from the Bernese Oberland have left for the United States. The emigrants are described as the flower of the population, and are mostly possessed of fair means, but are compelled to emigrate by the depression of agriculture.

Despatches from Madrid foreshadow a ministerial crisis in connection with the financial schemes of the Ministry.

A despatch from Pesth reports that sixty houses and fifty outbuildings at Böszenfa, Hungary, and 248 houses at Paka, have been burned, leaving several hundred families in a destitute condition.

M. Sully Prudhomme has been received at the French Academy as the successor to Prosper Duvergier de Hauranne, deceased.

TUESDAY, March 28, 1882.

MORE OF MR. BLAINE'S INTERNATIONAL LAW.

THE interview with Mr. Blaine on the Chilian treatment of Peru, which appeared in the Washington *Post* on Friday morning, increases the difficulty which we have all along experienced in discussing Mr. Blaine's foreign policy. This difficulty arises out of the fact that no study of his writings on international law will enable even the most perspicacious mind to discover what are his notions of the rights and duties of a friendly neutral toward two belligerents. That they are not those of any of the accepted text-books is, after all, a small matter, because a candidate for the Presidency may fairly be allowed to construct a system of international law of his own. But the fact that it does not seem possible to adapt them to any state of affairs now existing, or likely to exist, on this globe, is a very serious matter. He has laid it down that though a conqueror may exact the cession of territory as the result of his conquest, yet he ought not to do so until he has asked for and failed to receive a cash indemnity—a doctrine which is absolutely novel. He has also declared that the conqueror is not "a safe or impartial judge" in the decision of the question whether the conquered shall pay in money or in land, but is bound to allow it to be settled by a neutral. He has also ruled, that in order to justify a neutral in recognizing a government, it is not necessary that it should be a *de-facto* government whose authority is obeyed by the population over which it claims jurisdiction; that all that is needed is that it should be a government which the neutral likes, and thinks would govern well if it got a chance. Finally, he treats the arrest of such a government by the conqueror, and confinement in prison, as something in the nature of a *casus belli* as regards any neutral which may have recognized it. All this is very startling.

In the interview published as above he is, if possible, still more novel and entertaining. Commenting on the lately reported Chilian protocol of the agreement with Mr. Trescot, he treats Mr. Frelinghuysen's instructions to Mr. Trescot not "to dictate or make authoritative utterances" to either Chili or Peru as to the terms on which they should make peace, as a concession that the English bondholders should "have their own way, with none to molest them or make them afraid." As the English bondholders are simply persons who have lent Peru money, it is difficult to see why they should be "molested or made afraid" by anybody as long as they are not engaged in crime, and more difficult than all to see why our Government, which has a great many English bondholders of its own, should be bound to see that Peru's English bondholders were alarmed or annoyed.

Mr. Blaine comments with much severity on the proposed annexation of the district of Tacna besides Tarapaca, and says Chili has added this on to her original demand since Mr. Trescot arrived with his new instructions. But we believe we are right in saying that Mr. Blaine never knew what Chili's original demand was. He only guessed it; so that what has now been revealed to him is not that Chili is asking more than she began by asking, but more than he thought she was going to ask, his notions of Peruvian geography having all along been exceedingly and, to some people, amusingly vague. All this he holds to be distinctly "discourteous" to the United States, but what he must mean is that it is discourteous to himself. There is no more discourtesy to the United States in this than in the annexation of Alsace and Lorraine by Germany, or of Bosnia and Herzegovina by Austria; but it is discourteous to Mr. Blaine to pay no attention whatever to his utterances on international law, and of this Chili has been distinctly guilty, and ought to suffer the consequences of it, whatever they be.

He is especially severe on the Chilians for advertising for bids for 1,000,000 tons of the Lobos Islands guano, which is to be paid for, he says, "in good sterling exchange—English money, mark you—at ninety days' sight." It is almost painful to quote this remark from a man who has filled as high places as Mr. Blaine has done in the Government of his own country, because it shows so much curious ignorance of the parts played by "bills on London" in commercial transactions all over the globe. The suggestion that there is something significant politically in the exaction of "payment in English money, mark you," is worthy of the attention of Mr. Gilbert, the versatile author of "Pinafore" and "Patience," particularly as he goes on to point out with increasing solemnity that the guano will be carried away in English ships, "making a larger freightage than the cotton of the United States annually taken beyond the seas." It will undoubtedly be taken, as the American cotton is, in the ships of whatever nations offer freight at the lowest rates. This is the way, surprising as it may seem to Mr. Blaine, in which both guano and cotton dealers do business. They always hire ships with a view to profit, never for the glory of a particular flag. He closes with the following lamentation, which we trust is misreported:

> "For American interests it was the opportunity of a century, and it was blindly sacrificed. The commercial interests of this country in South America will not in fifty years recover what has been lost and what was in its power to acquire. Our interests are not only totally destroyed in Chili and Peru, but our prestige is impaired in all South America—indeed, in all Spanish America, both continental and insular. The present generation will not witness the recovery of that which has been lost within the last ninety days."
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> "When you speak of commercial interests, Mr. Blaine, do you mean the shipping interests?"
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> "I mean that," said Mr. Blaine; "but not that alone. I mean the entire interchange of commodities, the supplying of manufactured articles and raw material, the concentration in our commercial cities of a share of that which will now go wholly to London and Liverpool. The trade of the west coast of South America from this time forward will be as much in the hands of Great Britain as the trade of British India. But this opens a large subject, and I have neither time nor inclination to pursue it to-day."

We incline to think this misreported, because Mr. Blaine can hardly be as ill-informed as it would make him appear. He is not a Wilkins Micawber, and, whatever his defects as a lawyer, has shown himself a shrewd business man. The exports of the United States to Peru in 1881 amounted to $109,696; the imports from Peru to $781,911. If this business should "go wholly to London and Liverpool," and the present generation should be unable to get it back, it would cause a convulsion and a sense of "goneness" in the United States somewhat resembling those resulting from the failure of a dry-goods store in Bangor, Me. We have no returns of the British dealings with Peru later than 1879, but in that year the importations from Peru to Great Britain amounted to $16,942,660; the exports to Peru to $3,737,000. To crown all, the Peruvian foreign debt of nearly $200,000,000 is held almost exclusively in England, as is shown by the great preponderance of Peruvian exports to England over the amount of imports from England. Whenever American politicians get it into their heads with clearness that commerce goes where the market is good, and cannot be fostered by diplomatic meddling, or intrigue, or war, or high tariffs, or bounties, we shall undoubtedly get the South American business which London and Liverpool now do, but not sooner.

THE IRISH-AMERICAN "SUSPECTS."

THE answer of Sir Charles Dilke in the House of Commons on Friday, that the British Government was considering the representations made by ours on behalf of the imprisoned Irish-American "suspects," shows that the Irish-Americans are in more ways than was supposed a source of considerable embarrassment to the Ministry. What distinguishes the present trouble in Ireland from all those which have preceded it is the extent to which it has been promoted by money and encouragement from this side of the water. The Fenian outbreak in 1866 had, it is true, its origin largely in the United States, but the Fenian movement was a small and insignificant affair compared to the Land League. The former was essentially a military enterprise, and was therefore more easily dealt with than any other mode of expressing discontent. All that was needed to bring it to an end was a collision between the Fenian forces and the troops or police. When this occurred the movement collapsed, and fortunately it occurred with little or no bloodshed. The writer of a curious and interesting historical sketch of it in the last *Fortnightly Review* gives an amusing account of the one battle of the war in which the preparations, as far as entrenchment and the marking of distances in the line of approach went, were worthy of Bunker Hill. When the assaulting line, however, reached the fatal spot at which they were to receive the first volley, and the Fenian commander ordered a low and destructive fire, his troops appear to have been so much impressed by the absurdity of the situation that they abandoned him and the redoubt at the double, because, as one of them explained to a friend, "it was little like rebellion he felt, and the divil a differ he saw from yisterday." Moreover, the Fenian movement had no social side to it. It was purely political. It aimed at the establishment of some kind of republic, but not at a revision of the property laws.

Such as it was, however, it would never have come to anything if it had not been projected and supported in the United States. Its gravity in the eyes of the English Government was in fact largely due to the revelation it

made of the change which the Irish emigration to the United States had wrought in the Irish problem. It was clear that thereafter it was not with the malcontents in Ireland only that the Government would have to contend, but the malcontents in the United States also, whom the improvements in the means of communication were every day bringing nearer to their old home. The importance of the change was, however, not fully manifest till now. It is plain that the Land League, which is the most troublesome Irish organization with which the British Government has ever had to deal, would not have existed at all, or at all events have never assumed the proportions which it did assume, but for the money which came from America, and but for the encouragement given to it by Irish-American orators and newspaper writers. How valuable they have been to the cause was shown in a remarkable way by Parnell's change of policy with regard to the Land Act. He at first gave in his adhesion to it, but finding that his American allies were opposed to any such compromise, he turned round suddenly and began denouncing it and preaching the no-rent or next-to-no-rent doctrine.

It would of course be absurd for the English Government to shut up the Irish propagandist of the League, and let the Irish-Americans continue the work, for every Irish-American counts for at least five Irish-Englishmen as an apostle of sedition. The fact that he comes from "the States" gives his words a potency and promise in the eyes of the peasantry which those of the stay-at-homes never have. If he were to have his way, there would really be no use in keeping the Coercion Bill in force. But he is nominally a foreigner, and is nominally protected by the American flag. Consequently when he is put into a "dungeon," for the very things for which British subjects are put into jail, he does not seek relief in profane swearing simply: he appeals to the unfortunate United States Minister in London to achieve his deliverance, so that he can return to his old work. In fact, what he seeks is a kind of safe conduct, to protect him against the Irish police while he is engaged in encouraging the people to defy the Government and resist the law.

Of course one answer to him is ready and forcible enough—that he is either an American or an Irishman; that if an American, he must abstain from mixing himself up in foreign troubles; that if an Irishman, he must submit to the law and go to jail on the Chief Secretary's warrant. But this, though it may close the mouth of the man who is bawling from "the dungeon," does not relieve our Government from all embarrassment. No matter how culpable the Irish-American agitators may be, or how much they may deserve their dungeons, we can hardly admit that they may be punished without trial, or subjected to whatever punishment foreign law may prescribe. There is a limit to the operation of the doctrine that a man who goes to a foreign country must submit himself to the same laws as the natives. We do not permit this doctrine to be applied to our citizens living in barbarous countries like China, or Turkey, or Egypt. The reason we do not is, that we doubt the fairness of their judicial proceedings, and think their punishments from our point of view cruel and unusual. We submit our citizens to the law of civilized countries because ordinarily, if charged with offences, they will have a trial, and because, if convicted, they will be subjected to such penalties as we approve of and use ourselves. We certainly should not so submit them if they were exposed to imprisonment or other punishments without trial for an indefinite period. The difficulties the British Government will have in providing different treatment for the American suspects from that which they accord to the Irish suspects will undoubtedly be great, and undoubtedly the Irish-American agitators do not deserve it. But nevertheless we do not see how our Government can avoid asking for it. We cannot concede the liability of American citizens, living on foreign soil, to long terms of imprisonment without any investigation whatever, however much we may disapprove of the persons who raise the question.

THE OLDEST OF EMPERORS.

On March 22 William I., Emperor of Germany and King of Prussia, completed the eighty-fifth year of his life. His career is equally remarkable for its length and its striking historical features. He entered Paris as captain in the victorious German army in 1814 and again in 1815. In 1848, when the revolution had overpowered his brother, King Frederic William IV., he fled to England, covered with derision. In 1849 he commanded the army which was to give the *coup de grâce* to the revolution in Germany, escaped an attempt on his life, quelled the Baden insurrection, and by his rigor made himself an object of execration. In 1857, as the lieutenant of his mentally disabled brother, he inaugurated, amid general plaudits, the "new era" in Prussian politics. Crowned King in 1861, he proclaimed himself a ruler by right divine, was shot at by Oscar Becker, a democratic student, and, through Von Bismarck-Schönhausen, opened the period of "conflict" with the Parliament. This was ended by the armed conflict with Austria and South Germany in in 1866, and returning in triumph from the battle-field of Sadowa, he became the master of North Germany and the royal hero of the German nation. In 1870 he boldly took up the gauntlet thrown down to him by Napoleon III., invaded France, and sent her Emperor and her armies captives to Germany; and in 1871 had himself proclaimed Emperor of the united Fatherland at the château of Versailles, reduced Paris, dictated peace, and annexed Alsace-Lorraine to his empire.

It was not his own genius or sword which achieved these successes, unparalleled in all history, but he knew how to rely on Bismarck for diplomacy, and on Moltke for strategy, and he shared the toils and dangers of his armies, while his son and nephew stood at the heads of them. He was now the ruler of the most powerful empire on earth, and he meant to advance it on a path marked out by moderate Liberalism. Liberalism involved it in a struggle with Ultramontanism, not yet ended, and great moderation provoked new regicidal attempts. Hödel's bullets, in May, 1878, inflicted no harm, but Nobiling's shot nearly proved fatal, and caused acute pain and long illness. The Emperor bore his sufferings and perils with fortitude, and, after employing some rigorous measures, allowed his Chancellor to adopt a scheme of social reforms partly coinciding with the demands of the political camp from which the murderous assaults had emanated. When his nephew, Alexander II., fell a victim to the fanaticism of more relentless foes, William refused to resort to exceptional measures of precaution, declaring all such to be futile. In January, 1882, in an incipient new conflict with the Parliament, he emphatically asserted his right not only to reign but to govern. Firmness and vigor, in fact, characterize the whole of this remarkable career—qualities which new trials may possibly show in even brighter light, or ultimately baffle. This career may still be prolonged, and the teaching of the Athenian sage forbids us to declare it happy before it is ended.

Long reigns are rare in history, long royal lives much rarer still. Princes occupy one of the lowest levels in the whole range of longevity. The air of courts is destructive of health, nerve, and vigor. Lives which early corruption, luxurious and effeminate habits, unchecked passions, and unceasing excitement do not undermine, are frequently shortened by consuming ambition or care, warlike toil and peril, or the murderous hand of conspiracy. Among the remarkably long reigns in history are those of Uzziah of Judah (fifty-two years), Mithridates of Pontus (fifty-seven), Sapor II. of Persia (seventy-one), Alfonso I. of Portugal (seventy-three), Frederic III. of Germany (fifty-three), Christian IV. of Denmark (sixty), Louis XIV. of France (seventy-two), George III. of England (fifty-nine), Ferdinand IV. of Naples (sixty-five), and Pedro II. of Brazil (fifty-one till now). But Uzziah was a youth when he was placed on the throne, Mithridates a boy, Sapor a newborn babe, Alfonso an infant, Christian eleven years old, Louis four, Ferdinand nine, and Pedro five; and of all the monarchs mentioned only George III. reached the age of fourscore. Poland had one King who lived to the age of eighty-eight, Stanislas Leszczynski; but he reigned only five years, and survived his throne fifty-six years, living in quiet retirement. We must go back to the days of antiquity to find William I.'s royal peers in age, and the only ones we discover are Hiero II. of Syracuse, and Masinissa of Numidia, both of whom ended their reign at the age of about ninety. The reign of Rameses II., Pharaoh of Egypt—the Sesostris of the Greeks—is believed by some Egyptologists to have lasted about sixty-seven years, and his life about one hundred, but others reduce both his reign and his days to normal proportions. Thus no emperor known to history, no reigning king in Christendom, ever reached the age of William I. Our age boasts of this extraordinary royal life, as it does of the only Pontificate, that of Pius IX., which exceeded the term of St. Peter. And Berlin, which still often sees its Emperor-King on horseback, also saw in 1859 Alexander von Humboldt give the last touches to his "Kosmos" in his ninetieth year; Raumer, in 1873, officiate as professor

in his ninety-second; Field-Marshal Wrangel, in 1877, walk its streets in his ninety-fourth; and Ranke, in 1881, issue the first part of a universal history intended to embrace eighteen volumes, in his eighty-sixth. Moltke, who is not yet eighty-two, must thus appear to the German capital and nation as a man still available for action for many a year to come.

THE ENGLISH RADICALS AND THE ROYAL MARRIAGES

It was very awkward for Mr. Fawcett, Sir Charles Dilke, and Mr. Chamberlain that another royal marriage should have been projected during their term of office, for they all voted against the last grant made by way of a marriage portion to the Duke of Connaught, on his marriage in 1879 to the Princess Louise Marguerite of Prussia. Accordingly, they were obliged the other day, when provision was proposed, at the Queen's request, for Prince Leopold on his marriage with another German princess, to walk out of the House on the division. Consistency, if not principle, forbade their voting for it, and their place as Cabinet Ministers forbade their voting against it. Whatever arguments were used against the grants in the former cases, certainly retain all their force in this case, for Prince Leopold seems to be better fitted than any of his family for a single and retired life. He is a man of a studious turn and very delicate health. The scene in the Commons was made more awkward by some of the Radicals, including of course Mr. Bright, refusing to take off their hats, according to custom, while the Queen's message asking for the grant was being read.

The question, what is to be done in this matter, is a very serious one for the Liberals, and likely to become more so. There was no large royal family in England after the expulsion of the Stuarts until George the Third. Queen Anne's numerous children died in infancy. The monarchy was thus saved the very serious strain which a large number of princes and princesses always puts on people's loyalty, except, perhaps, in Prussia, where they are made to work hard and it is fashionable to be poor and live simply. The position of princes is difficult everywhere, and it is unusually difficult in England, where they have nothing to do, and are exposed from their infancy to the adulation and temptations of a very wealthy society. George the Third had a large family of boys, whose vices and debts were the great scandal of English life at the close of the last century, and at times almost put the monarchy in peril. Luckily, they had but few children. George the Fourth's only child died soon after her marriage. The Duke of Kent's only child was the present Queen. The Duke of Cumberland succeeded to the throne of Hanover, and transferred himself to that kingdom with his family. The Duke of Clarence (William IV.) had none, and neither had the Duke of York. The Duke of Cambridge had three, one of whom—the present Duke—has never married. One daughter has gone to Germany as Grand Duchess of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, and another has become the Princess of Teck, and lives on very small means in England, and has several children. In one way or another, when the present Queen came to the throne the royal family had been greatly diminished. Its objectionable members were all dead, and she was left a clear field for the work, which she has so happily performed, of presenting royalty to the people in an aspect which it had not worn for a century—that of a pure, decorous, and highly respectable institution, which the British father could exhibit to his wife and daughters without a blush, and which did not, considering everything, cost very much.

Within the last twenty years, however, the old difficulty of a great number of princesses and princes who have to be supported in idleness, in the midst of a most luxurious society, has arisen again. The Queen has had eight children, all of whom have had to be provided for by Parliament on their marriage, and only two of whom have settled in foreign countries and thus cut their descendants off from any further claims on the British Treasury. She has, moreover, ten grandchildren resident and to be resident in England, not to speak of the four children of the Princess of Teck, who are not likely to follow any calling, and have no property, or next to none. It is indeed a moderate estimate to say that ten years hence the British nation will have close on forty members of the royal family to provide for in some way, and they must be provided for with a certain liberality, on pain of seeing royalty cheapened or degraded by the spectacle of persons of the royal blood leading a shabby existence in the midst of the wealthiest society in the world.

Parliament has not shown much disposition to do anything very handsome for the Queen's children since the marriage of the Prince of Wales and of the Princess Royal, and the disposition to be stingy grows. The refusal of some Cabinet Ministers to vote on the grant to Prince Leopold shows how far the disinclination to be liberal in this matter has now gone. It is safe to say it is likely to go further. In spite of the popularity of the Queen, the dislike of the voters in the towns to donations of money to idle people steadily grows, and it promises between now and the end of the century to raise some very embarrassing questions, on which London and the provinces are likely to be even more divided in sentiment than they now are. London society, which is idle, rich, and luxurious, and gets a great deal of its excitement out of the doings of the court circle, thinks the money given to royal personages well spent. The provinces, which are serious, industrious, and increasingly commercial in their spirit, and see little of the royal family, have a growing dislike of giving money to fine ladies and gentlemen; and the Prince of Wales, though very popular, does little to combat this feeling by the nature of his occupations, or by the company he keeps. In old times it was comparatively easy to avoid these troubles by quartering royal personages on the Army and the pension list. But the pension list is gone. All, or nearly all, the sinecures which royal personages could take have disappeared. The reformer, too, has laid hold of the Army, and it will not be possible to maintain, after the Duke of Cambridge's disappearance, the old theory which made it in a special sense the property of the Crown, and gave the "Horse Guards" a sort of quasi-independence of Parliamentary control. The Duke of Connaught works hard as a military officer, but none of the Queen's sons has displayed enough ability to enable a Minister to put him in any high place as the man best fitted to fill it. A batch of her grandsons, too, are now coming forward, who will still further complicate the problem with which the sons are contending.

The effect of the multiplicity of princes on the popular respect for royalty has yet to be seen, but there is no question that it must suffer unless upheld by larger endowments than seem at all likely to be forthcoming. Strong as is the respect of the English people for royalty, there is something for which their respect is still stronger, and that is money. There is no country in the world in which "a poor gentleman" is held in so little respect; and the free circulation of a body of poor princes would be something which the British Constitution makes no provision for, and would have difficulty in bearing, even if they were men of clean lives, paid their debts, and did not sponge on their friends. In fact, complaints about royal sponging already begin to be heard among the aristocracy, which is not so rich as it used to be, and does not enjoy long royal visits. It is here probably that the weakest side of constitutional monarchy during the next fifty years will be found.

LONGFELLOW'S POETRY.

It is nearly forty years since Margaret Fuller, writing in the New York *Tribune*, startled the proprieties of Boston by some sharp criticisms on Longfellow and Lowell, then in the first flush of their fame. She declared Lowell's early poems to be crude and imitative, and those of Longfellow to be, in a great degree, "exotic." Each poet met the charge in his own way—Lowell with brilliant sarcasm, and Longfellow with good-natured indifference. Public sympathy went with them; but we can now see, at this distance of scene, how each profited by these criticisms. Lowell dropped from his collected works the greater part of his early poems, and Longfellow soon achieved his greatest successes by boldly drawing strength from his own soil.

In justice to Margaret Fuller it must be remembered that she was one of the first to recognize the pure and elevating tone of Longfellow's verse, and to defend him cordially from the charge of plagiarism, as brought in those days by Poe and others. But she pointed out, with some truth, that it was at first his tendency to offer us, as she pointedly phrased it, "flowers of all climes, and wild flowers of none"; that in the pretty prelude to "Voices of the Night," for instance, which all schoolgirls were then reciting, he sought the woods at "Pentecost" and found "bishop's-caps," when both of these words came really out of books, and did not habitually pass current on any New England hillside. She also said, with perfect truth, that in the "Spanish Student"—then his only long poem—the execution was to a certain extent "academical"; and she instanced as works of far more promise on his part such short poems as "The Village Blacksmith" and "To the Driving Cloud," which she considered to be, so to speak, indigenous. These criticisms

were expressed somewhat abruptly, no doubt, for tact, which has been called the virtue of cowards, certainly was not Miss Fuller's prime merit; but it will always remain doubtful whether, without them, we should have had "Evangeline" and "Hiawatha."

It is impossible to say, at this distance of time, how much of Longfellow's poetic change of base was due to criticism and how much to inward development. It is to be noticed that he had already published a few other poems essentially American in *motif* besides those Miss Fuller mentioned; among which should especially be named the "Skeleton in Armor" and the "Wreck of the Hesperus." It is at any rate certain that from this time he dwelt more and more upon these home themes which he had been accused of discarding, so that he soon became as essentially national in his poetic spirit as Emerson or Whittier. It is now clear that his great successes, his signal triumphs, were won by throwing himself wholly upon cis-Atlantic themes in "Evangeline" and "Hiawatha." The visible public response must have confirmed this tendency. There is in Allibone a table of the complete sales of each of his books up to 1857. It appears from this that of 'Hiawatha' fifty thousand copies were sold in two years, while of 'Voices of the Night' only forty-three thousand copies had been sold in eighteen years; and no other of his books had obtained a circulation as large as either. Of 'Evangeline' thirty-seven thousand copies had been sold in ten years, while of the 'Golden Legend' only seventeen thousand copies had been sold in six years, and of 'Hyperion' only fourteen thousand in eighteen years. For any other poet the least of these figures would, no doubt, be a good showing; nevertheless there is much to be learned by this comparison of statistics. The test of foreign popularity was even more conclusive. 'Evangeline' has been translated six times into German, thrice into Swedish, thrice into French, twice into Italian, besides Danish, Spanish, Portuguese, and Polish versions—making eighteen translations in eight languages. 'Hiawatha' has been rendered four times in German, besides versions in French, Italian, Swedish, Danish, Dutch, Polish, and Latin—eleven translations in ten languages. 'The Golden Legend' has been translated into four languages; 'Miles Standish' into three; 'The Spanish Student' into two—the Spanish not being one of these. It would be impossible to have more conclusive evidence that a national flavor gives a supreme advantage, at home and abroad, in respect to popularity; and it is impossible not to suspect that Mr. Longfellow might have gone on writing 'Spanish Students' to the end of his life—had such a thing been possible—without securing the fame given him by a newer theme. Popularity is of course but one of the tests to be applied, yet on the career of an author like Longfellow, who never seeks inexplicable depths or dim altitudes, it has an important bearing. In his case, at least, popularity at home and abroad was largely increased by a more marked national tone. It was not enough for him to be a poet of the human heart and conscience: the special soil on which he grew had something to yield him.

But in becoming, like Whittier, a national poet, Longfellow's execution remained as unlike Whittier's as before. The calm and imaginative treatment of the "Poems on Slavery"—valuable and even powerful as it was—was different in kind from the Tyrtæus-like strains which Whittier had sent forth. Lowell's first anti-slavery poetry had so resembled Whittier's that when his "Verses Suggested by the Present Crisis" appeared anonymously, every one supposed them to come from the elder bard. Longfellow's poems had absolutely nothing in them that could suggest any such resemblance, apart from the theme; yet they brought aid to the anti-slavery movement from a source that weighed far more with conservative circles than did those of the other two, both of whom were then quite out of favor with good society. On the other hand, it unfortunately happened, for some cause easy to conjecture, that in the first illustrated edition of Longfellow's poems, published by Cary & Hart in Philadelphia, in 1845, these anti-slavery verses were omitted; and this inevitably led to some unkind criticism, which was not allayed by the fact that they were included in a complete cheap edition published in Cambridge about the same time. Still, these poems had their undoubted influence on the times, and Mr. Longfellow's faithful intimacy with Charles Sumner left his own position clear. He was thenceforth well understood to bear the same sort of relation to Whittier and Lowell that Dr. Channing bore to Garrison: to have a temperament less aggressive, but principles equally firm.

In comparing his American ballads also with those of Whittier the reader is struck by a corresponding difference. In both cases the chosen themes might be cis-Atlantic, but in Longfellow's treatment the enveloping atmosphere had almost always a slight and not unpleasing foreignness; very much as George Fuller throws about his American figures something of the same encircling haze that charms us in the peasant-pictures of the French Millet. Whittier was also more literal; he was almost always true to his legend, except where, as in the case of his "Amy Wentworth," he manufactured it outright; while Longfellow, as in his "Lady Wentworth," took the historical fact and transformed it very considerably for dramatic effect.

After all, each writer must work after his kind; and, as the Italians call Vandyck "il pittore cavalleresco"—the quality being imputed to the painter, not to the sitters—so it is impossible that Longfellow should not be a poet of the picturesque and even of the chivalrous, wherever he may choose his themes. This makes a difference between his and the Quaker hand, though their subjects be never so similar; and then Longfellow's perfect execution—so far beyond Whittier's—gives to his best local and legendary poems, as in the case of "Paul Revere's Ride," an excellence beyond all competitors.

Yet it is inevitable that precisely this admirable execution should have led to some criticisms which a cloudier or clumsier poet would have escaped. It is this quality which is chiefly responsible for the discussions which have always taken place, and will now doubtless be renewed, as to his rank among poets. Whatever we miss in Longfellow, we never miss the perfection of crystallization. Now this is a thing that all enjoy for the moment, but all do not praise afterward. We like what is easily understood, but there is also an enjoyment of what is difficult to comprehend. There may be a mere pride in the unintelligible, just as the possessor of an autograph letter from Rufus Choate or Horace Greeley dwells with pride on the fact that nobody can make out a line of it. Then there is something more to be taken into account. That tempting phrase of Coleridge's has much to answer for—"the kind of obscurity which is a compliment to the reader." Coleridge himself certainly flattered his readers pretty profusely, if this be the standard, while Longfellow, though he wrote from Coleridge's own inkstand, drew from it no such ink. There is undoubtedly a profound delight in poems like many in Browning's 'Men and Women,' which seem to be inexhaustible in what they yield to you, because they yield very slowly. They are like the fountain called "La Roche qui pleure" at Fontainebleau, which gives the thirsty traveller only a drop at a time, but you can always go back to it and be sure of another drop. Shall we, therefore, do injustice to Longfellow's ever-fresh and ever-living spring? As we turn the leaves of his books each page tells an experience, utters an emotion, or affords a thought; each page, like each day in the life of his "village blacksmith," offers "something attempted, something done." If you say that, after all, the very ease of the execution shows that the work is not difficult to do, the answer is obvious, why does not some one else do it? After all, poetry has two factors—the thought or emotion and the expression—and the success lies in the just combination of the two. Grant that we or our cousins and friends get up every morning with thoughts profounder than any of Longfellow's, it does the world no good unless we express them. Take the poets we proclaim as greater than Longfellow—Browning, for instance, or Emerson—and how often they fail to express their thoughts so that anybody can enjoy them without a course of lessons from an experienced professor! If we admit as true for poets what Ruskin says of painters, that "it is in the perfection and precision of the instantaneous line that the claim to immortality is made," we must say that no American up to this time has built his fame on surer grounds than Longfellow.

And, after all, while the great loss is fresh upon us, one has not the heart to analyze the gradations of merit. It is enough to know that the historic house to which so many eyes have turned for half a century is henceforth but a vacant socket, with its light gone out; that the generous hand which never moved but to bless others is now forever still. So many books, so many songs, so many themes for song; and yet now the accumulated resources of the human race are powerless to obtain for us another verse from Longfellow! Last Sunday afternoon the snows fell thick across the meadows which the poet described so vividly in his "Afternoon in February":

> "The snow recommences;
> The buried fences
> Mark no longer
> The road o'er the plain,
> While through the meadows,
> Like fearful shadows,
> Slowly passes
> A funeral train."

But this time the train that passed was the poet's own funeral, and there was no one to set its mournful requiem to music. Let us be glad that, in these days of doubt and uncertainty, there was one man for whom death had no real gloom, and who could look forward with absolute confidence to meeting those whom he had loved clothed in new angelhood, within their Father's House.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE CITY OF BERLIN.—II.

THE municipal assembly (*Stadtverordneten-Versammlung*) is the body which corresponds to a State legislature. It consists in Berlin of 108 members, which can hardly be considered too large a number to represent a city which is as large as some States. For purposes of election, the city is divided into districts (*Wahlbezirke*). Each class elects one-third of the representatives. The representatives are elected for six years, the term of one-third expiring every two years. At the end of the second and fourth years after the adoption of the Städteordnung it was determined by lot who should retire. Two-thirds of the representatives are thus always experienced men. They receive no pay—this is an important point—as their office is one of honor (*Ehrenamt*). One-half of the number of representatives must possess houses (those who enjoy the usufruct of a house, *Niessbraucher*, are considered house-possessors). Neither father and son nor brothers are allowed to be members of

the city council or assembly at the same time. The assembly meets every Thursday afternoon in the city hall (*Rathhaus*). Its meetings are public.

The magistracy is the executive branch of the city government. It is a collegiate body consisting of thirty-four members, one-half of whom are paid. Father and son, father-in-law and son-in-law, brothers and brothers-in-law, may not be members of the magistracy at the same time. At the head of the college of magistrates stand the *Oberbürgermeister* (chief-mayor) and *Bürgermeister* (mayor). The mayor and paid magistrates, whose whole time is consumed by their duties, are elected by the municipal assembly for twelve years, and have a right to a pension in case they are not reëlected. The other members of the magistracy are elected for six years, one-half of them retiring at the expiration of each three years. The members of the magistracy must be confirmed by the King or some branch of the state government. In the college of magistrates and in the assembly the majority rules.

The functions of the municipal assembly resemble those of an ordinary legislative body. They discuss all matters pertaining to the administration of the city, but are not allowed to execute their resolutions. The magistracy must do this, or, if it refuses—as it must in case the resolutions are illegal, transcend the competency of the assembly, or are calculated to do injury to the state or public welfare—it is obliged to transmit the reasons for its refusal to this assembly. If, even after a commission consisting of representatives of both bodies has considered the matter, no amicable adjustment can be reached, the matter is laid before some branch of the state government. The practical result is that this government, taking upon itself to decide, performs duties which really belong to the city authorities, or, as has frequently happened in Berlin, nothing is done. To take an example: If, assembly and magistracy should both agree as to the expediency of establishing a new hospital, but could not come to an understanding about its location, the project would undoubtedly rest until some change in one or both bodies enabled an agreement to be reached. The assembly has the advantage in the long run, as it elects the members of the magistracy, and has that powerful weapon of legislative bodies in constitutional countries—the right of making the appropriations, or budget-right, as it is called.

The assembly controls the entire administration of the city. It can demand that the acts of the magistrates and all accounts be submitted to it, or to committees appointed by it. The assembly watches over city property, and determines its use. Real estate belonging to the city can be disposed of only with the sanction of the general Government. The same thing holds with objects which have a special scientific, historical, or artistic value. It is also necessary to obtain this sanction to raise a loan which shall increase the debt of the city.

The higher city officers in Berlin, as elsewhere in Prussia, must be appointed for life. Employees may be engaged temporarily to render services which are not permanently required. The city has also the right to employ subordinate officers whose duties are merely mechanical, with the understanding that they may be discharged after due notice. The magistracy appoints, and the assembly confirms. As everywhere in Prussia, special fitness is considered in making appointments, and is determined by examination or otherwise. The mayor himself must have graduated in law from a German university. A trial precedes permanent appointment; in some cases this lasts for three years.

Whatever evils may be connected with a permanent civil service, it would seem a better device for getting rid of "rings" than the one which so many American cities appear disposed to try—namely, that of making the mayor absolute. We have already many forms of despotism in this country which would not be tolerated in Russia. These life-appointees are honest and perform their duties faithfully. The writer cannot think at this moment of a case of official dishonesty in Berlin. Mr. Kasson, in his report to Mr. Evarts, printed in the "Foreign Relations" of 1879, said of Vienna, where a similar system of appointment exists: "The bürgermeister stated to me that there is no record of any embezzlement or pecuniary fraud as *ever* having occurred among the life-appointees." Under such a system of civil service, it is not for the interest of an officeholder to be dishonest: as means are provided for punishing, and even dismissing, officers who do not discharge their duty in every respect; and as advancement depends upon efficiency more than anything else, an officeholder's future is ruined by dishonesty or neglect of duty. Then there is among the educated Prussian civil-service officers an *esprit de corps* which holds them to a high sense of official honor.

Still another advantage of this method of making appointments is that it is cheaper. Political economy teaches that one element in determining wages is risk incurred, either of bodily harm or of being out of employment for some time. Wages must contain an insurance premium in dangerous employments. This is high in cases where one's future is so uncertain as is that of every civil-service officer in the United States. On the other hand, where the civil service offers an honorable social career and permanent employment to meritorious officers, city or state government is able to obtain a sufficient number of qualified employees at low wages. Probably the salaries paid in Berlin are often less than those obtained by clerks in mercantile houses in the same city rendering similar services. The greater security of employment and the honor of the position are compensation for lower wages. The highest salary paid in the bureaus and city treasury is $1,500 (6,000 marks), and there are only three appointees who receive so much. Three places yield salaries of $1,425, three of $1,350, five of $1,275, etc. These salaries are the highest given to those holding the places. Beginners do not receive so high salaries, inasmuch as salaries advance with long and faithful service, as Secretary Sherman wished that they might in the United States Treasury Department. Three hundred and sixty-four secretaries and assistants of the magistracy receive from $450 to $1,100; yet these are mostly educated, cultured men, with whom it is a pleasure to come in contact socially. The Oberbürgermeister receives only $6,000, although, as the chief executive of a great city numbering over one million inhabitants, his place is very properly considered one of the most honorable official positions in Germany. The present Oberbürgermeister, Herr von Forckenbeck, is a distinguished German, altogether apart from his present position. He has been member of both branches of the Prussian legislature, and member and President of the Imperial Parliament (Reichstag). He was one of the founders first of the Progressist, then of the National-Liberal party. He was formerly Oberbürgermeister of Breslau. He was called from Breslau to Berlin, as the municipal assembly is not confined to the Berlinese in its choice of a mayor. The Oberbürgermeister is selected very carefully. The place seeks the man, rather than the man the place; in some cases he is able to make conditions with the Government. A recent Oberbürgermeister would not accept his position until the Prussian Government had, in accordance with the wishes of the municipal assembly, promised greater liberty of self-government to Berlin. The very considerable independence of Berlin is seen in the fact that the magistrates and the members of the assembly very generally belong to parties which are politically quite radical. Bismarck, in particular, has no affection for them.

In reading the report of the magistracy, it becomes evident that there is a considerable advantage in a certain permanence and steadiness of policy on the part of the municipal government. Plans are laid for a long series of years, and carried out gradually as the city can afford the expense. Berlin has recently adopted an improved plan for disposing of its sewerage—that known as the irrigation system, the sewerage being allowed to flow over large fields in the vicinity and fertilize them. The plan was at first tried for a part of the city only, and has been gradually extended, as it has proved thoroughly satisfactory. The completion of the work will still require several years, in order to avoid a too great financial burden. "Without haste, without rest," seems to be the motto of the municipal government.

But the most interesting question to the taxpayer is, What does it cost in Berlin to provide free schools, clean the streets, keep up the parks—in short, to perform all the functions of a municipal government? We will devote the remainder of this paper to answering this question. The report of the magistracy gives the net receipts and net expenses of the municipal administration. In giving account of the gas-works, for example, only the surplus of receipts over expenditures is given. In giving the expenditures of a department, its receipts are subtracted. This is not entirely satisfactory. We should like to know not only the net receipts of various departments (particularly of taxation), but also the entire receipts, in order that we might estimate the expenses of collecting them. However, judging from comparisons he has made, the writer is able to say that from five to eight millions of marks should be added to net receipts and net expenditures to obtain the sum-total of expenses and receipts. The following table gives the net receipts and expenditures of the government of the city from 1861–1876, and the amount yielded by taxation toward defraying the expenses of the administration, the remainder being provided for out of surplus of city gas-works, city property, etc., except in so far as debt was incurred:

	Net receipts.	Net receipts from taxes.	Net expenditures.
	Marks.	Marks.	Marks.
1861	6,578,162	6,364,035	6,060,511
1862	6,964,376	6,787,966	7,392,270
1863	8,174,100	7,394,048	8,621,501
1864	9,445,635	8,002,424	9,659,621
1865	8,975,072	8,188,964	9,338,822
1866	12,723,100	8,207,233	11,128,610
1867	11,491,961	8,655,752	11,270,770
1868	11,749,287	9,468,805	11,800,165
1869	12,520,646	9,993,136	11,197,502
1870	14,750,972	11,042,350	16,457,430
1871	17,272,267	13,708,580	15,652,304
1872	20,255,671	16,413,852	19,854,966
1873	22,840,015	19,876,235	23,507,735
1874	26,313,253	22,122,878	25,990,107
1875	24,399,970	20,948,113	25,072,806
1876	26,510,697	19,965,367	26,938,599

The differences between total and net expenses may be seen from the fact that the former were 34,740,245 marks in 1876. According to the budget, from April 1, 1879, to April 1, 1880, the total expenses for the year were estimated at 42,376,705 marks; the total receipts were placed at the same figure.*

* It is interesting to note that the net expenses of the municipal administration this year were nearly the same as the interest on the city debt of New York for 1881, which was $8,240,965 45, according to the final estimate.

The report calls attention, with particular satisfaction, to the accounts of expenditures for schools and the support of the poor, as characteristic of the spirit of the entire administration of the city. The magistrates are proud of the fact that in 1876 26 per centum of the sum at their disposal, consisting of net receipts and the balance on hand from the preceding year, was used for educational purposes, while in 1861 only 9.74 per centum of the sum at their disposal was so expended. We will not at present enter into a discussion of the question whether it is wiser on the part of the authorities to endeavor in every way to increase the appropriations for schools, and to pursue this policy systematically, or to begin the work of reform and economy by cutting down the meagre salaries of public-school teachers whenever the public become incensed at the extravagance of the municipal government. The magistrates and representatives in the municipal assembly of Berlin have, however, considered it expedient to economize by so organizing the administration of public charity as not to encourage vicious idleness and unworthiness. The whole city is divided into 157 districts, in each of which there is a poor-commission, consisting of worthy and respectable citizens, which assists in the relief of the poor. The result is, that while in 1861 no other branch of the municipal government required so large a percentage of the revenues at the disposal of the city authorities, in 1876 it required little over half as much as the schools. The percentage for the care of the poor in 1861 was 18.13; in 1876, 14.19.

Perhaps no part of the city administration reflects more credit upon the municipal authorities than the management of the city debt. The expenses on account of this debt, including interest, and in each case a considerable payment toward extinguishing it, were 4.48 per centum of receipts in 1861; in 1876, 3.91. No great debt is allowed to accumulate. A burden is shifted from the present to the future only when it seems right that the future should bear it. A case occurred where the rapid increase in the size of the city made it necessary to build a large number of school-houses at one time. As these would benefit the future as well as the present, it was considered right that the future should bear part of the burden. The same policy has been pursued in the case of the new system of sewerage. In both cases it would otherwise have been necessary to postpone needed improvements for a number of years. The total debt at the close of 1876 was less than $6,000,000, which cannot be considered a bad showing for a city as large and wealthy as Berlin.*

It is impossible not to admire the zeal, economy, and intelligence with which Berlin is governed. If it were possible to take up each branch of the city government and examine it in detail, this would become still more evident. It is, however, impossible to do so within the limits of an article of this character. The writer can, in conclusion, only hope that some of his readers may be induced to examine the most admirable report of the Berlin magistracy for the years 1861–1876. The study of this report, together with some work on Prussian municipal law like Von Möller's "Preussisches Stadtrecht" (Breslau, 1874), could not fail to benefit those to whom the government of any large city has been committed.

* The total funded debt of New York, July 31, 1881, was $135,100,907 07. Subtracting the amount in the Sinking Fund, the net funded debt, on December 30, 1881, was $98,302,854 18.

THE ALIENATION OF RUSSIA FROM FRANCE.

PARIS, March 3, 1882.

THE House of Austria has long been the chief enemy of France. It was also the enemy of all the free countries of Europe. Under Philip II. it represented a principle which, if it had triumphed permanently, would have put an end to all civilization. It was a fundamental principle for all the representatives of France to look everywhere for allies against Austria. They tried in turn the Dukes of Savoy, the Netherlands, England, the Swiss cantons, Venice, the Turks, the Swedes. Henri IV. was assassinated at the very moment when he intended to begin a great struggle against Spain and Austria. His "great design" remained among his legacies to his country, with the noble principle of religious tolerance. Richelieu made an alliance with Gustavus Adolphus, and opposed him to Tilly and Wallenstein. Under Louis XIV. France was obliged to employ Turkish arms against Austria; Poland was also a sort of ally, but a fickle and uncertain one.

A new power was forming in the seventeenth century. It emerged, so to speak, from the atomic and unorganized state; and it was soon clear that Russia, appearing on the stage of European politics, might some day play in the combinations of war and of diplomacy the part which had been long assigned to Sweden, to Poland, and to Turkey. Sweden, thanks to the genius of her leaders, had taken a part which was out of proportion to her real strength; but she could not play it for ever. Poland was weakened by the most absurd political organization, and was at times absolutely impotent. Turkey's long decadence was already beginning; she could still strike heavy blows, she could spread terror in the valley of the Danube, but she could not do much more than inflict useless misfortunes on all her neighbors. The Grand Duchy of Muscovy had become Russia; Peter the Great had made his country a European power, and told the French that Russia could take the place of Sweden. What was France to do with regard to this ambitious young empire? The union of France with Sweden, with Poland, and with Turkey had become one of the maxims of French politics—it was a sort of religion; and it was evident that Russia could only elbow herself out of her old provinces at the expense of Sweden, Poland, and Turkey. Were we to abandon our traditional allies in favor of a new ally, to leave the certain for the uncertain, the known for the unknown? Was it not better to take advantage of the difficulties of our allies, to keep them united under the protection of France, and to oppose them as a strong barrier, not only against the encroachments of Austria, but against the ambition of the new semi-Asiatic empire? If France had boldly and systematically adopted either one or other of these two policies, she would probably have been benefited in either case. But she wavered between the two systems; she vacillated between her old allies and Russia.

We are only now beginning to study in all its details the French diplomacy of the eighteenth century. The Duc de Broglie has given us some very interesting details in his 'Secret du Roi,' and recently he has analyzed with much talent the incidents which accompanied the beginning of the Seven Years' War in a series of articles in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, which will soon be republished in a volume. M. Albert Vandal has just written an interesting volume on 'Louis XV. et Elisabeth de Russie,' a study of the relations of France and Russia in the eighteenth century, composed with the aid of documents in the archives of our Foreign Office. When Peter the Great made his visit to the Court of the Regent, he was, says Saint-Simon, animated with an extreme desire to unite himself to us. The Regent, who had a very unprejudiced mind, had already ordered M. de Châteauneuf to open negotiations with Peter, when he received a very curious letter from Dubois, warning him against the dangers of the Russian alliance, and assuring him that he would certainly lose England and Holland, and therefore all the fruits of the triple alliance which he had concluded. "The Czar and the King of Prussia pass for very untrustworthy princes. . . . I cannot but remind you of two Italian proverbs. One is: *Chi sta bene non si muova.* The other is the epitaph of a man who had killed himself with precautionary remedies: *Per star meglio son qui.*" The Regent finally refused to conclude an effective alliance with Peter. The Czar's visit was otherwise a great success: he became a lion; his simplicity, his disdain for all comfort, all luxury, his ardor for mechanical objects, amused the court, but he went away without having accomplished anything, and without having persuaded the King's ministers that he might be the new Gustavus Adolphus.

After the death of Peter, his widow Catherine, deceived in the hopes which she had first had on the French side, turned toward Austria and established intimate relations with that empire. The idea of a French alliance was abandoned, and it only revived in the head of Elizabeth, the daughter of Peter the Great. This idea took a very poetic form: Elizabeth fell in love at a distance with the young King of France, Louis XV.

"Toward the middle of his reign," says M. Albert Vandal, "Louis XV. appears as the perfect type of royal beauty, mixed of greatness, grace, calm, and majesty. The glory of his father surrounded him with a brilliant halo, and fortune seemed to accompany his steps. He had known success without having known effort. A happy war rapidly brought to an end and well-conducted negotiations had marked his beginnings, and victory had crowned him with laurels which had not been too dearly paid for. The fatigue of happiness, though casting on his face a shade of disdainful lassitude, still added something to the distinction of his noble visage. For a little while, France was in love with her King, and Europe partook of this passion."

When the question of the King's marriage arose, Russia offered the hand of the Grand-Duchess Elizabeth. She was young, ardent, romantic. A portrait of Louis XV. being given to her, she fell in love with it, and seems never to have forgotten this first movement of attraction. She always kept a place in her heart for this affection, although she afterward spent her life in incessant intrigues. The French Ambassador in Russia was M. de Campredon; he favored ardently the Russian marriage, and showed the political advantage of it in his despatches. The King of France had to choose from a list of seventeen princesses, carefully prepared by the Foreign Office. The first in rank was the daughter of the Prince of Wales, but England could not consent to her becoming a Catholic, and this idea had to be abandoned. Louis XV. fell in love with a sister of the Duc de Bourbon, Mademoiselle de Sens—young and remarkably handsome. The Duke sent her to a convent, and when the young King complained of this severity, "My sister," said the Duke, "is not of a rank to be a mistress." The King said that he would make her his wife. Prince Kurakin, the Russian Ambassador in Paris, wrote all these details to his Court, and the position of M. de Campredon became somewhat difficult, as it was evident that Louis XV. was more accessible to passion than to preoccupations of a general interest.

The Duc de Bourbon finally chose Maria Lesz-

czynska, the daughter of the ex-King of Poland, Stanislas. She was modest, unobtrusive, without any ambition, pious. The marriage, as regarded Russia, was a blunder. The Empress of Russia could not well forgive the King of France for having preferred to the daughter of Peter the Great the daughter of a dethroned king of Poland. Catherine soon afterward entered into a close alliance with Austria; a treaty was signed at Vienna on the 25th of August, 1726, for the period of thirty years. It was a treaty of offensive and defensive alliance against Turkey, defensive only with regard to all other states. This act was one of the most important diplomatic events of the eighteenth century; it paved the way for the partial Germanization of the Muscovite Empire, and began the continuous invasion of Russia by German administrators, engineers, generals. When Russia afterward appeared for the first time on the battle-fields of central Europe, she merely played the part of a reserve of Austria.

Nothing can be more dramatic than the history of the mission of M. de la Chétardie, the Special Ambassador of France, who was the principal actor in the great *coup d'état* which placed Elizabeth on the throne. Almost on the very day when the Czarina Anna died (1740), leaving the crown to her nephew Ivan of Brunswick, a child fourteen months old, the Emperor Charles VI. died in Vienna. All Europe was thrown into confusion. Charles VI. had no male heir. Could his daughter Maria Theresa take the reins of the Empire in her own hands? Frederic II. boldly entered Silesia and took possession of it. What were France and Russia to do? Both had recognized the Pragmatic Sanction and the rights of Maria Theresa. If they stood by her, they saved Austria, they stood in the way of Prussia's ambition, and maintained the old equilibrium of Europe. If they stood by Frederic, they created a new balance of power in Europe.

France had been working for two hundred years against the house of Austria; but was Austria now weak enough? Old Cardinal Fleury wished to side with Austria, but the military youth of the court formed a party which has been admirably described by the Duc de Broglie. The young soldiers, the ladies, the philosophers, who were already becoming a power in the state, all went for Frederic. Attacked by Prussia and threatened by France, Maria Theresa asked for the help of Russia. La Chétardie resolved to place Elizabeth on the throne. He hated the Brunswickians as much as the Russians did themselves. The army, all the malcontents, had their eyes turned upon the daughter of Peter the Great. The history of this revolution is well known. La Chétardie played the principal part in it, after Elizabeth. She showed the greatest firmness and courage—went herself to the barracks. "Children," said she, "wake up! Our poor nation is under the yoke of the Germans. Let us get rid of our oppressors." How strange these words sound! how like the words pronounced the other day in Paris by Skobeleff!

After her triumph, one of the first thoughts of Elizabeth was for Louis XV. She immediately wrote to him, announcing the great event. The accession of Elizabeth to the alliance formed against Frederic in 1756 would have ruined the King of Prussia; but the policy of Louis XV. was vacillating. The history of its variations is well told in the interesting work of M. Albert Vandal. After the death of Elizabeth, the French policy became even more uncertain. Louis XVI. was thinking of an alliance with Russia when the convocation of the States-General interrupted all his plans. The revolution of 1789 threw Russia perforce among the enemies of France,

THE NATIONAL PARTY AND THE EGYPTIAN CONTROL.

CAIRO, February 27, 1882.

WITHOUT attempting to speculate upon the uncertain factors in the problem—such as the panislamic aspirations of the Sultan, the intrigues of Halim, and the hopes of Ismaïl—the events which have placed the National Party in power may be thus briefly stated. Just a year ago the troops comprising the garrison of Cairo beleaguered the Khedive in his palace, and did not return to their quarters until they had obtained what they demanded—to wit, the release and pardon of a colonel who was being tried by court-martial for a purely military offence. On the 9th of September, 1881, Ahmed Bey Arabi, and the insubordinate colonels of the preceding February, usurped the command of the Egyptian Army, and, with the irresistible argument of six batteries of Krupp guns, demanded (1) the dismissal of the Riaz Ministry, which had gained its reputation by a reform of the financial administration, (2) an increase of the strength and pay of the army, and (3) a Constitution. Arabi Bey frankly told the Khedive upon this occasion that unless he yielded to these demands a successor was ready to take his place. All that the colonels asked for was granted, except that an Assembly of Delegates was given them instead of a Constitution. Sherif Pasha—the successor of Riaz—ordered the elections to be at once proceeded with. The Delegates were chosen amidst the utmost tranquillity, not to say indifference, of the great masses of the people. The names presented by the Sheiks-el-Beled, or village mayors, were accepted without question, and nine out of ten fellaheen are to this day ignorant of even the name of the delegate who represents their district in the National Assembly. In January, the Assembly, composed of a single chamber of eighty delegates, was opened in person by the Khedive. The framing of the Organic Law defining the functions and limiting the powers of the Assembly caused a serious difference of opinion between the Sherif Ministry and the Assembly. The latter demanded the full control of the Budget, but promised not to disturb the arrangements for the payment of the Turkish Tribute and the Public Debt, which had been sanctioned by the Law of Liquidation, having the full force of a treaty obligation. The Sherif Ministry urged that the powers demanded by the Assembly infringed upon the functions of the Anglo-French Control as established by the Khedivial decree of November 15, 1879. Upon this issue Sherif Pasha resigned, and was replaced by Mahmud Pasha Samy (who had been War Minister under both Riaz and Sherif, and who had served as a cavalry officer during the late Turko-Russian war), and Ahmed Bey Arabi became the new Minister of War. A law was at once approved by the Ministry which gave the right to vote the Budget to a committee composed of Ministers and Delegates in equal numbers, the Assembly having the casting vote. This limited the sphere of action of the Controllers to that of mere cashiers. The British and French Consuls-General protested, and the Assembly replied to their protest by denying that the Powers had any right to interfere in matters concerning the interior development of the country. The issue is now framed. Riaz and Sherif have fallen, and, with the possible exception of Mahmud Pasha Samy, there is no longer any "buffer" between the Egyptian Assembly of Delegates, with the army at its back, and the Anglo-French Control, which virtually assumed the functions of an Anglo-French Protectorate. Either the Assembly or the Control must give way. The Army are ready to fight if necessary to support the position now maintained by the Assembly, and England and France cannot withdraw the Control without eating their own words, proclaimed with a flourish of trumpets in Lord Granville's despatch and in the Joint Note.

It should be observed that the Anglo-French Control—unlike the International Tribunals and various financial institutions—is not created by treaty, or by any strictly international obligation whatever, but is established by an ordinary Khedivial decree, which may at any moment be lawfully revoked at the Khedive's pleasure. The following is a translation of the decree concerning the powers of the Controllers-General:

"ARTICLE 1. The Controllers-General shall have in financial matters the most complete powers of investigation into all the public services, including those whose receipts have a special destination by virtue of decrees and contracts. Ministers and functionaries of every rank shall be bound to give every information and to furnish every document required by the Controllers and their agents. The Minister of Finance especially shall furnish the Control every week with a detailed statement of all receipts and expenditure at his Ministry. Every other Administration shall furnish similar statements every month.

"ART. 2. The Controllers shall agree upon the public services over which they shall each exercise the rights of supervision and control conferred by this decree.

"ART. 3. The Governments of France and Great Britain having consented, for the moment, that the Controllers shall take no part in the actual management of the Administration and financial services, the Controllers shall for the present confine themselves to the communication to us or to our Ministers of such observations as their investigations give rise to. They shall also communicate to the Commission of the Debt all facts of a nature to interest the creditors of the Consolidated Debt. They may also, on account of such facts, convene the Commissioners of the Public Debt to examine such questions as the Controllers or the Commissioners of Public Debt may think advisable to discuss in common.

"ART. 4. The Controllers shall have the rank of Ministers at the Council (of Ministers) and shall have a seat and a consultative voice there.

"ART. 5. At the end of each year, and more frequently if necessary, the Controllers shall communicate to us their work in a report which shall be published by them and inserted in the *Moniteur Egyptien*.

"ART. 6. The Controllers can only be removed from their posts with the consent of their respective Governments. They shall name their own officials and fix their salary.

"ART. 7. The expense of the Department of the Control shall be fixed by the Controllers and approved by the Ministers.

"ART. 8. The amount required by them shall be paid to them monthly.

"ART. 9. Our Ministers are charged with the execution of this decree.

"Signed: "MEHEMET TEWFIK.
"RIAZ PASHA.

"Nov. 15, 1879."

Whether Egyptians under parliamentary government may or may not, after all, furnish another instance of old wine in new bottles, depends upon a question that is very little considered by either the great Powers or by the National Party—to wit, public education. Of the 350,000 male children in Egypt, of school-going age, about 120,000 attend "schools," where education is limited to the learning by heart of a few rules of the Koran; only 2,000 receive instruction equivalent to that imparted in the primary schools in the United States; and scarcely 400 pupils receive what may be called higher instruction. These figures are exclusive of 8,000 pupils in private schools, established by Europeans and by the American missionaries in Cairo, Alexandria, and Siut, only fifty per cent. of whom are Egyptians; and the 7,000 students in the El Azhar (the great University of El Islam, where theology flourishes, and where natural science is cribbed and confined to meet the requirements of the dogmas of the Koran) are also excluded. The following significant facts show in what direction public instruction in Egypt is tending: dur-

ing the past seven years the total number of pupils in the Government schools has *diminished nine per cent.*, and during the same period the number of pupils in schools established by foreigners, and which have no connection whatever with the Egyptian Government, has *increased thirty-six per cent.* B.

ALEXANDRIA, March 7, 1882.

THINGS have been in suspense here for some time. The only news which has been passed on from one to another, in the lax sort of way in which news travels here, is that another change of Ministry is imminent, and that the Khedive is holding frequently-repeated consultations, now with the English and French Consuls-General and now with his chief Ministers in the new Cabinet.

The inclusion in the newly-settled Constitution of a clause under which the Budget is to be discussed by a committee of the Chamber of Notables and the Ministry, sitting together, is the main victory attained as yet by the last revolutionary move, which brought Colonel Arabi Bey to the presidency of the Ministry of War. The clause seems natural and, to the European or American mind, innocent enough in itself; and yet the whole question of the continuance of the European Control in its present form will probably be found involved in it. Those who are familiar with the history of Egypt for the last four years will remember that all the administrative improvements which have been achieved, and the constitutional victories which have been won, have been bound up with the readjustment of Egyptian finance. When it was found by the International Commission of Inquiry of 1878 that in his reign of fifteen years the Khedive, Ismaïl Pasha, had burdened his country with a debt of £90,000,000 sterling, with scarcely anything to show for it in the way of reproductive improvements, England and France were charged by the other Powers to make a resolute effort to save the country from bankruptcy, and to provide for the liquidation of the debt within a limited period. In the course of their report, the Commission had drawn attention to the administrative confusion which prevailed in all branches of the Government, and which involved the grossest oppression of the people. Corruption and extortion in collecting the taxes, forced labor perverted into slavery, a military conscription of an oppressive and grinding character, and the general denial or pollution of justice in the native courts, were some of the evils which the report laid bare. The Commissioners attributed all these evils to the uncontrolled absolutism which characterized the Government. The remedy was sought first of all in including a French and an English Minister in the Egyptian Cabinet, for the purpose of checking the Khedive and reconstituting the administration; and afterward, when the Khedive Ismaïl was recalcitrant and fostered a revolution in order to escape from his constitutional fetters, recourse was had to a new sovereign who should hold his throne by a strictly constitutional tenure, and whose Ministers should admit to their meetings for purposes of consultation an English and a French adviser, severally representing their own Governments.

It is this implication of the finances and the yearly Budget with the general administrative conditions of the country which renders the clause above adverted to in the new Constitution of such serious import. The English and French Controllers, MM. de Blignières and Colvin, have already publicly protested, in a document dated from Cairo, the 6th of February, which has appeared in the leading French and English newspapers. In this document they say:

"When the Decrees regulating the powers of the Controllers were promulgated, the real power belonged to the Khedive, and by delegation to his Ministers. If the Controllers-General were confined to the right of giving advice, it was to be presumed that their advice would receive just appreciation. This expectation has been realized, and the financial situation of the country, which was so grave two years ago, is now as prosperous. But since then the power has shifted. It now belongs to the Chamber of Delegates and to several military chiefs to whose influence the Chamber submits."

The protest concludes with the following words:

"To accept accomplished facts is therefore to accept the most serious outrage which has been committed against the influence of England and France. . . . It will be a profound illusion not herein to see the prelude of a series of measures which will not leave standing any of the reforms introduced in the course of late years. The days may already be foreseen when the financial disorders which were remedied by the Commission of Inquiry and Commission of Liquidation will reappear."

Nothing could be graver than the terms of this protest and the vista of disorganization and retrogression which it opens out. It must be understood that the danger does not come from the probable influence of a popular Assembly. The Chamber of Notables is no popular Assembly, but is merely a collection of some seventy-five pashas and landowners chosen through Government influences, and identically the same in constitution as the body which from time to time was assembled by Ismaïl himself in the worst days of his rule, and for the purpose merely of obtaining coöperation in some new form of taxation. Furthermore, the military influence which is behind the action of this Chamber is as conspicuous as it can well be. There have been three revolutionary movements between February, 1881, and February, 1882. The first was accompanied by a military demonstration at the gates of the Khedive's palace in Cairo, and resulted in freeing from apprehended arrest their favorite Colonel Arabi Bey, and the change of the Minister of War. The second revolution, in September of the same year, also attended by a military demonstration, secured a change of Ministry, and resulted in the promotion of Colonel Arabi Bey to be Under-Secretary of War. By the third revolution, of February in the present year, the Ministry was again changed on an imperious demand addressed to the Khedive, and Colonel Arabi Bey was made Minister of War, and the late Minister of War Prime Minister.

In the simple recital of these facts it is quite impossible to fail to discover the distinctly military character of the whole movement. The question is fairly put, *Cui bono?* Who is the first person to profit from the movement in every case? It is Colonel Arabi Bey, in his capacity of a popular chief of a tumultuous and treasonable army. Persons' memories must be short who forget that the revolution which led to Ismaïl's deposition, because of the incapacity or untrustworthiness which it disclosed in him, was due to a military revolt in the streets of Cairo. Prime Minister Nubar Pasha and the English member of the Egyptian Ministry were the subjects of a violent personal assault, in which 2,300 officers who had come to the capital to demand their pay were intimately concerned. It is the first duty of a true, popular, and representative assembly of a constitutional kind to have the army under its control. This was one of the main matters in dispute in the English civil wars, and the effective restraint on the existence and vagaries of a standing army which the British Parliament exercises by its yearly Mutiny Act, is not the least momentous of the guarantees for constitutional liberty in England. It is, then, an extraordinary instance of the enervating effect of Oriental travel on some constitutions that English travellers of repute keep writing to newspapers at home letters full of ardent aspirations for a constitutional reform in Egypt, to be brought about by a visionary National Party, and at the point of bayonets directed against the first constitutional ruler Egypt has ever had, and then directed against the organs which alone have secured for Egypt a taste of the blessings of constitutional freedom.

A thick pamphlet has just been privately circulated among the leaders of the European population in this city, which, though anonymous, is pretty well ascertained to have been written by a late Belgian judge of the Mixed Courts. It is called 'L'Égypte et l'Europe.' More will probably be heard of it, as it is strongly and even passionately directed against the influence of France and England in Egypt. It reviews, among other things, the whole history of the financial reform, and establishes, to the writer's own satisfaction, that England and France have from first to last done Egypt nothing but harm. Much of the treatise is interesting, and implies some knowledge of the peculiar condition of the native Egyptian and of the European life in this country, especially in Alexandria. The writer thinks badly of nearly all classes of European residents here, but best of the English and Germans, and worst of the Greeks. He is of opinion that Arabic should be used familiarly in the Mixed Courts, and that no one should be appointed a judge of the Mixed Courts who has not resided two years in Cairo and passed an examination in Mohammedan law. A.

Correspondence.

ONE OF MANY ANSWERS TO "THE CHINESE QUESTION."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: How shall Chinese immigrants be kept from coming to California in *too great* numbers? That is really the point to be practically settled; and any one who understands both sides of the question can see that neither the Burlingame Treaty, nor the more recent one, satirically called the "Angelic," nor yet the Anti-Chinese Bill now pending before Congress, can be regarded as anything more than steps in the working out of a difficult problem of international statesmanship.

Meanwhile, a wholesome and not ineffectual check might be employed at San Francisco in three ways:

1. Institute a medical inspection of immigrants, prohibiting the landing of all affected by "contagious" disease.

2. Make opium-smoking a penal offence, as it has been made by the Japanese Government, and see that the law is executed.

3. Break up gambling-hells, such as abound wherever the Chinese congregate.

Such regulations might pinch other than Chinese feet, but they would be wholesome and effective. The Asiatic immigration would be reduced two-thirds by them if carried out.

E. W. S.

PHILADELPHIA, March 23.

CONVICT LABOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is it fair to assume, as you seem to do in the *Nation* of March 23, that the workingmen oppose "convict labor" and favor "the enforcement of idleness as a punishment"? An act, which I understand to have their approval, is

now before the Assembly Prison Committee. It simply prohibits the contract system, provides that the convicts shall be employed by the State, and that the products of their labor shall be sold at not less than market prices.

The subject is not new in legislative annals, a similar bill having passed the Assembly of 1871. In the Senate it provoked so much discussion, disclosed such a diversity of opinion, and was regarded as of so much importance, that a special commission, composed of M. S. Meyers, E. C. Wines, and Thomas Fencer, was appointed to consider the whole subject and report at the next session. They sat during the entire summer, met at each of the prisons, penitentiaries, and houses of refuge in the State, spent six weeks in taking testimony, sent circulars containing minute interrogatories to the managers of all institutions mentioned, and of many outside of the State, and received answers to them; examined over one hundred witnesses, including inspectors, wardens, chaplains, and various other prison officials, and a large number of contractors and workingmen; and reported the evidence, with their conclusions, to the Legislature of 1872 in a volume containing 325 closely-printed pages.

They find, upon all the evidence, that "the opposition of the workingmen of the State is to the contract system alone, and not at all to industrial labor in prisons"; that "while the products of prison labor are not sufficient ordinarily to sensibly affect the general markets of the country, there is no doubt that in particular localities these products do come into injurious competition with outside labor"; that "the contract system of prison labor is bad, and should be abolished"; that "in order to a safe and successful change from contracts to State employment, it will be an essential condition precedent that political control be eliminated from the government of our State prisons"; and that "the only process by which they can be removed from the arena of politics is an amendment to the Constitution."

Such an amendment was made in 1876, since which time the prisons have been practically free from political control. The proofs of the evil effects of the contract system which the commissioners regarded as convincing stand uncontroverted, the evil has increased rather than diminished with the growth of prison industry under Mr. Pillsbury's management, and the "condition precedent" has been fulfilled. Is it not proper that the subject of contract labor should now receive legislative attention?

Yours, H. H. Rockwell.

Elmira, March 25, 1882.

[We assumed nothing about "the workingman" in general. We were talking of the "United Trade and Labor Union" of this city. At the late meeting of this body, two plans with regard to convict labor were produced: one proposed to limit convict labor to the production of articles made abroad, and the convicts' food and clothing; the other proposed to cut their labor down to five hours a day on articles actually needed by themselves, and that the rest of their time should be devoted to "education and reform," or, in plain English, idleness.—Ed. Nation.]

PROMOTION OF PASSED ASSISTANT SURGEONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The question of the rearrangement of the Navy Register, which is now being agitated by some of the passed assistant surgeons of the Navy, is not so simple and one-sided a matter as your statement of the case in the *Nation* of the 9th instant would make it appear.

It is true that the system of competition at the second examination was accepted by the assistant surgeons on their entry into the service, but without any adequate idea of the conditions of this competition. As the custom (for it is nothing more) worked, up to last year, there could be no fair competition between members of the same date, some of whom were allowed to remain on "waiting orders," or stationed at New York or Philadelphia, often through political influence, for many months prior to their examination, while others were compelled to remain at sea, or at some out-of-the-way station, where no hospitals, medical schools, libraries, or other advantages were accessible. Moreover, the examinations took place at different times, and often before different examiners, and, without any intention on their (the examiners') part, varied greatly in thoroughness and severity. Without some acquaintance with the workings of the service, this could hardly be understood; and the feeling that protest would be useless and might possibly endanger the chances of a candidate in the examination for promotion, was quite sufficient to keep many assistants quiet who were opposed to the competitive system.

That competition is a strong incentive to hard work and attention to duty, not only in the medical corps of the Navy, but in all other employments, very few will deny; but the competition should be perfectly fair or it defeats its own object, which is, I take it, to reward the deserving alone, and not the fortunate or influential. Nothing produces discontent and loss of *esprit de corps* more certainly than a sense of injustice, and those who have, or think they have, lost rank and pay by this unequal competition, too often become indifferent to the service and apathetic in the discharge of their duties. Furthermore, the law of promotion by seniority applies to all other officers in the Navy, and there is no apparent reason why medical officers should be governed by the competitive system, that does not apply with equal force to all the others.

The illegality of promotion by competition since 1871 has already been decided by the Attorney-General, and a law to restore the old arrangement would have to retroact ten years.

P. A. Surgeon.

Mare Island, Cal., March 18, 1882.

DIFFERENTIAL RAILROAD RATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Under the above heading, your correspondent, "A Railroad Man," last week discussed the question which is now being considered by Messrs. Thurman, Cooley, and Washburne, and advanced a number of arguments against the proposition that rates should be based upon the "cost of service." I think your correspondent makes a mistake common with railroad men—viz., that he loses sight of the fact that the railroad is performing a delegated function of the state—the furnishing of public highways—as well as doing the business of a common carrier. The parallel he seeks to draw between the iron-mill and the railroad company is not a correct one. The construction and operation of a railroad is somewhat in the nature of a partnership between the state and corporation. The business could not exist except by permission of the state. The state contributes the franchise, while the corporation constructs the road and conducts the business. But it is with the understanding that rates shall be "reasonable," and this can only be ascertained on the basis of the *cost of the service.* This was why, in the earlier railway charters, the ten per cent. limit was inserted—that after the capital actually invested had been compensated to the extent of ten per cent., rates should be reduced, or in other words, that the people should realize their share of the advantages of the partnership in the form of reduced rates.

Your correspondent unwittingly furnishes in his own argument an illustration that railroad men do intend to base their charges upon the cost of the service, when he says that "it was an axiom among railroads . . . that the short line between two common points should make the rates," and that "this was upon the theory that the short line would generally be the one *able* to do business at the lowest rates and live." Another and later axiom among railroad men is that every foot of grade is equal, in the cost of operating a road, to a mile of distance, while curves also have an important influence; and this is why the New York roads have been continually disputing and reducing the margin of advantage claimed by the B. & O. and Pennsylvania railroads—in short, insisting upon the principle of the cost of the service. Your correspondent says "it has never been claimed that the more costly lines should charge more," but it has been claimed that the supposed less costly lines (the short lines) should charge less, which is just what the public want them to do, and which, considering their relations to the public, it is right they should do. Every line should carry as cheaply as it can afford to carry, instead of making a combination and charging all the traffic will bear. The report of the Hepburn Legislative Committee, page 50, says:

"In July last, during a war of rates, wheat was carried from Chicago to New York for ten cents per hundred pounds; in August it was advanced to fifteen cents, a living rate; a short European harvest created an unusual demand; a bountiful harvest here created an extraordinary supply; the rates were gradually raised from fifteen cents in August to forty cents in November. It cost the railroads just as much to haul a hundred pounds of grain in August as in November. It would be difficult to make a criticism upon that raise which public judgment would sustain."

While it is evident that railroad men have not in the past paid much attention to the principle of the cost of the service, it by no means discredits the principle. The argument of your correspondent furnishes an illustration of how oblivious railroad men have become to their proper relations to the public; nor does he seem to be capable of looking at both sides, when he says:

"If it is true that the New York Central can carry freight to New York at a smaller cost than the Pennsylvania road can carry it to Philadelphia, then it follows, as New York is ninety miles beyond Philadelphia, that it costs the Pennsylvania Railroad more to carry freight to New York than it costs the New York Central; and, adopting the cost-of-service theory, the Pennsylvania road should charge more to and from New York than the New York Central charges, while charging the same to and from Philadelphia as the New York Central charges to and from New York."

The answer to this is that the Pennsylvania road should stop carrying to New York when the limit of cost is reached, and if the New York Central and Erie roads can make money at this or a lower rate, why should the other roads try to compel them to charge more? The truth of the business is, that they have all been trying to form a combination to charge the public more than reasonable rates, which should be a fair profit above the actual "cost of the service." When the New York roads see that this has worked inequitably and seek to secure a readjustment, or return to the original principle of competition, leaving every road free to carry as cheaply as it can, a great hue and cry is raised that this

is contrary to the public interest, when the truth is directly contrary, and railroad men are not lacking who boldly assert that the common principles of law and justice are all wrong, that "the fallacy of the cost-of-service theory is obvious," and that "the argument is not only in itself unsound, but fatal to New York." While it is well understood that Messrs. Thurman, Cooley, and Washburne are retained by the railroads to try and patch up a peace between them, it is to be hoped that they will, as prominent public men, have sufficient regard for public rights to consider them in connection with that of the railroads. Combinations have always been considered against public policy and in many States are directly contrary to law. Why not try the plan of letting each railroad carry as cheaply as it can afford to and attract the share of traffic that naturally belongs to it? To argue that they will, in the long run, carry cheaper than they can afford to, and that they must be protected against themselves, is to argue that railroad managers have no business commonsense and cannot be trusted out of leading strings. F. B. THURBER.

NEW YORK, March 20, 1882.

DISINTEGRATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Much interest has been felt in the accounts latterly received of the apathy and indifference felt in Ohio as to the results of the coming elections. But, after all, this apathy is but the same feeling that exists elsewhere, and especially in Pennsylvania and New York—a little more developed, perhaps, and varying slightly in its characteristics; that is all. In Ohio, preëminently a Garfield State, the paramount feeling is a detestation pure and simple for the Stalwarts, as the special enemies of the late President. In New York State the same feeling is connected with a special aversion for Mr. Conkling. In all three States there is a strong desire for greater political purity and for placing our system of government on a higher plane. Much has happened recently to disgust all men of independent feeling. The indecent control of the House of Representatives by the President in the matter of choosing a Speaker; the easy subserviency of the Senate in its confirmation of Conkling—its hesitation over so good an appointment as that of Judge Blatchford; the shameless attacks on the memory of Mr. Garfield by political allies of the clique now in power; the fact that Mr. Blaine's successor seems in no haste to condemn his ridiculous "sky-rockety policy" with South American states—all these causes combine to create widespread dissatisfaction and disgust.

In Pennsylvania the dissatisfaction among Republicans takes the special shape of an aversion for bosses and bossism, such as amounts to actual loathing. Bossism seeks to virtually disfranchise all who do not wear its own collar, and thus strikes at every independent man's self-respect. It plunders us still, and if its power in that respect is nearly destroyed, we shall have still to suffer taxation for the interest on the debt it has piled up. The immediate task before us is to send into permanent retirement every boss and all his satellites, and public opinion has fortunately now reached such a point that it is scarcely possible that any candidate for a public office nominated by boss machinery can be elected. Should such a candidate be selected for the position of Governor by a packed convention, the result will be that large numbers of Republicans will stay at home, while others will think that Democratic success will be the only effectual lesson, and will therefore aid in bringing it about.

It is, therefore, anything but improbable that before the year is out the three States of New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio will have recorded majorities for Democratic candidates, not so much from love of Democracy as from detestation of Stalwartism. M. C. L.

PHILADELPHIA, March 21, 1882.

Notes.

HARPER & BROTHERS are the American publishers of Charles Duke Yonge's 'Constitutional History of England' (1760–1860); and have also brought out new editions of Prof. Newcomb's 'Popular Astronomy' and of the late Jacob Abbott's 'Young Christian' (with a memorial of the author); 'Money-Making for Ladies,' by Mrs. Ella Rodman Church; and 'Prudence,' by Mrs. Lillie.

Cassell, Petter & Galpin have in press an illustrated work, 'Moses and Geology; or, The Harmony of the Bible with Science,' by Samuel Kinns, Ph. D.; 'A Comic History of the United States,' by L. Hopkins, also illustrated; 'The Simple Ailments of Horses'; and several volumes in their handy "Popular Library"—'The Religious Revolution in the Sixteenth Century'; 'American Humorists,' by Moy Thomas; 'Notable Irishmen,' and 'Notable Scotchmen.' This firm will also publish Mr. Kuntz's 'American Academy Notes,' with illustrations, many autographic, after the original pictures now on exhibition at the Academy of Design.

D. Lothrop & Co., Boston, publish this month: a 'Life of Horace Greeley,' by Wm. M. Cornell; the 'Life and Writings of Charles Dickens,' by Phœbe A. Hanaford; and 'Originality,' a reply to Wendell Phillips's "Lost Arts" lecture, by the Rev. Elias Nason.

L. Prang & Co. send us samples of their Easter cards, of which the elaborateness and (in the main) tastefulness are beyond question; but they seem to us to have very little spontaneity and much formalism of design. Their merit may be likened to that of most "occasional" verse.

Macmillan's sixpenny illustrated edition of 'Tom Brown's School Days' is said to have had an immediate sale of nearly 150,000 copies. It is offered here at the same price (ten cents) with Harper's Franklin Square Library edition, which is also illustrated. One secular book, at least, therefore, has become cheap for all the English-speaking race.

The March Reference List of the Providence Public Library furnishes bibliographical aid on the subject of the German Empire and on Elements of Unity in Southeastern Europe. The February List, it is timely to recall, had for one of its topics the late Mr. Longfellow.

The Annual Report of the St. Louis Public School Library for 1880-81 suggests that this institution, with its special patronage, meets the difficulty which general public libraries experience in protecting the young from too much and deleterious fiction. Though adults may and doubtless do use it, they cannot complain of the censorship exercised on behalf of those for whom the library was founded. Does not this contain a hint for Boston?

Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston, have prepared a 'Catalogue of Books' which is an admirable specimen of typography, but is distinguished by the large number of portraits which properly illustrate their list of authors. These mark various stages in the art of woodcutting and in publishers' enterprise, but are mostly truthful and valuable mementos. On application this will be sent to any address without charge.

Mr. F. H. Underwood's 'James Russell Lowell: a Biographical Sketch' (Boston: Osgood) would be none the worse for having already seen the light, as we think it has, in one of our magazines. In its present form it is illustrated with a somewhat muddy heliotype portrait of the poet, and several interesting landscapes more successfully depicted by the same process.

No better choice than Professor Goodwin, of Harvard, could have been made for first director of the American School of Classical Studies to be established at Athens in the fall. We understand that he will sail for Greece in June. According to the plan already made public, his salary will be continued by the college.

That Mr. George Wilkes is possessed of a very trifling amount of humor was shown by his putting forth his 'Shakespeare, from an American Point of View' in 1877. It is shown afresh by his remark in the preface to the third edition just published by D. Appleton & Co., that in the United States the reception of this amusing production "was of the most flattering character; and, indeed, may be characterized as having been unanimously favorable." In spite of numerous improvements now made upon the London edition, the best part of the book still remains not Mr. Wilkes's, but Professor Taverner's ("The Respective Styles of Shakespeare and Bacon, judged by the Laws of Elocutionary Analysis and 'Melody of Speech.'")

Le Livre for March is prettily decorated with an etched border in brown ink, framing the opening sentences of Champfleury's half-malicious sketch of Paul Lacroix ("Bibliophile Jacob"), whose portrait from a drawing made in 1835 is a pleasant souvenir of the Romantic period. Far more seriously and laboriously M. Charles de Lovenjoul traces the literary projects of Théophile Gautier, which were either altered, or half carried out, or abortive. The altered ending of 'Capitaine Fracasse,' as well as the singular interruptions in the composition of this story, is an example of these disclosures; another is the unpublished fragment belonging to 'Loin de Paris'; a third, an unpublished stanza of "Fumée," which is wholly reproduced in autograph facsimile, etc. A capital "*portrait charge*," or grotesque big-head-and-little-body likeness of Gautier, *à la turque*, by H. Mailly (1862), still further embellishes the article and the magazine.

The Rev. S. Beal, Professor of Chinese at the London University, has lately published an 'Abstract of Four Lectures on Buddhist Literature in China,' delivered at University College. It can only be had of the author, whose address is Wark, Northumberland, England. In a recent communication to the Royal Asiatic Society, Professor Beal has made an interesting identification of the Yue-chi of the Chinese with the Vaggi or Vriggi of Vesâlî in India, and of these again with the Scythians, which materially assists in the interpretation of Plate 38 of Fergusson's 'Tree and Serpent Worship,' and "also goes to confirm the idea," says Professor Beal, "that the Sâkyas, to whom Buddha himself belonged, were a Turanian tribe, and in sympathy with these Vaggi, whom Buddha resembles in so many personal distinctions."

—The seventh volume of the reports of the Boston Record Commissioners consists of a reprint of the town's records from 1660 to 1701. These relate largely to lands and boundaries, to schools, streets, wharves, sanitation—if that term be allowable in face of an explicit ordinance (1666) not to throw "garbidge, beast entralls, &c." into the streets, but "into the Mill Creek over the Mill Bridge"—police, elections, etc. An ever-present fear of fire, from chimneys and tobacco pipes, especially, is manifested. Citizens are indemnified for having their houses blown up to check past conflagrations, a fire engine is

got at last from England, and the keeper's motion to be excused from training and watching is met by an allowance of "20s in mony p. ann upon that consideration & he to get himselfe clear from traininge & watching as well as he can." Lastly, that widening of the streets permitted by every fresh devastation is kept in mind and improved, as it has been to our own time. Innumerable licenses are entered "to draw Beere" and to sell chucalatto (or chuculetto, or chocolatta) and syder. Hucksters who "forestale ye market by goeinge out into ye necke & high way to Bostone to buy vp the provisions yt are brought in or comeinge into ye Towne & the sell the same againe at extraordinary deare rates," are made the object of a "prudentiall order." The case of John Lewis is entered as if with intent to order him out of the town, but the clerk in his amazement may have forgotten to finish the entry. John "came from Road Island, where his wife gaue him a paper of dismission from her in Octobr last & libertie to marry another woman, & he is now ingaged to ye widdow Williams to marry her by theire owne confessions & lodgeth at Joseph Preists." In 1690, "The Selectmen humblie pray the house of Correction may be made Capeable to entertain Idle drunken and disorderlie persons"—a use of the word entertain which sounds as odd to our ears as does "artist" in the following context: "Ye sd line ["between Boston & Lyn"] shall bee run by L. Fisher & Jno. Gardiner, if to bee had, or some other Artist." This word, by the way, does not appear in Mr. Priest's praiseworthy "index of places and subjects" which supplements that of names. The irrepressible negro occurs early, but only once in these records, on p. 5, and then as the "Chinese cheap laborer" of that day (5th of 9th mo., 1661):

"Whereas Mr. Tho: Deane hath employed a Negro in ye manufacture of a Coop. contrary to ye orders of ye Towne Itt is therefore ordered yt ye sd Mr. Tho: Deane shall nott employ ye sd Negro in ye sd manufacture as a Coop. or any other manufacture or science after ye 14th day of this month on ye pœnalty of 20s. for euery day yt ye sd Negro shall continue in such employment."

One of the very last votes was "that a house be built for old Mr. Ezek. Cheever the Latine Schoolmaster."

—There is not one of the New England or Middle States but ought to envy New Jersey the possession of such a map as her State Geologist, Professor George H. Cook, and his assistants, aided by the United States Coast Survey, have just published. This map is in two sheets, and represents perhaps less than a tenth part of the entire area of the State, extending from South Amboy, at the mouth of the Raritan, north to Pompton Plains, and eastward of a line drawn from Green Pond to Bound Brook. In this tract lie the great cities of Newark, Jersey City, and Paterson, and the smaller ones of Hoboken, Elizabeth, Perth Amboy, Rahway, New Brunswick, Orange, Boonton, Plainfield, Morristown, etc.—in all, a population approaching six hundred thousand, and much the larger half of the inhabitants of the State. Politically it takes in the whole of Hudson, Union, and Essex, and parts of five adjacent counties. Geologically, it passes from the great clay region on the south into the glacial region bounded by the well-marked moraine which trends in a northwesterly direction from Perth Amboy, and embracing principally the field of red sandstone, hemmed in on the water side (the Palisades) and pierced in the centre (Orange Mountain) by trap, with part of the adjacent limestone, gneiss, and granite. The basins of the Passaic, Hackensack, Rockaway, Rahway, and Raritan Rivers are more or less fully depicted. The essential character of the map is topographical. It is on a scale of one mile to the inch, with contour lines, showing the level above mean tide, ten feet apart in the plain country and twenty feet apart in the hilly portions, which latter by far predominate. Finally, the ro ds are completely laid down, and the pedestrian, the rider, or the bicyclist has now opened to him a district thirty miles square, containing some of the best artificial highways in the United States, and some of the most charming rural scenery. We should add that Staten Island is also delineated topographically, as by nature a part of New Jersey rather than of New York, and that the whole of Manhattan Island, the southwestern extremity of Long Island (including Brooklyn and the whole of Coney Island and its railway system), are flatly plotted on the eastern sheet. The map, therefore, serves a variety of purposes, and is not calculated for Jerseymen alone, though its appearance simultaneously with an elaborate and flattering essay on the climate of New Jersey, in the newly issued report for 1881 of the State Geologist, suggests a probable effect of inviting first visitors and then permanent settlers to this beautiful suburb of our great metropolis. The execution of the map has been entrusted to the establishment of Julius Bien, whose workmanship is beyond comparison in this country, to say the least. We conclude by calling the attention of the Boston Appalachian Club to this contribution to its objects, in the hope that it may be prompted to secure for Massachusetts a geological survey, and ultimately such a topographical chart as this.

— Mr. Grant White's second paper on the "Opera in New York," in the April *Century*, brings his entertaining narrative down to the year 1847, and passes from mere tradition, or antiquarian research, into undisguised personal reminiscence. Fanny Elssler, John Braham, and Madame Anna Bishop are the best remembered names in the present catalogue, which is delightfully illustrated, as before, by contemporary portraits and other engravings. It is a singular coincidence that, while the magazine was on the press, an actual performance of Beethoven's "Fidelio," by Mr. Mapleson's company, was contradicting Mr. White's printed statement that that opera had not been given in New York since 1839, when it was performed by the Inverarity Company. But, what is more singular, as we ourselves can recall three times (in as many seasons) in which "Fidelio" has been performed in this city within the past twenty years, Mr. White here demonstrates the irrelevancy of his chaff in the opening of his first paper, about "the temporal vision of the average denizen of New York, as he looks backward," being bounded "by a horizon about fifteen years off." Ernst von Hesse-Wartegg's description of "Tunis and its Bey" is light and pleasant reading; Mr. Henry Watterson's "Oddities of Southern Life"—a "sampling" of old Southern humorous works, of the kind which Mr. Thomas Hardy found helpful to his impoverished invention—is even more dreary than the original sources; Mr. Andrew Lang's critical sketch of Matthew Arnold serves a good purpose in redirecting the public to so great a poet, but deals with his anti-Philistine and metaphysical prose rather, it would seem, perfunctorily than because Mr. Lang has a very profound interest in the problems so much taken to heart by Mr. Arnold. Undoubtedly the most impressive article in the whole number is Madame Ragozin's "Russian Jews and Gentiles," which is a skilful and apparently candid attempt to account for the persistent hostility of the Russian population to the Jews among them, and for occasional outbreaks like those hardly yet over in the Czar's dominions. To sum up, in a few words, the counts in her charges is not easy. Relying on the revelations of a converted Jew, who, we are left to infer, is a solitary instance of revolt against the immoral code by which his former co-religionists are bound in their dealings with the Gentiles, Madame Ragozin portrays a racial character combining the pleasing qualities of a usurer, a soul-destroying rumseller, a free-mason (with his horrid oaths and imprecations), a Jesuit, a member of the Vehmgericht. The great engine of Jewish greed for landed property is a peculiar communistic organization recognized for purposes of taxation and class government by the Russian authorities, and especially the box-duty on meat, which, though it grinds the face of the common Jew, furnishes much of the funds for the bribery of the local administration and the perpetuation of an intriguing, rapacious, oligarchic power. How far this is historical and antiquated, and how far fiction, we have no opportunity of judging. The editor promises a reply next month, and we shall endeavor to report it. Madame Ragozin, we observe, considers it highly unpatriotic in the Russian Jews to appeal so freely "to foreign sympathy and interference." They have, in fact, the resource of chalking crosses on their doors and shutters, and placing saints' images and Easter loaves in their windows, when the mob is abroad ; and perhaps they ought to be content with this.

— The colonial and revolutionary archives of Maryland are about to be transferred from the Land Office at Annapolis to the keeping of the Maryland Historical Society in Baltimore, in accordance with a bill lately passed by the Maryland Senate (March 16), and House of Delegates (March 12)—a bill which was the outgrowth of a memorial presented to the Legislature by the above Society, and already mentioned in these columns. These archives embrace the acts and resolves of the Province of Maryland ; the council books of the Proprietary ; the journals and correspondence of the Council of Safety ; letters from Maryland delegates in the Continental Congress ; sixty-two manuscript letters from George Washington ; letters from Knox, Marion, Gates, Lincoln, Greene, Lee, Lafayette, Pulaski, Steuben, De Kalb, De Grasse, Rochambeau ; and papers relating to the Maryland militia, which did such efficient service at the North under Smallwood, and at the South under John Eager Howard. While many valuable records of colonial and Revolutionary Maryland have been lost or damaged from lack of proper care, those which yet remain will be faithfully preserved by the Maryland Historical Society, whose library is already a treasure-house of Maryland laws, documents, manuscripts, family papers, pamphlets, broadsides, and newspaper files (covering the entire Revolutionary period, and extending as far back as 1728). For the safe-keeping and easy consultation of the State papers and most valuable Society documents, a fire-proof room, adjoining the main part of the library, will probably be constructed, for members of the Society are now endeavoring to obtain funds for this purpose. The State has made an appropriation sufficient to begin the work of "arranging, editing, and publishing" the archives, together with "other documents pertaining to the history of Maryland." The State will be the owner of all volumes published by its aid, but the Society is empowered to sell these publications at cost price, and to add the proceeds to the State Publication Fund, simply reporting progress, receipts, and expenditures, from year to year, to the Legislature. Thus an undertaking which in the hands of politicians might perhaps have become a piece of printer's jobbery, as some States have found to their cost, is removed from all temptation and made a scientific

enterprise, enlisting not only legislative aid, but also the resources of a learned Society and the pride of all good citizens. The enterprise is kept upon a State footing, honorable to Maryland, while entirely in the hands of a trustworthy record commission.

— The Maryland Historical Society, when it shall have made the archives of the State generally accessible to students, will be in a position to encourage original research. It has a publication fund of $20,000, left by George Peabody for the printing of papers elucidating the history of Maryland or of the country at large. At a recent meeting, the Society voted a considerable appropriation from its treasury toward securing copies of certain Maryland documents, missing in the Annapolis collection, and yet preserved in England, for it was the custom of the proprietary Government to send duplicates of all important Acts of provincial legislation to the mother country. The "Stevens Index of Maryland Documents in the State Paper Office, London," will doubtless be of great service to Maryland in recovering some of her long-lost records. This index, or calendar, contains descriptions and abstracts of 1,729 Maryland documents, covering the period from 1626 to 1780, and thus admirably supplementing the Annapolis collection. The index was prepared many years ago at the suggestion and expense of Henry Stevens, and was by him sold for £100 to George Peabody, who presented it to the Maryland Historical Society. This gift, of trifling cost when compared with other benefactions to Baltimore by the same hand, will yet, like the Peabody Institute, increase and multiply in power in proportion to the growing appreciation of its significance.

—The *Science Observer* has distributed, with its accustomed punctuality, a circular containing the elements and an ephemeris of Comet Wells, 1882, discovered on the morning of the 18th inst. at the Dudley Observatory, Albany. The elements are necessarily only approximate, being derived from observations during so short an interval, but they answer well enough as a basis for an ephemeris which will enable the comet to be followed for two or three weeks hence. All these data have been cabled abroad, using the ingenious telegraphic code devised by Mr. Chandler, of the Harvard College Observatory, and they will be circulated almost simultaneously in Europe, from Aberdeen and Berlin. The comet is already bright enough to be seen with any telescope above three or four inches of aperture, and has a pretty well-defined nucleus, and a tail which is already equal in length to nearly one-half the apparent diameter of the moon. Of this comet Prof. Boss says: "It is remarkable for its small perihelion distance, and its intense brightness in relation to its present distance from the sun. The elements cannot be considered to resemble those of any previous comet." So far as can now be said, the comet will be nearest the sun early in June next.

—Of Meyerbeer's operas "Les Huguenots" is at present the most popular in every city where Italian opera flourishes. "Le Prophète," "Robert le Diable," and "Dinorah" rank next in popularity, while for his last work, "L'Africaine," the demand seems to be much less urgent. In New York it had not been heard for so many years that its revival at the Academy on the 22d inst. had almost the appearance of a novelty, and it accordingly attracted an immense audience. New and gorgeous scenery and costumes had been promised by the management, and to a large extent this promise was kept. Mr. Mapleson has an uncommonly good-looking ballet corps, and a successful effort was made in the fourth act to display it to the best advantage by means of gaudily-colored dresses, ingenious grouping and processions, and a picturesque background, with Indian vegetation and temples. The scenery in the third act was much less satisfactory. The cast of characters was necessarily as strong as Mr. Mapleson could make it, for the vocal score of "L'Africaine" is not of the easiest. Signor Galassi created the strongest impression by the vigorous accents of his sonorous organ, by his finished acting and his superb appearance. Next in order of merit comes Madame Hauk, whose *Selika*, if not fully equal to her *Carmen* from a histrionic point of view, was yet a fine personation. Deviations from the written score are very rare with this artist, and her pure, rich voice gives as much pleasure to the ear as her conscientious and clear phrasing does to the intellect. Signor Campanini's vocalization was characterized by the usual *aplomb*, smoothness, sentimentality, and occasional lack of tone-color; while in appearance, gesture, and facial expression he was as far removed from the ideal *Vasco da Gama* as from the ideal *Lohengrin* or the ideal anything. The rest of the cast calls for no serious praise or censure. Signor Arditi had his vocal and orchestral forces under proper control, and, considering the many difficulties of the work, it must be admitted that the performance as a whole was creditable to all concerned, although very far from perfection.

—Whether the opera is worth all the trouble and money expended on it is a question which we must answer in the negative. "L'Africaine" has one feature in common with Goethe's "Faust" and Wagner's Nibelung Trilogy: it occupied its author's attention at intervals during more than two decades. Here, however, the resemblance ceases, for, while in "Robert" and "Les Huguenots" there are occasional flashes of real genius, there is nothing in "L'Africaine," with the exception of the ballet-music, that could be musically ranked with "The Mascotte" or "The Merry War." Meyerbeer received the libretto of "L'Africaine" from Scribe in 1838, and at once began to make so many changes in it that Scribe finally lost all patience and actually withdrew the book. The music also he continued to alter, introducing a new song or chorus here and there, and never satisfied with the work as a whole, or the singers available for its production, until finally death overtook him, in 1863, before the work had been publicly performed. It has been asserted that this opera best represents Meyerbeer's emotional side, and that it is the most sympathetic and the most purely musical of all his works. But it is difficult to discover much emotion or good music in it, although it must be admitted, on the other hand, that it is comparatively free from the claptrap and direct appeals to the galleries that vitiate most of his other works. It is said that at its first production in Paris the performance of this opera occupied more than six hours.

—The Philharmonic and Chorus Societies again united their forces on Saturday evening and gave their second and last concert of the season at Steinway Hall. It was in every way equal, and in some respects superior, to its predecessor. The programme combined the three essential elements of novelty, beauty, and grandeur, and the execution was excellent in all but one or two of the numbers. It could not be expected that so large a body of singers, only united a few months ago, should display the unfailing precision of attack, and the smoothness and even gradations of sound, that will come after a few seasons' practice; but we doubt if in this or any other country a chorus has ever been organized which, after so short an interval, could interpret in a more satisfactory manner that crowning glory of vocal difficulties, Beethoven's Missa Solennis, of which the Kyrie and Gloria were sung. The Sanctus was heard at the last Brooklyn concert, and the whole work forms part of the May Festival scheme. In the days of Bach the orchestral instruments, when united with the voice in one composition, were treated very much like vocal parts. In Beethoven's great Mass the opposite extreme is reached. It is correctly described by Richard Wagner as a purely symphonic work, in which the vocal parts are treated like human instruments, while the underlying words serve merely as basis or material for the voices. Beethoven was too independent and purely musical to allow the traditions of vocal limitations and religious symbolism to impede the flight of his bold imagination. Consequently this work, like many others by Beethoven and like most of Wagner's, must not be judged from the point of view of the beautiful, but of the sublime, in the sense in which this word is used by Kant and Schopenhauer. Besides these selections from the Mass, the chorus assisted in the performance of the nine selections from Gluck's "Alceste," which were discussed in this place in connection with a recent Brooklyn concert, and in one of the two numbers from Berlioz's "Benvenuto Cellini" which preceded the Mass. The soloists in the Beethoven, Gluck, and Berlioz compositions were Mrs. Osgood, Miss Cary, Mr. Toedt, and Mr. Henschel. Of these the two first named have the advantage of more sonorous and beautiful voices, but Mr. Toedt and Mr. Henschel did not lag behind in their attempts to interpret conscientiously their difficult parts. Miss Cary also sang "Voi che sapete," from Mozart's "Figaro." The purely orchestral numbers were Schubert's unfinished symphony and the new supplementary movement to Rubinstein's Ocean Symphony. To judge by the persistent manner in which Rubinstein returns to this favorite work, he must have been more impressed by the ocean than Oscar Wilde. His aim seems to be to convey the idea of oceanic immensity by an indefinite number of new movements, already very numerous. Being only fifty-three years of age, he may easily live twenty more; and if he keeps on adding a movement every year, as he has done within the last decade, his ideal may be fully realized at the end. The new movement is not so beautiful as some of its predecessors, but is eminently characteristic and descriptive. It begins with a calm motion, which gradually leads up to a storm. This is followed by a lull, in which, however, the waves still run high, and toward the end the storm again returns with somewhat abated force. The composer makes full use of all the modern orchestral resources. The howling and whistling of the violins and piccolos up and down the scale, the blaring of the trombones, the growling of the double-basses, and the final crash of the drums, produce an effect that is suggestive both of the fall of the Tower of Babel amidst a storm, and of the agitated passages in the "Flying Dutchman." But, in its display of true elementary force and grandeur, Rubinstein's storm-music is as inferior to Wagner's as in its turn it is superior to the weak music Meyerbeer has written to the storm-scene in his "L'Africaine."

GREEN'S MAKING OF ENGLAND.

The Making of England. By John Richard Green, M.A., LL.D., Honorary Fellow of Jesus College, Oxford. London: Macmillan & Co.; New York: Harper & Bros.

MR. GREEN is an author the brilliancy of whose talents is apt to throw into the shade the solid merits of his work. He cannot, if he would, be dull. He is endowed with rare grace of style. He knows how to bring into relief the interest-

ing features of unattractive subjects. He can combine a mass of detached facts, which, in other hands, would simply oppress the memory of students, without in the least impressing their imagination, into a narrative which it is easy to read and hard to forget. He is, in short, a literary artist. This is patent on the very surface of everything he writes. It is, therefore, natural that the stupidity, no less than the dulness, of critics should suggest to them the conclusion that he is a literary artist, and nothing more. The soundness of this inference may appear confirmed by the fact that erudition and original research are obviously not the most prominent of Mr. Green's characteristics. He has always avowed himself, with admirable honesty, the pupil of teachers such as Freeman and Stubbs. Yet though all this is true, nothing is a greater mistake than to suppose or suggest that Mr. Green is a brilliant writer who has not made serious contributions to the knowledge of history. The truth is, that while every page he writes sparkles with life, vivacity, and spirit, Mr. Green, though occasionally too fond of a paradox, and, when writing of periods such as the eighteenth century, which lie a little beyond the limits of his special province, somewhat lax in his statements, is at bottom an author of sound and sterling good sense, whose special excellence lies in his grasp of the main facts of the eras with which he is called upon to deal as an historian. 'The Making of England' exhibits in the very strongest manner this "bottom of good sense" and of sound judgment, which underlies all his speculations, and students will miss half the instruction which they ought to gather from the pages of Mr. Green's last work if they are led by the beauty of his style and the ingenuity of his thoughts to overlook the sense and wisdom to be found in every page of the book.

Whoever wishes to assure himself that the most brilliant is also one of the most sagacious and sensible of historians, should note specially the combination of skill and judgment with which Mr. Green states, and to a great extent solves, the essential and, it must be added, most perplexing problem of early English history—namely, how it happened that the settlement of the barbarians, to use the classical term, in the Roman province of Britain had an entirely different character from their settlement in other Roman provinces such as Gaul or Italy. No person who reads 'The Making of England' will fail to understand the nature at least of the puzzle. Gaul and Britain were each provinces of the Roman Empire; each of them was the field of Roman civilization. In each, Christianity, the official religion of Imperial Rome, became the creed of the state. Britain and Gaul alike were occupied by Germanic and heathen conquerors. What the Franks were to the Gauls, that the various tribes of Saxons were to the Britons. Roughly speaking, the fate of the Gallic and of the British province may be said to have been the same. Yet—and this is the matter which calls for explanation—the same causes appear to have led in the different countries to diametrically opposite results. The Franks assuredly did not in any sense drive out the Latinized Gauls. The civilization of Rome, the language of Rome, the laws of Rome, were not in any sense rooted out from Gallic soil. The imperial civilization and the imperial religion triumphed over the German conquerors. France has remained, and will remain for ever, one of the Latin countries of the world. The Jutes and Angles, on the other hand, did drive out the Romanized Britons from the greater part of Britain. When the country was at last transformed from Britain into England, a far deeper change had taken place than is marked by the transformation of Gaul into France. A British or Roman had become a Teutonic land; the advance of the Saxons meant the extirpation or the withdrawal of the British.

This fact has naturally excited not only attention, but doubt; for the expulsion of one race by another is in reality one of the rarest of phenomena; and ingenious theorists, having shown, what is certainly true, that Roman civilization struck firmer root than is popularly supposed in Britain, have attempted to demonstrate, what is certainly false, that the British race and Roman civilization exerted great and direct influence on the institutions of the English invaders. Mr. Green, following essentially the steps of Mr. Stubbs, demonstrates with a clearness and impressiveness not to be found in any other writer with whom we are acquainted, that the British retreat from the greater part of England is as undoubted a fact as can be any event of the past. His mode of enforcing this conclusion is not the use of out-of-the-way arguments or of fine-drawn subtleties, but the plain statement of large and visible historical phenomena. The "tradition," in the first place, "both of conquerors and of conquered, tells us that an utter change had," as a consequence of the Saxon conquest of England, "taken place in the men that dwelt in it. They knew themselves only as Englishmen, and in the history or law of these English inhabitants we find as yet [A.D. 577] not a trace of the existence of a single Briton among them. The only people that English chronicle or code knows of as living on the conquered soil are Englishmen. Nor does the British tradition know of any other. Had Britons formed part of the population in the land which had been reft away by the invader's sword, they must have been known to their fellow-Britons beyond the English border; but in the one record of such a Britain that remains to us, the history of Gildas, there is no hint of their existence. To him, as to his fellow-countrymen, the land of the Englishmen is a foreign land, and its people a foreign people."

Tradition is in such a case a matter of great weight; but, in the second place, local nomenclature, the evidence of language, the condition of English towns—facts, as the saying is, which cannot lie—confirm the witness of tradition.

"The designations of the local features of the country—indeed, the names of hill and vale and river—often remain purely Celtic. There are 'pens' and 'duns' among our uplands, 'combes' in our valleys, 'exes' and 'ocks' among our running waters. But when we look at the traces of human life itself, at the names of the villages and hamlets that lie scattered over the countryside, we find them purely English. The 'vill' and the 'city' have vanished, and in their stead appear the 'tun' and 'ham' and 'thorpe' of the new settlers. If we turn from the names of these villages to those of the men who live in them, the contrast becomes even stronger. So far as existing documents tell us anything, they tell us that Roman and Welshman wholly vanished from the land. When Gregory of Tours writes the story of Gaul after its conquest by the Franks, we meet in the course of its narrative with as many Roman names as Frank. But in the parallel history of Britain after its conquest by the English, which we owe to Bæda, we meet with no British or Roman names at all."

Latin, which had been the official tongue of the province, the language of its soldiers and civil administrators, withdrew before the invaders to the southwest and the west. When it reappeared with the Christian missionaries it came as a foreign tongue, unintelligible to the men dwelling in England.

"The British tongue—the tongue, that is, of the mass of the population even under Roman rule—though it lived on as the tongue of the Britons themselves in the land to which they withdrew, has left hardly a trace of its existence in the language which has taken its place over the conquered area. There is the same utter change in government, in society, in law. The Roman law simply disappeared; and no trace of the body of Celtic customs which form the Welsh law can be detected in the purely Teutonic institutes which formed the law of the English settlers."

If any fragment of the provincial life had survived, it would have been the municipal organization, which elsewhere handed down the tradition of the Empire.

"But with the English conquest the towns disappear. . . . As the conquest passed over them, the towns of Roman Britain sank into mere ruins. Some never rose from their ruins. Anderida remained a wreck of uninhabited stones in the twelfth century, and its square of walls remains lonely and uninhabited still. Silchester and Uriconium, large as they were, have only been brought to light again by modern research. The very sites of many still remain undiscovered."

There is, thirdly, the evidence of religion. The faith of Britain perished utterly.

"Nothing brings home to us so vividly the change which had passed over the conquered country as the entire disappearance of its older religion. Had the conquest of Britain been in any way like the conquest of Italy or of Gaul, its religious issue could hardly have been other than theirs. Had the Britons been left existing on the soil as a subject population, . . . the change of faith would most probably have been a change in the religion of the conquerors, and not of the conquered. . . . It was not the Britons who would have become worshippers of Woden, but Engle and Saxon who would have become worshippers of Christ. . . . But what we find is the very reverse of this. The Church and the whole organization of the Church vanished. . . . So far was any connection with Western Christianity from existing, that all the rest of the Christian world, whether of Celtic or of Roman obedience, lost sight of the conquered parts of Britain altogether. When Rome long afterward sought to renew its contact with it, it was as with a heathen country. . . . When missionaries at last made their way into its bounds, there is no record of their having found a single Christian in the whole country. . . . It is hardly possible to conceive a stronger proof that the conquest of Britain had been a real displacement of the British people; for if Wodenism so utterly supplanted Christianity, it can only have been because the worshippers of Woden had driven off from the soil the worshippers of Christ."

This, then, is the fact. What is the explanation? The answers generally given are unsatisfactory. The Saxons, it is said, were a race of peculiar ferocity. There is not, however, a tittle of proof that they were more savage than the Franks or other Teutonic tribes. Savages, moreover, especially when invading in small bodies, preserve women and children as part of their plunder. The Britons, it is suggested, were a feeble race, unable to resist the invaders. The fact, however, is, that the British resistance was peculiarly lengthy and tenacious. The explanation of a phenomenon which still requires further investigation is to be found, according to Mr. Green, in the admitted facts of the case. The inhabitants of Britain were destroyed just because they were able to resist. The invaders, coming as they did by sea, could arrive only in small numbers. The character of the country—a land, as Mr. Green is never weary of reminding his readers, of marshes, of hills, of forests—lent itself easily to defensive warfare. Every step in advance was gained by battle. Wherever there is fighting there is slaughter, and the Britons who were not slain in battle retreated to the hills and the woods. The Roman civilization, moreover, though real, was superficial; hence a far more rapid return to British barbarism than might at first sight have been expected. A result follows to which Mr. Green hardly gives all the weight which seems to be its due. The invaders of Gaul and Italy were conquered by the impressiveness of Roman civilization. The empire with which they more than half amalgamated filled them with awe. When the Saxon invaders had destroyed two or three towns, they

found themselves face to face, not with the relics of an august civilization, but with men little less barbarous than themselves.

The very same facts which account for the British resistance also account for British relapse into barbarism. Invaders who would have stood awestruck before the shadow of the majesty of Rome, found little to impress their imaginations in the semi-civilized society of Britain. It was not Christianity, but the organization of the Latin Church, which overpowered the barbarians. The British Church, separated by the seas from the organization of Rome, was deficient in the chief means of resistance and of victory. Something must, further, we suspect, be allowed for that mass of causes which, just because we cannot explain them, we call by the name of race. There is something at any rate very curious in the mingled tenacity and weakness of the Britons. They could resist and they could retreat; but in the long run they could never conquer. However this may be, Mr. Green is assuredly right in attributing the fate of the Britons to the peculiar circumstances both of the Saxon attack and of the British resistance, nor is the correctness of his conclusions the main point worth notice. He may be, we may almost say he must be, in error on many points. As knowledge of the past extends, the views of each investigator must in their turn be corrected. What is of importance is far less the truth of Mr. Green's theories than the indisputable soundness of his method. His eye is always turned to the large and striking facts of the past. He discards the perilous byways of theory and crotchet, and keeps along the solid and clear broad high-road of common sense. An author who does this has done much more than establish the certainty of favorite speculative conclusions. He has achieved the best work which an historian can achieve: he has taught his readers the only sound mode of historical study.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

Mr. Joel Prentiss Bishop's 'Commentaries on the Criminal Law' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.; seventh edition, revised and enlarged; 2 vols.; 1882) is a book of standard authority. Considerable alterations have been made in the present edition. A chapter on "Authorities and their Weight" has been added, which contains a brief discussion of *stare decisis—i. e.*, the rule which makes precedent binding—in criminal cases; and several other chapters have been rewritten in part or altogether. Ten thousand four hundred and sixteen is the total number of cases cited in the two volumes, the number of new cases added in the present edition being 902. The new chapter on "Authorities and their Weight" will be found of not a little use in practice, but Mr. Bishop's discussion of the doctrine of *stare decisis* can hardly be considered of much value. He makes a distinction with regard to this rule between acts wrong in themselves and crimes merely prohibited by statute, and suggests that in the latter case any departure from rules of decision already announced would result in gross injustice, being too much in the nature of *ex-post-facto* judicial legislation; while, at the same time, with regard to acts wrong in themselves, he thinks there is no very great objection to overruling established doctrines if clearly erroneous. This distinction involves a discrimination by the court between the two classes of cases which seems wholly unwarranted by any principle of our jurisprudence. The courts know, and can know, no difference between acts wrong in themselves and acts prohibited by statute, so far as the binding force of precedent goes. Another suggestion of Mr. Bishop's is, that in civil cases the principle of *stare decisis*, involving as it generally does rules of property which the business community accepts as guides in its transactions, and under which rights are acquired and transferred, is of more importance in making the law uniform and settled than in criminal cases. But why criminal law should be considered as not affecting rights of property, considering that most crimes are violations of property rights, it is hard to see.

In his preface Mr. Bishop calls for the establishment by the National Bar Association, or some similar body or individual, of a bureau to examine every book on the law, and especially every new one, and report in writing replies to the following questions: "Is it a reprint of a foreign work?" "How far is it original?" "Are there concealed piracies?" "Was the work done personally by the ostensible author?" If a book of reported cases, "did the judges, in their opinion, deal fairly with counsel, text-writers, and one another?" We can see only one objection to this proposal, and that is, that a second report would have to be made by some second association or individual as to how the work of the first had been done. After all, the worth of law books and the manner in which they are written can only be tested by time and use. With regard to some well-known works in use by the profession for several generations, it is still difficult to make out their exact position and value. An amusing instance of this we find in Mr. Bishop's treatise. He says of Kelyng's Reports: "The collection is of considerable value, and it has marks of greater accuracy than most of the old posthumous Reports." On the other hand, Lord Campbell, in his 'Lives of the Chief-Justices,' closes his life of Kelyng with the remark, "I have to mention among his other vanities that he had the ambition to be an author, and he compiled a folio volume of decisions in criminal cases which are of no value whatever, except to make us laugh at the silly egotisms with which they abound." Mr. Bishop's treatise is so well known that it is hardly necessary at this day to go into its general merits, except to say that it is chiefly to be prized as a digest of cases, and not for its original discussions of the law.

The new method of legal study at the Cambridge Law School is well illustrated in a 'Selection of Cases on the Law of Bills and Notes and other Negotiable Paper,' by Prof. J. B. Ames (2 vols. Boston: Soule & Bugbee. 1881). It is a companion volume, in a certain sense, to Prof. Langdell's 'Cases on Contracts,' and is primarily intended for the student rather than the practising lawyer. The volume contains, however, a great deal of valuable discussion and suggestion in the form of very compendious notes to the cases. The method of studying law by going to the original authorities, instead of taking the principles at second hand from the text-books, has now made such headway at Cambridge that it is likely to spread to the other law-schools of the country. There is no doubt that it is the true and only way to gain an understanding of the common law. Those who take the opposite view, and cite in proof of the serviceability of text-books such commentaries as those of Kent and Blackstone, which have, in the course of time, come to have an independent value of their own, should remember that these works themselves were originally mere expositions of the law, extracted by teachers of it from the cases at first hand. They taught the law as found in the cases very much as Messrs. Langdell and Ames now do, although they did not see quite as clearly as we now see the distinction between the authority of a decided case and that of a commentator. One great objection to the method of learning law exclusively from text-books is, that after it has been learned, the student, as soon as he arrives at the point where actual practice begins, is rudely awakened to the fact that his method of acquiring legal principles is not the one used among the lawyers or by the judges who decide the cases which he may be called upon to argue. The objection to the new system frequently raised is that it produces "case-lawyers"—that is, lawyers whose heads are stuffed full of authorities, but are unable to extract from them any principles of decision. But no intelligent instructor in law would use cases for any other purpose than with a view to generalization, as far as possible, in the end. At any rate, there is far more danger at the present day from loose and hasty generalization of legal principles than there is from confining the student too closely to concrete facts as they appear in decided cases.

The ninth edition of 'Story's Commentaries on the Law of Agency,' by Mr. C. P. Greenough (Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1882), contains more than fourteen hundred new cases. We are glad to see that the text of the original work has been restored to that of the last edition published by Judge Story himself, while all interpolations and additions by subsequent editors have been preserved in the notes. The notes of the present editor are very compact and valuable. Story's work on Agency is still the leading authority in this country, although the subject since his time has received such a development that it is difficult to say how long this will remain true.

Mr. John D. Lawson's treatise on the 'Law of Usages and Customs, with Illustrative Notes' (St. Louis: F. H. Thomas & Co. 1881) is arranged, like the author's previous work on 'Common Carriers,' in the form of leading cases, with appendices in the shape of notes. The book will be found valuable as a collection of authorities. The old discussion as to custom as a source of law has lost most of its significance since the discovery of the general fact that in primitive communities custom is always antecedent to law, and that the conception of law as a command issuing from a sovereign authority, with a sanction annexed to it, is a modern conception, almost unintelligible in communities such as, for instance, those of the East, where custom still regulates family and individual life. In our law, custom is chiefly invoked to alter or modify the general rules of jurisprudence, and no one can look over Mr. Lawson's book without becoming convinced that this tendency is capable of dangerous abuse. Attempts are continually made in the courts to nullify elementary rules, not merely of the law, but of positive morality.

One or two amusing instances of this are given by Mr. Lawson. In the Court of Common Pleas in London, in 1860, an attempt was made to introduce evidence of a usage among undertakers to charge the original cost of the articles used at any funeral, although they might be used at other funerals and thus paid for over and over again. Mr. Justice Keating, who tried the case, allowed the evidence to go to the jury, but told them if they considered the custom unreasonable or unrighteous, they ought not to found a verdict upon it; and their verdict, accordingly, was for the defendants. In another case, the late Mr. Justice Maule illustrated the principle of law that a custom must be reasonable as follows: "It is a usage in the strawberry business to put all the large strawberries at the top of the pottle and all the bad ones at the bottom; but that would be hardly a fair custom as against a customer who had bought a fair pottle." In a case very recently decided in the Court of Appeals in this State, a principal sued a broker for deceit in making representations as to the solvency of a customer in the cigar business. The defendant,

for the purpose of showing that the deceit did not influence the action of the plaintiff, was permitted to prove by persons engaged in the tobacco trade that, by the custom of the tobacco business, no reliance whatever is placed by manufacturers and sellers upon the representations of the brokers employed to make sales, in respect to the credit of persons from whom orders are procured. The Court of Appeals thought that such evidence was not admissible, and said:

"Evidence of the custom of a particular trade is admitted to supply what is not expressed, or to explain what is doubtful, upon the presumption that persons engaged in a particular trade are acquainted with, and understand and tacitly assent that their contracts shall be interpreted in the light of, the recognized usages of the trade. But there is no ground for this presumption where the usage attempted to be shown is repugnant to common sense, or is based upon a disregard of the relations which exist between men or the duties which in law or morals they owe to each other. The broker was bound to the utmost fidelity in the business of his employers. His relation to them was such that naturally his representations in respect to the commercial credit and pecuniary ability of his customers would carry weight and influence. He was bound in law and in morals to make no representation which he knew to be false, and to conceal nothing which he should learn in the course of his employment which it was for the interest of the plaintiffs to know. The plaintiffs, on their part, had intrusted him with their interests. They, of course, would take notice of the fact that the broker was interested to earn his commissions; but they had a right to assume that representations made by him in the course of his employment would be truthful. The custom and usage which was allowed to be shown proceeds upon the theory that a broker in the tobacco trade is unworthy of the confidence of his employer, and that this is so well understood that it has become the rule of the relation between them that the employer ignores and disregards the representations of the broker upon the vital question of the financial credit of customers, although the representation was made in the course of his duty. It was competent for the defendant to show that the plaintiffs did not, in fact, rely upon, and were not influenced by, the representation contained in his letter; but this could not be shown, we think, by proof of a custom or usage in the tobacco trade."

Mr. M. M. Bigelow's first American edition of W. Blake Odger's 'Digest of the Law of Libel and Slander' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1881) is, like all Mr. Bigelow's editions of standard works, carefully prepared. His power of statement is not very great, but his industry and accuracy are always commendable. The book as a whole should be considered, as it purports to be, rather a digest than a treatise. It is full of curious learning, of one kind and another, of great interest to all classes of the community. At page 9 we find a definition of libel and slander taken from the Civil Code of the State of New York, as if that remarkable body of law had been enacted by the Legislature. It may be worth while, as the adoption of the Code is now pending, as usual, at Albany, to call the attention of the gentlemen interested in the matter, and of Mr. Field, to the fact that a more preposterous definition of libel and slander was never put together in half a dozen lines. By it, libel is described as a "false and unprivileged publication, by writing, printing, picture, effigy, or other fixed representation to the eye, which exposes any person to hatred, contempt, ridicule, or obloquy, or which causes him to be shunned or avoided, or which has a tendency to injure him in his occupation"; while slander is defined to be

"a false and unprivileged publication, other than libel, which (1) charges any person with crime, or with having been indicted, convicted, or punished for crime; (2) imputes in him the present existence of an infectious, contagious, or loathsome disease; (3) tends directly to injure him in respect to his office, profession, trade, or business, either by imputing to him general disqualification in those respects which the office or other occupation peculiarly requires, or by imputing something with reference to his office, profession, trade, or business that has a natural tendency to lessen its profit; (4) imputes to him impotence or a want of chastity; or (5) which, by natural consequence, causes actual damage."

Does libel necessarily depend "on fixed representation to the eye"? Under this section of Mr. Field's Code, a publication printed in raised blocks for the blind would not be a libel. Again, a libel need not necessarily be false; a cartoon in a comic paper may be libellous, without there being the slightest falsehood in it. To say of a man "that he is an honest lawyer" has been held to be libellous, but it would be very difficult to make it so under this Code. Slander, on the other hand, is not a "publication," and its subdivisions in Mr. Field's Code are not recognized in any of the standard works on the subject. As Prof. Dwight recently pointed out in the *Nation*, there is something ludicrous in the idea that a mistaken report that "so-and-so has scarlet fever" would expose any one repeating it to an action of slander. These subdivisions have been introduced as if dependent on distinctions in substantive law, when in reality they relate simply to the damages which can be recovered by the person slandered. The two sections, taken together, are not in any sense a statement of law as it exists anywhere in the civilized world.

The distinctions between libel and slander are, in our system of law, very numerous, and not by any means rational. The law of slander grew up in the community without much direct interference from the Government, while the law of libel, coming in with the introduction of printing, derived its early severity from the desire of the Government to prevent freedom of speech. In slander, except in a few special cases, the plaintiff has to prove actual damages. In libel he has to prove merely publication. Some of the results of this distinction are very extraordinary. Thus, to accuse a man of fraud, dishonesty, immorality, or any vicious, dishonorable, or criminal conduct is not actionable, unless it has produced as its natural and necessary consequence some pecuniary damage to the plaintiff, and he can prove this. The following species of abuse may be indulged in with almost perfect safety. Any one may talk of his neighbor as "a scurvy, bad fellow," "a rogue," "a villain," "a varlet," "a common filcher," "a cozening knave," "a welcher and a swindler," with little danger. It appears from the decisions, too, that he may add, "I know enough about you to hang you," "you cheated your brother-in-law of upwards of ten thousand dollars," "you cheat everybody," without much greater risk. On the other hand, it is libellous to publish of a man that "he is an infernal villain," "an impostor," "a hypocrite," "a frozen snake," "a rogue and a rascal," "a dishonest man," "a mere man of straw," "an itchy old toad," "a desperate adventurer, association with whom would inevitably cover gentlemen with ridicule and disrepute," that "he grossly insulted two ladies," that "he is unfit to be trusted with money," that "he is insolvent and cannot pay his debts," that "he was once in difficulties," that he is "the most artful scoundrel that ever existed," "is in every person's debt," that "his ruin cannot be long delayed," and that "he is not deserving of the slightest commiseration." The ground usually stated by the courts for the distinction between libel and slander is, that a libel is more likely to lead to a breach of the peace than spoken words; but this is one of those explanations invented by the courts to justify the rules of law actually existing, and is of little or no historical value.

RECENT NOVELS.

One May Day: A Sketch in Summer Time. By Miss Grant. New York: Harpers.

A Heart's Problem. By Charles Gibbon. New York: Harpers.

God and the Man: A Romance. By Robert Buchanan. New York: Harpers.

Esau Runswick. By Katherine S. Macquoid. New York: Putnams.

Joseph's Coat. By David Christie Murray. New York: Putnams.

The Dingy House at Kensington. New York: Putnams.

Eunice Lathrop, Spinster. By Annette Lucile Noble. New York: Putnams.

John Eax, and Mamelon; or, The South without a Shadow. By Albion W. Tourgée. New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

The Senior Partner. By Mrs. J. H. Riddell. New York: Harpers.

Benvenuta; or, Rainbow Colors. By Emma Marshall. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

The Four Macnicols. By William Black. New York: Harpers.

The Burgomaster's Wife. By Georg Ebers. From the German by Mary J. Safford. New York: W. S. Gottsberger.

Aspasia: A Romance of Art and Love in Ancient Hellas. By Robert Hammerling. Same translator. New York: W. S. Gottsberger.

John Inglesant: A Romance. By J. H. Shorthouse. London and New York: Macmillan & Co.

Of the eight stories which head our list, Mrs. Macquoid's is easily the best. None of them presumes to be of the first rank, but all are pleasing enough to repay brief reading. 'One May Day' is in Miss Thackeray's manner, though the author lacks her resources for setting and accessories. 'A Heart's Problem' has a heroine with a double, and her woes are due to the disappearance of one of those letters which, for the benefit of the makers of plots, have been going astray ever since novel-writing began. 'Eunice Lathrop' has some incidents so sensational that we should have passed it by but for the very pretty sketching in the earlier chapters. The pictures of the life of the country minister and his daughter are very delicate, and to interleave them with the suicide of an adventuress is like throwing sweet wild flowers into the dirt and grime of an ash-heap. 'Esau Runswick' is a tale, half French, half English, of an old man cramped and embittered by early disappointment, but won back to forgiveness and charity at last by the loving tenderness of his niece. Mrs. Macquoid has plenty of materials with which to fill in the details of her work, so that there is little excuse for such careless heaping together as in this description of a lady's boudoir: "On the walls and about the room were Venetian and Florentine mirrors; carvings in ivory and wood from Nuremberg; Dresden figures and Sevres cups and saucers; Japanese bronzes; Oriental rugs and chair-coverings; Chinese curios—almost every part of the world had paid its tribute to the beautiful little room." It is a cheap way of producing an effect, to which it is time to object, as it is now too often repeated. What is it better than an appraiser's list or an auctioneer's catalogue? We were about to turn to Miss Thackeray for an example of what the picture of an interior ought to be to give the reader a sense of individuality, but a bit turns up nearer to our hand in 'Eunice Lathrop.' Perhaps it is all the better for an illustration in that it is intrinsically worth nothing. It has, however, a character of its own, and does not

sound like a mere copy of a newspaper advertisement. It is the spinster's sitting-room :

"A multiplicity of foam-white tidies bubbled up over the surface of her sofas and chairs. The rainbow parasols of grotesque celestials hung from her gas-fixtures, arabesques of autumn leaves meandered artistically around the hieroglyphics of presumably pious texts, and all the surroundings were suggestive of a fancy bazaar. What if every fern, every illumination, every wretch of a tidy put in the eloquent plea of 'Stay at home with us, Miss Eunice !'"

'God and the Man' has been heralded as "so powerful, so dramatic," but the reader will not reach the second half without the conviction that it is like the power of a man who has shouted himself hoarse. The theme is implacable, undying hate. The writer has chosen somewhat the same path as that of the 'Wreck of the *Grosvenor*' books ; but he is decidedly ahead in that he has conceived the idea of setting afloat in mid-ocean not only a pair of lovers, but also the disappointed suitor, who, by way of revenging himself, has set the ship on fire. He that has breath to follow, will have his fill of icebergs, starvation, and desolation. The end ought to be impossible : that the pious, gentle Priscilla should still love with "a great joy" this wild Berserker, even while he is confessing, "He perished through my hate ; that guilt is on me." But who shall say what a woman may not have done ?

'John Eax' and its companion story 'Mamelon' can hardly add to the literary reputation of their author, though he is surely entitled to the credit of his good intentions. "If the North and South are contrasted, it is but to show the fusing potency of love, or the solvent power of manly friendship." These short stories were written prior to the books which have made his name famous, and their publication is doubtless only another instance of the eagerness of publishers to put forth anything that carries the prestige of a previous success. To say they had better have been left in obscurity, is not to deny the merit of some of the descriptions of both scenery and character. The second story has, in the form in which it is cast, an unpleasant improbability. On St. Valentine's Day, to "a group of merry girls, with fair, light eyes and restless, eager ways," a wife still young is supposed to narrate the history of her married life, culminating in the attempt of her husband to commit suicide in order to obtain a life-insurance, to save her from poverty. Thanks to a timely fit of apoplexy, he misses his aim. Whether this last makes the story itself more likely or not, it certainly makes her telling it to such an audience, upon a three weeks' acquaintance, the more curious.

'Joseph's Coat' is a suggestive title, but it has a slender connection with the story, being only a garment in the lining of which are lost the "marriage lines" of Dinah Banks. *Hinc illæ lacrymæ*, and a wonderful winding in and out of plot, till, in the depths of a coal-mine where she is buried by an explosion, her husband—a returning prodigal of the better sort—finds her at last. The incidents border upon the extravagant, but there is a homely frankness about the characters, both good and bad, that gives reality to the story.

We commend 'The Senior Partner' as a novel that will last—no small recommendation to people of busy brains, who turn to a novel for refreshment on the same principle that they go to see a good comedy. It is so solidly, carefully done, that there is no temptation either to skip it or skim it. It is in this respect more like Trollope's work than we should have supposed a woman's could be. Much of it has that same photographic fidelity. Robert McCullagh—"plain auld Rab"—is the head of a commercial house in London, but one where everything is Scotch—"deeply, darkly, beautifully Scotch." His one virtue is his unswerving honesty, as, cold of heart and hard of head, he makes his loveless way to fortune. Such a man must needs be harsh to his children, and the plot deals mainly with his injustice to his son Robert and the heaping of coals upon his head by Robert's noble wife. But the interest is less in that side of the story than in the contrast between McCullagh and Pousnett, who is the veritable "Senior Partner." The contrast is never obtruded, but left to impress itself on the reader's mind in the development of events : Rab, always crabbed, repellant, grasping, but always with the fine fibre of strict honor in his nature ; Pousnett, winning, suave, plausible—speaking never a falsehood, but, equally, speaking never the truth.

'Benvenuta' is a faintly entertaining story, which would not require mention were it not for the conspicuous "Home Reading for Girls" upon the cover. An older person would see at once the unreality, and the silliness that comes hard upon vulgarity, but young girls might not detect its absurdities. Benvenuta writes a novel between bedtime and ten o'clock next morning, of which three editions are published, and Netta paints thousand-dollar pictures for the Academy. The most objectionable part of the book is the story of the second marriage of Benvenuta's father. Mrs. Powis is not at all the cruel stepmother, and the grown-up children have no recollections of their own mother; but the lady's folly and Benvenuta's righteous indignation are worked up in a way to be painful if real, yet are here only ludicrous. Outside of questions of absolute principle, there is probably nothing about which preconceived notions in a girl's mind can do more to destroy happiness, most of all her own, than this matter of a father's second marriage. Because of its false teaching in this regard, the book is positively to be condemned.

'The Four Macnicols' is only a bit of a sketch, which the reader will wish were longer, of brave, hearty Scotch fisher-lads to whom sixpence is affluence, and a shilling a fortune. It has in it all the best traits of Mr. Black's work, and the peculiar charm with which he always depicts life upon the sea. It has, too, a special wisdom, in that the boys work their way up in a natural manner. No miraculous discovery, no prodigy of benevolence smooths the path for them ; they make their own modest fortune with only such help as diligence and perseverance may expect.

It is doubtful if in all historical writing there is any episode of which it is oftener said, "It reads like a story," than of the chapter in Motley's 'Rise of the Dutch Republic' entitled "The Drama of Leyden." To compare it page by page with 'The Burgomaster's Wife' will only prove the superiority of the history in clearness, vividness, and, withal, nobleness. Nor is this to disparage the novel, which presents a stirring picture of that stormy time when Leyden stood a desolate, but steadfast, witness for the Protestant faith. Both historian and novelist have selected the same incidents, and even to minute details, so far as real facts and persons are concerned, the novel might have been made up solely from the pages of Motley. The women and children whom Ebers has introduced in the families of the burgomaster Van der Werff and his friends are gentle, gracious figures, and at any other time their love and fidelity would strongly appeal to our sympathy. But such feeling is already so strongly excited by the horror of the situation, that the ordinary material of romance seems impertinent. One regrets that the space given up to it had not been devoted to a fuller account of what was going on outside of Leyden—the successive stages by which the country was flooded, and that marvellous voyage of the fleet of deliverance, instead of leaving it to be just hinted at in the broken story of one of the sailors. We are conscious, however, that this is more of a loss to German readers ; for to an American any version of it after Motley's would seem a story at second hand.

'Aspasia' belongs to the same series of translations, of which we may say in passing that they are very attractive in their make-up. To do justice to the author, he may speak for himself from his preface, first as to romance-writing itself :

"Philosophers are right in asserting that the idea never merges wholly into reality. The poet of tendency pursues it to a high point of its development, holds it forcibly at a spot which it really only touches in passing, makes it shimmer and sparkle for the pleasure of mortals, and converts the soap-bubble into the fixed star. Pure, unpremeditated poetry, on the contrary, accompanies the idea on its way to realization to the spot where, to restore itself to its former purity, phœnix-like, it delivers itself to a fiery death."

Of this romance in particular he says : "It not merely contains, in a positive form, beautiful sensuality glorified by intellect, in its development, prime, and decay, but the conflict between the æsthetic and moral ideal of existence arises, and is decided in the life of an individual and the destiny of a nation." The obscurity of the first statement may be the fault of the translator, but there can be no doubt of the tone of the second. To justify the picture by its truthfulness would be beside the mark. No one but the special student of the history of morals has any concern with that aspect of the life of antiquity. None of the arguments which are advanced in defence of the representation in fiction of the corruption of modern life have any weight in a case like this. Here, if ever, the past should be left buried with its dead. The book is useless as a study of art. It is a book of information rather than of learning. Of the stories, much is made of one so trite as the acanthus leaves on the grave and the Corinthian capital, and Aspasia repeats at length the school-book dialogue of the better garment and the better husband. All the real effort of the book has gone to the portrayal of scenes of wanton luxury and pleasure, while much that might have been in the original only repelling is here made repulsive by the lack of delicate shading in the translation. A pessimist would need no better text for a lament over the downward tendency of modern fiction than the contrast between this book and the grave, severe beauty of Landor's 'Pericles and Aspasia.' Judged by a literary standard only, there is deeper tragedy in the calm, slow words which Landor gives to Pericles, "I am living in a city of tombs and torches, and the last that I saw before me were for my children," than in the whole chapter of fevered realism which describes the plague in Hammerling's book. Morally, the two works are as far apart as a Greek tragedy and a play of Dumas, *fils*.

'John Inglesant' is in form the biography of a gentleman of the seventeenth century, "sometime servant to King Charles I.," trained, though in secular life, by the Jesuits, in order the better to be their agent between all religious and political parties in England. The book, one might say, is an epitome of the literature of that time. Here are pages from Evelyn's diary, episodes from Gramont, a chapter from the 'Leviathan,' and the dreams of the Quietists. It is made up ostensibly from papers found at the country-seat of an old Catholic family, and some want of skill in form prevents the reality of effect which the writer intended. On one page we are told even the dreams of Inglesant. On the next, the parenthentic "as it appears," "it would seem probable," destroy all illusion. There is no

plot in the sense of mutual influence of the characters one upon the other, but by the single connecting-thread of the hero's personal experience a long train of famous figures are marshalled before the reader, while the political history and the religious controversies of the time are alternately brought forward by Inglesant's occupation in important and delicate diplomatic missions, and by his search for the true philosophy of life as he successively comes in contact with the leading thinkers of his day. It would not be quite just to call the book too ambitious, or its flight too high, but it attempts to cover too wide a field to permit the highest success. The English part of it is less interesting, less vivid than the Italian. The first volume has many passages that are flat and tame. Witness this of a grand pageant, the English Queen and all the court on the river: "He never forgot the sight to his dying day, and it was doubtless one to be long remembered by those who saw it for the first time." The chapters devoted to Italy, on the other hand, are full of exquisite descriptions of nature, in which are set episodes of deep feeling and lofty exaltation. The vision of the blind friar is a prose poem that reads like Milton's rolling verse, and yet it is as simple as the hymn of a child. The reader may take large exceptions, but there will still remain what must make the book a permanent addition to the store of romantic fiction.

THE ST. LOUIS BRIDGE.

A History of the St. Louis Bridge; containing a full account of every step in its construction and erection, and including the theory of the Ribbed Arch and the tests of its materials. By C. M. Woodward. St. Louis: George I. Jones & Co.; New York: D. Van Nostrand. 1881.

AFTER the lapse of more than seven years since the completion of the great bridge across the Mississippi River at St. Louis, an historical description of its construction is given to the public by Prof. Woodward, who, though not associated with the building of the bridge, was an eye-witness of all the principal operations. His book is understood to have been prepared at the request of the chief engineer, Mr. James B. Eads, whose written approval accompanies it. The author is not an engineer, but Professor of Mathematics in Washington University, and this circumstance perhaps adds to the value of his narrative, which is sufficiently technical and minute to meet the wants of the professional reader, and at the same time shows the work somewhat as viewed by a layman, and will be readily understood by any careful reader.

The first proposition for the erection of a bridge across the Mississippi River at St. Louis came from Mr. Charles Ellet, jr., in 1839. He proposed then to cross the river with a suspension-bridge having a central span of 1,200 feet, and two side spans of 900 feet each. It was before the days of railroads, and the city fathers stood aghast at the enormous estimate of cost—a little less than three-quarters of a million dollars, or about one-ninth the cost of the structure described in this volume. It was not till after the war that the scheme for a bridge began to take practical shape. Colonel Ellet was no longer alive; his brilliant career had closed in the successful first attack made by the gunboats which he had himself designed on the Mississippi River. In 1867 the time seemed to have come for operations really to begin. Strangely enough, after nearly thirty years of inactivity, two rival companies appeared in the field: one was regularly organized under the laws of Missouri, and included among its managers several eminent citizens of St. Louis; the other claimed an exclusive right under a charter granted by the State of Illinois, and was controlled by a well-known bridge-builder of Chicago. The plans proposed by these two companies were strikingly unlike. Mr. James B. Eads was the chief engineer of the St. Louis company; Mr. Boomer was manager of the Illinois company. The location selected by the Missouri company was at the foot of Washington Avenue, where the width of the river at ordinary stages is but little over 1,500 feet; and the plan consisted of three steel arches, each 500 feet long, supported by two masonry piers in the river, and an abutment on each shore. All the foundations except that of the east abutment were to be sunk to the rock, which was known to be nearly ninety feet below low water at the site of the east pier. The Illinois company, on the other hand, had selected a location about half a mile above, and proposed to build an iron truss-bridge, the longest spans of which should be 350 feet, supported by piers formed of cast-iron columns, those nearest the Missouri shore to be sunk to the rock, and those on the east side bedded in the sand fifty or sixty feet below low water. For a time the contest between these two companies was very sharp, though confined principally to the newspapers and the courts. In March, 1868, this controversy was terminated by the nominal consolidation of the two companies, and the actual absorption of the Illinois company by its rival, to which the former had sold out.

On the 20th of August, 1867, ground was broken for the foundation of the west abutment. On the 25th of February, 1868, the first stone was laid. The work remained, however, in a state of inactivity till the early part of 1869, when enough money had been raised to justify an earnest start. Up to this time the bridge had been by many regarded as a work of doubtful possibility, and the plans, especially those of the foundations, were by no means matured. These plans had contemplated the construction of immense iron curbs, of circular or elliptical form, which were to be sunk to the rock by dredging the sand from the interior, after which the masonry was to be built in a floating pontoon inside the curb and allowed to sink gradually by its own weight to the rock foundation below. Before work was begun this plan was entirely abandoned, and it was determined to use the plenum-pneumatic process, which, though in general use abroad for nearly twenty years, had been applied only on a small scale in this country. For the benefit of the non-professional reader, a brief description of this process may not be out of place. It is simply the application of the diving-bell to foundations of large size. A caisson is first constructed of the full size of the foundation; this caisson has sides and roof, but no floor; the water is excluded by pumping air in, and the open bottom enables the workmen to excavate the material below. As the water is excluded simply by the pressure of the air, this pressure must always exactly balance the pressure of a column of water the base of which is at the bottom of the caisson; the caisson must therefore be made absolutely air-tight. For entrance and exit a small chamber called an air-lock is provided. The air-lock has two doors, one opening into it from the outer air, the other opening from the air-lock into the caisson. A person going into the caisson enters the air-lock and closes the door, the air-pressure being simply that of the normal atmosphere. He then opens an equalizing valve, which allows the compressed air of the caisson to enter the air-lock, and when the air-pressure in the lock has increased so as to balance that in the caisson he opens the door leading into the caisson and enters it. The reverse process is used in coming out. The caisson is placed at the site selected for the foundation of a pier, and the masonry of the pier is built on top of it; when it reaches the bottom of the river, laborers are set to work in the caisson to dig out the river-bed, and as they excavate, the caisson sinks. This work is continued until a satisfactory bottom is reached, the laying up of masonry continuing all the while. When the sinking is completed, the caisson is filled with concrete or other material, making a solid mass of the whole pier. This increase of air-pressure in the caisson as the depth becomes greater is equivalent to about one atmosphere for every 35 feet of submersion.

Never had the pneumatic process been applied anywhere in Europe on a scale like that of the foundations of the St. Louis bridge. The caisson required for the west pier was 82 feet long and 48 feet wide, and was to be sunk 60 feet below ordinary low water. That for the east pier was 82 feet long and 60 feet wide, and had to be sunk 90 feet below ordinary low water. This—which was nearly 30 feet deeper than the deepest foundation ever put in by this process—involved working in over 100 feet of water, under a pressure of about four atmospheres.

The magnitude of these foundations was perhaps enough in itself to make the work original, but several novel details were introduced which added greatly to the efficiency of the undertaking. The air-locks, which had hitherto been placed at the top of long shafts and shifted as the depth increased, were immovable below the roof of the caisson. A very efficient excavator was devised by which the sand was carried off by a column of water forced through pipes by a pump outside. The sinking of these two great foundations was a remarkable triumph of engineering. No serious mishap occurred, and the work was carried on with extraordinary rapidity. In the last 20 feet of the east pier, however, the great pressure began to tell on the men. Its effect was very imperfectly understood; doctors differed while the men suffered. In the caisson no trouble was experienced, but in several instances, soon after returning to the normal atmosphere, men were attacked by a kind of paralysis, which sometimes resulted in speedy death. The length of a working shift was reduced to one hour, the men working twice a day, and the foundation was finally completed.

The success of these two foundations was such that it was determined to sink the east abutment also to the rock, albeit about 100 feet below ordinary low water. Special care was taken to avoid all the difficulties which had been experienced in the east pier; better ventilation was secured in the caisson; an elevator was provided to take the men up and down; lamps connected with special outlet pipes avoided the smoky atmosphere made by burning candles; special attention was given to the care of the men when working at great depth. The results told well: out of fourteen deaths which occurred from the effects of compressed air, only one occurred at the east abutment, and this one was plainly traceable to imprudence. In April, 1871, the last foundation was completed.

From this time forward interest centres in the construction of the three steel arches. This was an undertaking quite as bold as the foundations, and more original. Although the appearance of the St. Louis bridge is not unlike that of the bridge over the Rhine at Coblentz, which may have suggested the ribbed arch for St. Louis, the details of the construction, the material used, and the methods of erection were radically different; and the spans of the St. Louis bridge are more than one-half greater than those at Coblentz. From the start it was determined to make the arches of steel. Steel manufacture ten years ago was very different from what it is

now. It is still far from perfect, but any good, open-hearth furnace could now furnish promptly a material which was obtained only after repeated rejections and difficulties ten years ago. It is hardly too much to say that the steel arches of the St. Louis bridge involved the construction of a new material, the invention of new machinery for their manufacture, and a boldness in their erection commensurate with the other novel features. These arches, the central one of which has a clear span of 520 feet, were built out from the piers and abutments without false works, supported partly by their anchorage to the masonry, but principally by chains attached to temporary towers above the piers. In January, 1874, the last arch was closed. The work now went on rapidly to completion, and the end of June saw the St. Louis bridge virtually a completed work. On the 2d of July, 1874, nearly seven years after the breaking of the ground for the foundation of the west abutment, the finished structure was finally tested.

Seventeen chapters are devoted to the historical description. Eleven more are devoted to special subjects. To the professional reader these eleven chapters are the most valuable; the earlier chapters may be better appreciated by the layman. Chapter xxii., which treats of the physiological effects of compressed air, is perhaps the most remarkable. Prof. Woodward gives an exhaustive description of the sufferings of the workmen in the caisson of the east pier, of their treatment and of the opinions of the attendant physicians, and adds to this his own views, which, though differing from medical authorities, seem supported by excellent reasons. He attributes the injury to the men principally to the great loss of heat experienced in passing rapidly from a pressure of three or four atmospheres to that of one; and he suggests that, in addition to the improvements used at the east abutment, special provisions be made for warming the air-lock used for exit, and for artificially supplying to the men the heat which rapid rarefaction of the air deprives them of. Any person who has experienced the chill of an air-lock on leaving a caisson, and the gratifying warmth of a hot cup of coffee immediately thereafter, will appreciate the wisdom of Prof. Woodward's suggestions.

One of the longest chapters in the book, chap. xxv., is devoted to the experiments made to determine the strength of materials. Seven years ago the information it gives would have been very valuable; now it is one of the most disappointing parts of the book. The reports of the tests of steel give the elastic limit, the ultimate strength, and the modulus of elasticity, but they fail to note, except in a few instances, the stretch of the sample before fracture, and the character of the fracture—two features which are now considered quite as important as mere strength in determining the adaptability of metals to structural purposes. Tables like these are principally valuable in determining the requirements which an engineer should ask for in new works. Although now published for the first time, they have been superseded by later experiments, and give little indication of the class of material which an engineer would now seek to obtain.

The book bears in its pages the marks of honesty: it records the failures as well as the successes. No great work has ever been completed without drawbacks; the St. Louis bridge was not, and Prof. Woodward does not pretend that it was. He relates the failure of the attempt to fit the last tube into the arches, and the final adoption of an adjustable tube which could be lengthened after being put in place; and he does not conceal the fact that after the closing of the two middle arches of the western span a tube was broken in each of them. The cause of the fracture was subsequently explained, and the broken tubes replaced by new ones. It is not probable that the St. Louis bridge will ever be copied: improvements in manufactures have in nothing been more rapid than in those materials which enter into bridge construction. Nevertheless, its construction has been of immense value to the engineering profession. It has shown, in a manner previously unknown, the great resources of the plenum-pneumatic foundation process, which has since been used to found the great piers of the East River bridge, and has come into general practice on the silt-bearing Missouri. It was the pioneer of steel-bridge construction.

The book has a full analytical table of contents, and an excellent alphabetical index. Two defects, however, may be mentioned. There is no general description of the whole subject; and a preliminary chapter devoted to this purpose would be of no little assistance to the reader to whom the history of this bridge is wholly new. The frequent reference to dates in all parts of the volume is generally made without giving the year; and though this may be determined by looking back a few pages, it is somewhat confusing in a narrative which runs over a period of seven years. On the whole, it is perhaps not too much to say that Prof. Woodward's volume is the most valuable work of its kind which has yet appeared in America; and it is gratifying to be able to add that the typographical execution is worthy of the book. Besides numerous woodcuts in the text, there are thirty-nine lithographic plates of unusually good workmanship, the value of which the professional reader well knows, and eleven reproductions of photographs, the most interesting of which represent the work during construction.

Harper's Popular Cyclopœdia of United States History. From the Aboriginal Period to 1876. By Benson J. Lossing, LL.D. New York: Harper & Bros. 1881. 2 vols. 8vo, many illustrations.

Mr. Lossing has not heeded Macaulay's injunction to his index-maker, to confine himself almost exclusively to proper names. This, we may admit, was neither practicable nor desirable in a work like the present; but the case still clearly called for the science of the dictionary-cataloguer as well as for the learning of the historian. Hence, what first strikes us in turning these pages is the extraordinary nature of some of the titles, as will appear from a few examples. *Amphibious Warfare* is not exactly a popular heading which it would occur to any one to consult. *Ancestors of the Pilgrims* is a hardly more rational rubric. And what shall we say of *Emancipation of Ireland* (as the result of the American War of Independence) except that it is tolerably far-fetched; of the *Navy Quickly Created;* and of the *March of Public Sentiment!* This last title refers to the progress made in amending slavery out of the Constitution within twelve years after the Dred Scott decision. Mr. Lossing himself might be cited in illustration of the same theme. In 1868 he published 'A Pictorial History of the United States, from the Earliest Period to the Present Time,' in which no notice was taken of the anti-slavery movement in any shape before 1850, nor any mention made of the Liberty Party, or of the Free Soil Party before 1856. Now, in the march of his sentiment, he has articles on the *Abolition Convention* (of 1794) and on *Anti-Slavery Champions in Massachusetts* (in 1766), *Anti-Slavery Societies* of the last and present centuries, etc., with portraits and biographies of the leaders, and gives a place to John G. Birney (though not to John P. Hale), to Frémont, Sumner, Wilson, etc. This, albeit there is no *Abolition of Slavery* (one must look under *Emancipation*), indicates some progress in a little more than twelve years. We remark in passing that the American Anti-Slavery Society was founded not in 1832, but in 1833, and that its first President was Arthur Tappan, a name whose omission from a dictionary which includes George Peabody (not more princely and not so philanthropic a giver) leads us naturally to speak of some other omissions.

The historian Gibbon finds a place because he was a paid writer against the Colonies, but neither his 'American Notes' nor his two visits to this country entitle Dickens to admission; nor her 'Society in America,' Harriet Martineau. Kossuth is recognized, but not George Thompson, whose tour here was attended with vastly greater consequences to "American history." So the enthusiasm for phrenology which greeted Spurzheim and Combe, and the temperance furor excited by Father Mathew, should have brought these eminent men within the scope of Mr. Lossing's work. Sylvester Graham, for his lasting influence on the American diet, and Samuel Thomson for his medical school, were as significant factors in shaping or developing or illustrating our national character as was William Miller, the prophet of the Adventists. J. H. Noyes and the Perfectionists go wholly unrecognized; nor is the late head of the Oneida Community alluded to, even as their historian, under *Communistic Societies.* Oneida, Rappites, and Dunkers are all neglected in the alphabetical arrangement. Robert Owen is discoverable, but not Frances Wright. Mrs. Stowe being lost to view, like her father, it is not surprising that Mrs. Frances Ann Kemble shares their oblivion; but it is strange that Forrest should be wanting, even if Macready is.

Here we touch upon another curious phase of this work. The Astor-Place riot is one of the landmarks in American history. It is not mentioned. There is a generic title for *Riots,* but the instances are all Revolutionary, as if there had never been any since. *Mob in Baltimore* (1861) is the only other confession of American lawlessness; but of the famous Boston mob of 1835, nothing; of the Alton riot of 1837, so profound in its effect upon Northern sentiment toward slavery, nothing, nor is Lovejoy known to Mr. Lossing; in short, of any anti-abolition mob, nothing. This is all the more remarkable because these related distinctly to freedom of speech and of the press, to which the Cyclopœdia gives three titles, pertaining, however, wholly to the past century. One of these, *Freedom of the Press in Massachusetts* (1721), is a striking commentary on the failure to record the name and trial of Abner Kneeland.

The truth is, that we have some reason to be grateful that Mr. Lossing has not construed the term history as applicable solely to naval or military persons and events. "O que j'aime les militaires!" might almost be taken for the motto of a work which is silent as to Corwin, Giddings (even in connection with the Seminole War), and Gerrit Smith, and gives five titles to Francis Marion, as many to Frémont, and one to General Badeau. Yet under *Meade* there is no reference to Gettysburg. Benton's duel with Jackson, like his subsequent reconciliation with the President and ardent support of his war on the United States Bank, is overlooked. Calhoun's quarrel with his chief when Vice-President in 1832 was more important than many a battle-field not forgotten by Mr. Lossing. Political parties are sometimes not at all, or not skilfully, included. The Barnburners shine by their absence, and Know-Nothings must be

sought, without a cross-reference, under *American Party.* Instances such as these last show how much the value of this Cyclopædia is impaired as a work of reference for young political students puzzled by names which have fallen into desuetude. Apparently, in the design of its author, it was to be read through consecutively, though even this hypothesis fails to explain the ordering of titles in such a way as to introduce an episode of a man's life—*e.g., Marion and the British Officer*—before his biography proper is reached.

It would be easy to continue to point out shortcomings, but we might end by seeming to undervalue this laborious and useful compilation. For the Revolution and the Rebellion and the two intervening wars it will be found especially serviceable; much less so for the political movements of the present century; scarcely at all for the social progress. Its plan, as we have seen, must not be scrutinized too closely, and one must take it for what it offers. We can specify the chronology of the *Minor Events of the Civil War*, the twenty-eight titles under *Slavery*, and that devoted to the *Peace Congress*, among others, as being extremely convenient for consultation. The illustrations are in Mr. Lossing's familiar style, and have the merit of being realistic (at least in intent; the execution, as in some of the portraits, occasionally falls short), and seldom purely imaginative. The facsimile of Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation is typical of the principle of selection.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Tallahassee Girl. [Round-Robin Series.] Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1.
Audsley, W. and G. Popular Dictionary of Architecture and the Allied Arts. Vols. i. and ii. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Chandler, H. W. Practical Introduction to Greek Accentuation. Revised edition. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.
Cluer, A. R. Livy: Books v., vi., and vii. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.
Collins, W. L. La Fontaine, and Other French Fabulists. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.
Crake, A. D. The Rival Heirs. New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.
Culross, J. William Carey. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Co. 75 cents.
Foye, J. C. Tables for the Determination, Description, and Classification of Minerals. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $1.
Fuller, A. W. Artistic Homes in City and Country. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $3 50.
Gautier, T. One of Cleopatra's Nights, and Other Fantastic Romances. New York: R. Worthington. $1 75.
Genji Monogatari: the Most Celebrated of the Japanese Classical Romances. London: Trübner & Co.
Glascock, Mary W. Dare. San Francisco: California Publishing Co.
Goff, May Perrin. The Household: a Cyclopædia of Practical Hints for Modern Homes. Detroit: *Free Press* Co.
Gordon, G. H. A War Diary of Events in the Great Rebellion, 1863-1865. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $3.
Habberton, J. Mrs. Mayburn's Twins. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1.
Havergal, Frances Ridley. Set Apart, and Other Poems. Hand-Painted. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co.
Hawley, J. G. American Criminal Reports: Latest Cases in Federal and State Courts. Vol. iii. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
Her Picture. [No-Name Series.] Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Hicks, E. L. Manual of Greek Historical Inscriptions. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.
Holland, T. E. The Institutes of Justinian. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.
Lecocq, C. Manola: opéra bouffe. Boston: Oliver Ditson & Co.
Moriarty, J. J. All for Love; or, From the Manger to the Cross. New York: Catholic Publication Society. $1 25.
Parloa, M. The Appledore Cook-Book. Boston: Andrew F. Graves. $1 25.
Savage, M. J. Beliefs about Man. Boston: George H. Ellis.
Shakespeare's Comedy of Love's Labour's Lost. Edited by W. J. Rolfe. New York: Harper & Brothers.
Spedding, J. Evenings with a Reviewer; or, Macaulay and Bacon. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $7.
Spurgeon, C. H. The Treasury of David. Vol. I. Psalms i. to xxvi. New York: I. K. Funk & Co. $2.
Stebbing, Grace. Only a Tramp; or, The Golden Links. New York: T. Whittaker. $1.
Stillman, Dr. J. D. B. The Horse in Motion. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $10.
Strathesk, J. Bits from Blinkbonny; or, Bell of the Manse. New York: Robert Carter & Bros. $1 50.
Stuart, Catherine. The Complete Cook-Book. New York: W. B. Smith & Co. $1 25.
Turner, W. (1548.) Names of Herbes. [English Dialect Society.] London: Trübner & Co.
Wallace, J. W. The [Law] Reporter Arranged and Characterized. Fourth edition, revised and enlarged. Boston: Soule & Bugbee.
Wilkes, G. Shakespeare from an American Point of View. 3d ed. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $3 50.
Wright, E. La Fontaine's Fables. New edition, with Notes by J. W. M. Gibbs. London: George Bell & Sons.
Yonge, Charlotte M. History of France. [Series of History Primers.] New York: D. Appleton & Co. 45 cts.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 6, 1882.

The Week.

THE President has vetoed the Anti-Chinese Bill for the somewhat obvious reasons which have been already set forth in these columns as fatal objections to it. The first is that it violates the treaty—if not in the letter, in the spirit. Twenty years' suspension of immigration, he holds, as every candid man must hold, amounts to prohibition; and he shows by copious citations from the protocol of the negotiations which preceded the treaty, that the Chinese Commissioners took a firm stand against prohibition, and understood, and were allowed to understand, that "suspension" or "limitation" meant simply prohibition for not more than five years, or for alternate years, so as to keep the number of Chinese in this country within the limits which the United States might think desirable in the interest of peace and good order. Twenty years' suspension would exclude a generation, and is, therefore, not "reasonable." The President's remarks on the proposed introduction of the odious passport system into the United States, at the moment when "it is fast disappearing in Europe before the progress of liberal institutions," in which he stigmatizes it as "undemocratic and hostile to the spirit of our institutions," will be read with deep satisfaction by everybody who thinks that the spirit of our institutions is the spirit of freedom. The passage of a bill containing such a provision ought to put a mark on every man who voted for it by which voters would recognize him, and give him his deserts, every time he offered himself for election.

No part of the President's argument is, however, more weighty than that in which he points out the enormous folly of which the Pacific Slope will be guilty if it quarrels with China or alienates the Chinese. The opening of the East to Western trade is the greatest fact in the more recent commercial history. There is a fair prospect that within a very few years the traffic both of Europe and America with Asia will reach dimensions as yet undreamed of; and China, both owing to its natural resources and the character of its population, is likely to be the best market in Asia; and, what is perhaps more to our purpose, the Chinese are likely to do the largest part of the business of exchange between the East and West. They have already, to a very large extent, taken the Chinese trade out of the hands of the English, who have so long held it, and they will undoubtedly largely control its current hereafter. No country is so favorably situated for a large share in this trade as our Pacific States; none has thus far profited more by it. To divert it to other channels now by treating the Chinese with hostility, and displaying against them the old barbarous spirit of seclusion which they are gradually throwing off, would be a mistake of such magnitude that we can hardly believe the people of that region will, on sober second thought, be guilty of it.

The new Cabinet appointments still hang fire. Hitherto, President Arthur has made no changes in the Cabinet except upon the ground of resignations insisted upon by the retiring members. The changes in the Navy and Interior Departments now in contemplation are more in the nature of removals, and, as removals without "cause" except political are liable to be criticised, rumor speaks of cause for these. It is said that Secretary Hunt's health is becoming too precarious for the duties which the Navy Department imposes upon him. And as to Mr. Kirkwood, it is reported that "Congressmen and others" are constantly running to the President with the complaint that the present Secretary of the Interior is too old and slow, and that they "cannot get things done." We can only express the hope that President Arthur may be spared experience of a Secretary of the Interior of whom no complaint is made by "Congressmen and others" that they "cannot get things done"; for that would be a sure sign that things are done which ought not to be done, and that there is mischief in the department.

Mr. Hewitt's speech on the tariff unites the acquired knowledge of the business man with the logical faculty of the student, and cannot fail, therefore, to make an impression upon the public mind. After showing that a protective tariff has not the virtue sometimes claimed for it of shielding the country against commercial crises and hard times, Mr. Hewitt proves that what the country now needs is access to the markets of the world for manufactured products in order to tide over hard times when they come, and to guard against the deleterious effects upon our international trade of a partial failure of the crops at home, or a superabundance of the same products abroad. In other words, we want more than one string to our bow. We rely now almost wholly upon our own surplus food and other raw products to pay for our imports. In any case, when our supply of such products is limited by accidental causes, or the demand falls off, we have no resource. Our manufactures cannot fill the gap, because they are not offered at prices which the world is willing to pay. They cannot be produced here and sold in competition with English and German products of similar make, because of the taxes imposed on the raw materials and implements of manufacturing industry, in the shape of duties on ores, coal, wool, copper, scrap iron, chemicals, dye stuffs, machinery, etc., which enhance the cost of these indispensable articles that lie at the foundation of manufactures. Mr. Hewitt says strike these off, and when you have done so you can strike off a corresponding proportion of the duties now imposed on the manufactured articles, without doing any harm or injustice to them. This is plain to everybody.

Mr. Hewitt next shows that for this initial step a Tariff Commission is not necessary. Raw materials are as well known to Congressmen as to experts. They are as well known to-day as they can be next year—as well known to the Forty-seventh Congress as they can be to the Forty-eighth. Why not lop them off now, and then proceed in a business-like way to reduce the duties on the manufactured articles of which they are component parts? "From the examinations which I have made," says Mr. Hewitt, "the results of which only it is here possible to give, I am satisfied that in the cotton manufactures duties varying between twenty-five and thirty per cent. will be sufficient; in the woollen business from thirty to thirty-five per cent., in the iron and steel business from thirty-five to fifty per cent., in the pottery business about the same rates, and in the silk business about forty per cent., would cover the difference in labor, provided the duties are entirely removed from the raw materials used in these several branches of manufacture. Now, if it be conceded or can be demonstrated that these rates are sufficient in order to compensate for the difference in the wages of labor, we have simply to apply them in order to meet the demands of those who insist and concede that the tariff must afford adequate protection to American labor." He proceeds to argue that our present manufacturing capacity is, in many important branches, not only equal to the home demand, but in excess of it, leaving a surplus which must be sold at a loss if it cannot find foreign markets. But such a surplus cannot be long produced. Works now running in this condition must soon curtail their production and throw a portion of their operatives out of employment. Are there not signs of such disturbance now in the New England States, and is not this trouble likely to increase unless met by some policy which shall give us access to the markets of the world?

The indictment against General Curtis for collecting political assessments from Custom-house employees was quashed on Thursday in the United States Circuit Court, on the ground that the defendant's name is Newton M. and not Nehemiah M. Curtis. This is of course what every one in the least familiar with the procedure in criminal cases must have anticipated; curious as the mistake was, the result, when it had once been made, was unavoidable. It is now reported, however, that the District Attorney does not propose to trouble himself about the case further, unless a new complaint is made; a story which is hardly credible, for the simple reason that the failure of the prosecution was solely due to the negligence of the District Attorney or of subordinates for whom he is responsible. It was the District Attorney's business to find out the defendant's name, and while the public are undoubtedly willing to accept the explanation put forward, of the name "Nehemiah" having crept into the indictment through inadvertence, what they need to con-

vince them of it is that he should be immediately indicted over again; and any inaction on the District Attorney's part now must be regarded as tantamount to a confession that there is no real intention to make an example of General Curtis's flagrant violation of the law.

The statute under which the indictment was found was passed seven years ago, for the express purpose of breaking up the system of extortion, practised on clerks and employees, known as "political assessments." The language of the act, which is as much a part of the law of the land as the sections of the Revised Statutes which relate to bribery or petit larceny, is as follows: "That all executive officers or employees of the United States, not appointed by the President with the advice and consent of the Senate, are prohibited from *requesting*, giving to, or *receiving* from, any other officer or employee of the Government, any money or property, or other thing of value, for political purposes; and any such officer or employee who shall offend against the provisions of this section, shall be . . . deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof shall be fined in a sum not exceeding five hundred dollars." For seven years no effort has been made to enforce this law, and therefore the announcement that the present Administration intended to enforce it in Curtis's case was received with a good deal of genuine surprise as well as pleasure. It was a sign of the willingness of the Administration to carry out the law as it stood. It is safe to say that with an Administration really determined to put its machinery to use for this purpose, no more political assessments would be collected in the Custom-house, at least by the class of tax-gatherers to which General Curtis belongs. After inaction for so long a period, to take up his case in order to make it a warning to others in similar positions, and then to let the whole proceeding go by the board because the Government's prosecuting officer made a mistake of a very unnecessary kind in drawing up the indictment, would not only place the District Attorney in a very false position, but would make it look as if the Administration, which set the prosecution in motion, desired General Curtis to escape, or, in other words, desired to make the whole proceeding wear the look of a farce, and to discredit, instead of advancing, the reform about which it has made so many promises.

The House Foreign Affairs Committee has received a letter from Minister Hurlbut, calling attention to one or two facts with regard to the Cochet claim, which he innocently says he "understands" to be the foundation of the "Peruvian Company." First, Alexander Cochet was a French citizen; second, the son, the claimant, was illegitimate; third, his rights, therefore, if any, descend to his French sisters; fourth, it follows that if there is any claim at all, it is a French claim, and the United States have nothing to do with it; fifth, the Cochet claim is a claim for discovering guano, while the law under which it is made relates to the discovery of treasure belonging to suppressed convents; sixth, Cochet himself never made any claim; seventh, the claim was decided against Cochet in 1861 by a mixed commission, specially appointed for the purpose, and is therefore *res adjudicata*. This would seem to make the presentation of it by the United States very much like the suit for damages to the brass cannon borrowed for the Fourth of July—the facts in the case being that it never had been lent; that it was burst when borrowed; that it had been long since returned, and that it was returned uninjured. General Hurlbut's vigorous analysis of the merits of the Cochet claim is altogether his best state paper.

Mr. Price, Commissioner of Indian Affairs, is reported to have said that it is nonsense for Indian delegations to come to Washington, for the reason that "they don't know what they want when they start, and the longer they stay the less they know." We are inclined to think that Mr. Price has been misquoted. Indian delegations usually know very well what they want, although they do not always know what they get. But when such Indian delegations are well selected, and their movements are judiciously managed, their visits can be turned to good account in another respect. The observations they make while they are among us, and the impressions of civilized life, however crude, which they take home with them, have not only served to discourage the spirit of fight and mischief among them, but also stimulated their desire to have their children educated. In this respect the visits of Indian delegations to the schools at Hampton and Carlisle have proved especially useful.

Senator Hoar moved by way of amendment to the Indian Appropriation Bill that $2,000,000 be appropriated for the purpose of enabling the Secretary "to provide for the care, support, and education, in any of the States, of Indian children dwelling west of the Mississippi, and not belonging to the five Indian tribes in the Indian Territory, or so many thereof as may be practicable, under regulations approved by the President, at a cost not exceeding $200 a year for each child." This may at first sight appear like an extravagant proposition, but it is not. It would be the most economical as well as the most humane thing that could be done. The success of the schools at Hampton, Carlisle, and Forest Grove in instructing Indian children, not only in the rudiments of knowledge, but also in practical work, clearly indicates that the enlargement of that educational system will be the surest way to make the Indians self-supporting; and we may rely upon it that no Indian tribe will take the war path while its children are in a Government school. A few millions spent in that direction now will save a great many millions in the future. The Senate has adopted at least the principle of Mr. Hoar's amendment, although it has very much reduced the amount of money he asked for, voting to appropriate only $250,000. This sum is not as large as it ought to be, but it will suffice for the organization of three or four more Indian schools like those at Carlisle and Forest Grove, and for the support of about 1,200 Indian pupils there for one year.

During the early part of the week foreign exchange ruled below the gold-exporting point, but late in the week rates were advanced so that Tuesday's steamer took out $750,000 gold coin. The foreign-trade returns of the Custom-house show diminishing exports of merchandise and increasing imports. The difference has to be made up by the export either of securities or of gold, and while the former paid most of this difference for the week, it was necessary to send the gold named. The money market passed the first of April without any stringency. The New York banks, in satisfying the demand from New England and the Middle States for money to facilitate April settlements, lost about half of their surplus reserve, but the remainder was more than they held at the corresponding time a year ago. The Treasury disbursements during April for interest and bonds redeemed amount to $27,500,000, which, together with the natural turn of all the domestic exchanges in favor of New York, ought to make and keep the money market easy for the next few months, even if the gold exports are considerable. At the Stock Exchange United States 4 and 4½ per per cent. bonds advanced to the highest prices ever paid for them—the former to 119⅝@¾, and the latter to 115¼@½. The week was full of surprises in the stock market, which for several weeks has been advancing and gave every promise of being buoyant after the opening of April. Instead of this there was a sudden break in the leading stocks which have been openly supported during the recent rise by W. H. Vanderbilt and Jay Gould. This break unsettled the whole stock market, the Gould stocks being features in the decline; and the week closed with a good deal of doubt as to the course in the early future of prices of the leading stocks.

Mr. Hayes, a stenographer in the House of Representatives, has been removed and Mr. Dawson has been appointed in his place. Hayes is a Democrat and Dawson is a Republican. If Speaker Keifer was induced to make the change by an ascertained inferiority of the Democratic short-hand method to the Republican, he does not make known the fact. Indeed, he does not show great eagerness to make known any facts whatever in the case. He says that the reporter was removed "for cause," but does not say what the cause was. It is said that Dawson was a good soldier, but it is not at the same time asserted that Hayes was a bad one, or that he omitted to bear arms at all. We are further told that the House stenographers are nearly all Democrats, and that Republican reporters ought to have a chance. This consideration would have more weight as a sign of an era of good feeling and a non-partisan civil service if, in some department where the clerks are all Republicans, half of them should be requested to withdraw in order to give the Democrats a chance. The one conspicuous thing upon which stress is laid is Hayes's membership of the Democratic party. That there is nothing else against him

may be assumed because he has served for fourteen years, although during the greater part of the time the House was Republican. The rules empower the Speaker to remove a stenographer "for cause." Mr. Stephens of Georgia has moved an investigation as to whether the rules were complied with in this case. The Judiciary Committee, to whom the motion was referred, should report it favorably, and if upon inquiry it appears that Hayes is a competent and faithful reporter, the Speaker should be instructed to restore him to his place. "Cause" can mean only a cause relating to the performance of official duty.

The question how to get a receivership of a life-insurance company started is being gradually unfolded by the legislative investigation; the mode of proceeding, after it is once started, so as to convey the assets to the pockets of receivers, lawyers, and hangers-on of Tammany Hall being already well advertised and understood. If a life-insurance company has really become insolvent, this fact will be known to its own officers first. They will then get somebody to act as plaintiff to bring suit against it. The plaintiff will allege insolvency, and the company will confess. The plaintiff will then move for the appointment of a receiver, and plaintiff and defendant together will agree upon Mr. A as a suitable person. The judge before whom the case is brought is not bound to appoint Mr. A merely because the parties have agreed upon him. He is bound to appoint somebody known to himself to be a fit person, since the receiver is really an officer of the court appointed to take charge of certain details, and to advise the court from time to time what ought to be done. But if the judge wishes to play into the hands of the so-called plaintiff and defendant, who are really acting together for a common purpose, he can appoint Mr. A and defend himself upon the ground that both parties to the suit were satisfied. After a time the process of distributing the assets may seem to the policy-holders too sluggish as judged by the amount which reaches them, and they may unite to demand the removal of the receiver. This is, perhaps, the very thing that the parties controlling the proceedings desire, as a change will make room for another fellow and his friends, who have not as yet had anything, but who ought to be taken care of. The receivership may now be considered fairly started, and it will be likely to run along until an investigation by the Legislature takes place, or until the Attorney-General moves to wind it up. In the latter case the judge may interfere, if there are any assets left, and send the case to a referee for further examination.

On Thursday Mr. Gladstone achieved a signal victory in the House of Commons. The resolution introduced by the Government so changing the rules of the House as to permit the closing of a debate by a majority vote, the so-called *clôture*, had not only met with bitter opposition on the part of the Conservatives and the Parnellites, but caused division in the Liberal ranks. Even many of those who continued to follow Mr. Gladstone's lead in this matter were said to do so with great reluctance. The London *Times* and other newspapers lost no opportunity of encouraging defection among the Liberals. The first test vote was expected to show how large that defection was, and thereby to decide not only the fate of the measure, but the fate of the Gladstone Administration itself. This test vote has now been taken. It was on Mr. Marriott's amendment providing "that no resolution shall be satisfactory which enables a bare majority to close the debate." This amendment, which involved the fundamental principle of the Government measure, was rejected by a vote of 318 to 279. Both sides had made every possible effort to have their whole strength on the field. A majority of thirty-nine in a full House is not an overwhelming one. But considering that it was larger than had been anticipated; that it was taken upon the point most obnoxious to the dissenters in the Liberal party, and that therefore the Government may reasonably expect to be stronger on every other point of its policy than on this, the result may be looked upon as a decided triumph.

Mr. Gladstone has made a speech in the House of Commons in which he confesses the extreme difficulty of the situation in Ireland in view of the recent increase of appalling murders and outrages, and even Liberal papers like the *Daily News*, from which the policy of coercion has hitherto received only lukewarm support, are asking for still sterner measures. Mr. Gladstone says truly that no such state of things as now exists has been witnessed in Ireland within fifty years, and that the country is passing through a social rather than a political revolution. This is true, but in the fact that he cannot go further back than fifty years lies the difficulty of the crisis. Fifty years ago the Irish were behaving just as they are behaving now, and for precisely the same purpose—the production of certain changes in their social and political condition; and the worst of it was that in agitating through murder and arson they were agitating in the only way they had ever found successful. During these fifty years nothing or next to nothing has been done for radical reform in the land tenure, which all sagacious observers, home and foreign, official and non-official, have pronounced necessary. A remedy has now come in the Land Bill, but it is found to be only partial, for it does nothing for those who have fallen into arrears of rent through the two bad years which led to the enactment of the Land Bill, and does not prevent evictions for those arrears, and the evictions are being met, as they have always been met for two hundred years, by murder. In fact, murder has been allowed to do so much for the Irish peasant, as a social and political remedy, that it has apparently obtained a sort of horrible recognition from his conscience as a legitimate means of getting anything he wants, not from landlords only, but from anybody. The story of the Pennsylvania Molly Maguires is one which may well appall any statesman called upon to deal with the Irish problem, for it shows that readiness to assassinate has become a disease of the Irish mind, and that probably no specific piece of legislation will cure it. It will take long years of new social and political influences and surroundings to cure it.

The reason why the Irish Coercion Bill just now does not work well with the Land Bill—that is, the reason the Land Bill does not make the Coercion Bill unnecessary—is only in part the continuance of evictions. It is also in part the profound belief of the peasantry that, but for the exertions of the men whom Mr. Forster has now under lock and key, the Land Bill would never have been passed. Whether this belief be well or ill founded, there is a great deal of warrant for it in Irish experience, and it would be against all the rules of Irish politics if the friends of the suspects failed to show their gratitude to them by every way in their reach, including, of course, intimidation. It now begins to dawn on the English mind that Mr. Forster is not the man for the situation, and that his brave speech from a hotel window in the west of Ireland the other day had by no means the sedative influence which the Liberal papers expected from it. He was treated with courtesy, but that clearly meant little, for his language was that of a master and a foreigner, and has apparently added fuel to the flames. The most probable results of the great increase of the complication will be the strengthening of the Tory movement in favor of Government aid to the establishment of peasant proprietorship on a large scale. This would of course indirectly include compensation to the landlords, as it would involve the purchase of their estates.

The assassination of General Strelnikoff at Odessa has made it evident that the Nihilists in Russia have not abandoned the "execution" of Government officers odious to them as part of their programme; and the prompt measures taken by the Government to have the assassins tried and hung, indicates that the mild and conciliatory policy with which the Russian Government was recently credited has had to yield to the strain of circumstances. The era of good feeling seems to be as far off as ever, and the state of nervous irritation into which the doings of the Nihilists have thrown the Russian Government may therefore be looked upon as no less strong a factor in the policy of that government than before. Apropos of this, a piece of news published by the Berlin *Germania*, the organ of the German Ultramontanes, is of special interest. It is that an agreement has been effected between the Russian Government and the Pope, securing to the Catholics in Russia freedom of worship. This spring the exiled Bishops are to be permitted to return to Russia, and their pastoral letters will no longer be subjected to a censorship. It is said that the Russian Government, in view of its diplomatic isolation in Europe, wants to be at least on the friendliest possible terms with the peoples subject to its rule, and that this agreement with the Pope is mainly intended to conciliate the Poles, whose good or bad humor would, as we point out on another page, be a matter of great importance to Russia in case of an international conflict.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE President sent a message to the Senate vetoing the Chinese Immigration Bill on Tuesday. He thinks the bill a violation of the Burlingame Treaty, and, therefore, a breach of national faith. He also thinks it contrary to good policy, and suggests that while the protection of American labor from Asiatic competition may justify a restrictive policy, it is wiser to make a shorter experiment, with a view to retaining only such features as experience may show to be prudent.

The President has approved the Act granting pensions to Mrs. Garfield, Mrs. Polk, and Mrs. Tyler.

The President sent to Congress on Thursday a letter addressed to him by the Secretary of the Interior, enclosing a communication from the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, urging action on the part of Congress for the more adequate prevention of trespasses on Indian lands, and presenting the draft of a bill to attain this object.

The bill to admit the Territory of Dakota to the Union was reported back to the Senate Committee on Territories, owing to a protest against the admission sent to Congress by the bondholders of the Dakota Southern Railroad, based on the repudiation by the county of Yankton in that Territory of bonds issued by the county to aid in the construction of the railroad. The committee considered the matter on Friday, and came to the conclusion that the bondholders' grievance is one for the courts and not Congress to deal with, and reported the bill back to the Senate again by a strict party vote, the four Republican members of the committee voting in favor of the bill against the three Democratic members.

A bill has been introduced into the Senate to prohibit the importation of neat cattle from Canada. It provides that importation shall be prohibited until the President shall declare that the discrimination in this matter against the United States on the part of Canada has ceased.

The debate on the Tariff Commission Bill was continued in the House on Wednesday and Thursday, and on Friday the Army Appropriation Bill was considered in Committee of the Whole. On Monday the Ute and Crow Land Bills were passed under a suspension of the rules, and a motion to fix a day for discussing the Bank Charter Extension Bill was defeated, and a number of bills appropriating money for the erection of public buildings in various States were passed.

The House Committee on Improvement of the Mississippi River have decided that it will be more effective for committeemen to remain in Washington and look after appropriations for the overflowed districts than to proceed to the river for the purpose of examining and reporting as to the cause of the present flood. The waters in the Mississippi Valley are slowly subsiding, although at some points they have risen during the week. Reports of casualties of various kinds resulting from the flood continue to be received. Active relief work continues, Government rations being shipped to all points requiring them.

The House Committee on Commerce adopted a resolution on Thursday, "that it is the sense of this committee that some measure relating to inter-State commerce shall be adopted by this committee and reported to the House at the earliest practicable moment after the River and Harbor Bill shall have been reported to the House." It was then decided to lay aside the various inter-State commerce bills for the purpose of proceeding with the consideration of the bill named.

Meetings have been held and resolutions passed in various parts of the country protesting against the arrest and detention without trial in prison of American citizens in Ireland. The American citizens referred to are Irishmen naturalized in the United States, who by their conduct in Ireland have made themselves amenable to arrest under the Coercion Act. Mr. Lowell, by refusing to interfere in these cases, has brought down upon himself the wrath of many influential bodies of citizens, including the New York Board of Aldermen, who passed resolutions denouncing him and demanding his recall. A mass-meeting was held at the Cooper Union in New York on Monday evening to protest against the course of the English Government in the matter. There were several speakers, and letters were read from a number of prominent men sympathizing with the objects of the meeting. The American Government, meantime, has procured the release of several of the "suspects."

Mr. Frelinghuysen received a despatch from Mr. Lowell, on Saturday, announcing that, in deference to President Arthur's request, a respite of a fortnight had been granted to Dr. Lamson. This, however, is to be construed merely as affording to the friends of the prisoner time to bring forward evidence bearing on the case, and does not imply that the sentence has been commuted.

Secretary Hunt has received two cable messages from Lieutenant Harber from Irkutsk. Difficulties have arisen in regard to the hiring of a steamer to search for the lost members of the *Jeannette* crew. Lieutenant Harber says that if he does not get one, he will start expeditions to search the coast from the mouth of the Yana to the Lena delta, and from the Olenek to the delta, and when the delta is clear of ice he will search it thoroughly in boats. He had received no news from Engineer Melville.

Secretary Hunt has telegraphed to Lieutenant Harber giving him authority to spend $6,600 in getting a vessel to aid in the search for the lost members of the crew of the *Jeannette*.

Notice has been given that the Post-office Department will begin on April 10th the issue of a new postage-stamp of the denomination of five cents, and bearing a portrait of President Garfield.

Mr. Richard T. Merrick has been appointed counsel to assist Colonel Bliss in the prosecution of the Star-route cases, to take the place held by Mr. Brewster before his appointment to the Attorney-Generalship. On Friday the argument to quash the indictments was begun before Judge Wylie at Washington. Mr. R. G. Ingersoll opened for the defence. The basis of the argument is a lack of jurisdiction on the part of the Grand Jury which found the indictment, and certain technical defects and irregularities in the matter. The arguments were concluded on Saturday, and Judge Wylie reserved his decision.

Attorney-General Brewster's recent letter to Mr. Sanders, urging vigorous prosecution of the election frauds in South Carolina, has created considerable excitement in that State. "The effect has been to intensify the partisan feelings of the Democrats, and probably to render the conviction of any of the accused and guilty persons an impossibility. No Democratic juror will now dare to vote for conviction, no matter how clear and conclusive may be the evidence of guilt," says a prominent South Carolina Republican. The Charleston *News and Courier* says that the "people must begin at once, and teach the Stalwart conspirators that the State shall not be put in a position to be Africanized again. Let the accused election officers feel and see that the State is with them. Let every one of the accused understand unmistakably that his cause is the cause of civilization, order, and good government," etc.

The State Democratic Executive Committee of South Carolina has decided that it would be unwise to employ the law officers of the State in their official capacity to defend the election-law violators, but several of them will appear as special counsel, under instructions from the Executive Committee. Senator Butler will also assist in the defence. An address was adopted calling upon the white men of the State to give the prosecuted Democrats their moral support, and to contribute liberally toward the expenses of the trials.

Judge Blatchford took the oath and entered upon the discharge of his duties as Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court on Monday.

The bill of exceptions in the Guiteau case was signed on Thursday by Judge Cox. The exceptions taken are on the non-admission of certain evidence and the rulings of the Judge on points of law. It is the intention of District Attorney Corkhill to present the bill for a hearing on the first day of the next term, which will be April 24.

Information was received in New York on Monday of the death of S. A. Hurlbut, late United States Minister to Peru, on the 28th of March, of heart-disease.

Ex-Senator Sargent, the newly-appointed Minister to Berlin, was given a dinner on Thursday night, at the Palace Hotel in San Francisco, by a large number of the prominent merchants and professional men of the city.

A meeting for the purpose of organizing a national board of lady managers of the Garfield Memorial Hospital Association was held in Washington, on Wednesday. Senator Windom presided. The chairman of the Ways and Means Committee stated that almost enough money had been raised to justify placing the hospital in active operation. The organization of the Ladies' Aid Society of the Garfield Memorial Hospital was effected, and Mrs. Windom was elected president.

All hands in the Bureau of Engraving and Printing at Washington, employed on internal-revenue stamps, have been furloughed because the appropriation for this purpose has been exhausted. This throws about 500 persons, mostly women, out of employment.

The Readjusters in Virginia were defeated in the State Senate on Thursday in one of their chief partisan measures—namely, the bill reducing the number of the judicial circuits of the State from eighteen to twelve, which would have turned out all the present circuit judges and made necessary the election of new ones.

A convention of colored men was held at Goldsborough, North Carolina, on Thursday, at which all the negro counties of the State were represented by delegates. Resolutions were adopted declaring that they "hailed with pleasure the unmistakable evidence of a liberal movement in North Carolina," and would "join hands with liberal men who may have heretofore acted with the Democratic party, and who are willing to bury the dead past in an earnest effort to build up the State and guarantee to all equal rights and privileges."

A sensation was created on Thursday in New Jersey by the disclosure of an attempt to bribe a member of the New Jersey Legislature to vote for a bill to secure the Jersey City and Hoboken water fronts to certain railroads. An Assemblyman named Shinn made an affidavit to the effect that he had been offered a thousand dollars to vote for the bill. An investigation was ordered, but no new facts of importance have been elicited.

The Mormon President Taylor, of Salt Lake City, and some of the apostles who had their polygamous wives living in one house with them, fearing arrest under a section of the Edmunds Bill which makes cohabitation with more than one woman a misdemeanor, have dispersed their harems. Taylor told his wives that if he could not have all of them, he would not have any of them.

The number of immigrants that arrived in New York during the month of March is larger than in the same month in any previous year. The total number of immigrants who arrived in this city during the past three months is 73,433, as against 47,847 for the first quarter of 1881, and 32,702 in 1880.

A great snow and wind storm visited the Northwest, from Southern Dakota to Manitoba, a week ago last Saturday, and the reports which have been slowly coming in show that many lives were lost and much damage done to property.

The steamboat *Golden City*, running between New Orleans and Cincinnati, was destroyed by fire on Thursday morning, just as preparations were being made to land at Memphis, Tenn. An ineffectual attempt was made to effect a landing and avert the catastrophe. About thirty of the hundred persons on board lost their lives.

Walker Hall, at Amherst College, and its contents were destroyed by fire on Wednesday night. The total loss, including the valuable Shepard collection of minerals, which cannot be replaced, is estimated at $185,000.

The monument erected at Tappan, on the Hudson River, in memory of the English spy, André, by Mr. Cyrus W. Field, which was recently defaced by a man named Hendrix, was again attacked on Thursday night. This time an attempt, which was partially successful, was made to blow it up. The guilty persons have not been found.

FOREIGN.

A vote was taken on Mr. Marriott's amendment to the *clôture*, in the House of Commons, on Thursday night. The proposed amendment, it will be remembered, declares that no rule should be considered satisfactory which would enable a bare majority to close a debate, and the vote was therefore looked upon as a test of the feeling of the House of Commons on the *clôture* question. The House was crowded in every part. Mr. John Bright made a speech, in which he said there could be no doubt that unless something was done to deliver the House from its difficulties it would stand before the country as having neglected its duty, and if the proposed resolution erred, it was in not being sufficiently severe. After speeches by Mr. Gladstone, Sir Stafford Northcote, and others, a division was taken, and the amendment was lost by a vote of 318 to 279.

It is stated that warrants are out against six Irish members of Parliament, and that consequently none of them will visit Ireland during the Parliamentary recess. Mr. Dillon has protested to the physician of the Royal Hospital at Kilmainham against his further detention in the jail, as he feels much worse in health; but Mr. Forster, Chief Secretary for Ireland, declines to release him. Outrages, of which the latest variety consists in stabbing the lambs of rent-paying farmers, continue in Ireland.

There seems to be a general feeling in England that the condition of Ireland is getting more serious every day. A meeting of Liberal members of Parliament was held at the Reform Club on Monday, and it was decided to make strong representations to Mr. Gladstone in regard to the condition of Ireland. Several members expressed the opinion that a new Chief Secretary was required. In replying to Mr. Gorst in the House of Commons, on Tuesday, Mr. Gladstone said that the Government was sensible of the gravity of the condition of Ireland, but it must select its own time for proposing any desirable measures. It was a social, not a political revolution that was in progress. The Land League started when the Conservatives were in power, and there was a strong presumption that the influence of the League was behind the awful crimes which had been committed there. In conclusion, he described the present state of Ireland, and declared that it had no precedent for the past fifty years. Sir Stafford Northcote said that Mr. Gladstone's speech was disappointing, alarming, and unsatisfactory, because it showed vacillation. The House of Commons has adjourned for the Easter holidays.

The opponents of Mr. Bradlaugh are endeavoring to force him into bankruptcy so as to vacate his seat in the House of Commons, and to this end are bringing actions against him on various grounds. In the Court of Queens Bench on Thursday, a judgment for £500 was obtained against him for voting illegally in his seat in Parliament.

A protest has been published in the *Nineteenth Century* against the Channel Tunnel, on the ground that it would involve England in military dangers and liabilities from which as an island she has hitherto been free. The article is signed by a number of the most prominent men in England, including Generals Sir J. Lintorn Simmons and Sir Henry Havelock Allan. In reply to a question in reference to the Channel Tunnel in the House of Commons on Thursday evening, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, president of the Board of Trade, said that the Government claim the bed of the sea for three miles below low-water mark, and hold themselves free to use any powers at their disposal, as Parliament may direct or the national interest may require.

Mr. Gladstone has stated, in regard to the Monetary Conference, that as the general views of the British Government were made known at the recent meeting of the Conference, it would be premature to enter into them more in detail until the Government is in possession of definite proposals from the foreign governments.

The Government has introduced a "Corrupt Practices" Bill, which will totally disfranchise Gloucester, Macclesfield, and Sandwich, and will suspend the writs for Boston, Canterbury, Chester, and Oxford during the existence of the present Parliament. The bill permanently disfranchises all inhabitants who are scheduled for bribery.

It is probable that the marriage of Prince Leopold will be postponed on account of his ill health. The preparations for the marriage have been suspended.

The Oxford and Cambridge University boat race was rowed on Saturday. Oxford won by twenty lengths, in twenty minutes and twelve seconds. The time of the Cambridge crew was twenty minutes and thirty-seven seconds.

A party of capitalists, farmers, and others sailed from London en route to Winnipeg, Manitoba, on Wednesday. Their total capital is estimated at £125,000. They will be followed every two weeks by other parties.

The British steamer *Yrurac Bat*, bound from Liverpool to Porto Rico, collided with the Royal Mail Company's steamer *Douro*, from Brazil, off Cape Finisterre, on Saturday. Both steamers sank, and thirty-two persons are missing from the *Douro* and nineteen from the *Yrurac Bat*. The *Douro* is said to have had on board £53,000 in specie.

There have been serious riots in Barcelona, and other towns in Spain, growing out of the opposition of the laboring classes to the proposed reform of the tariff. Most of the workshops and mills were closed, and the operatives paraded the streets and did much damage to property. In Barcelona a mob attempted to prevent a train from leaving the depot, and the military fired upon the crowd. A deputation of Catalan operatives were given a hearing before the Chamber of Deputies on Thursday. They represented that the adoption of the Franco-Spanish commercial treaty would deprive 100,000 workmen of their means of subsistence. Two hundred and fifty persons were arrested in Barcelona. The news of the demonstration caused a profound sensation in Madrid, and the province of Catalonia was proclaimed in a state of siege. In the Chamber of Deputies, on Saturday, Señor Sagasta, President of the Council, urged a calm discussion of the Franco-Spanish treaty of commerce, regardless of events in Barcelona. He eulogized the proposals of Señor Comacho, Minister of Finance, relative to the national debt, and said that Spain offered to her creditors all she could, and that she could not remain isolated from European movements. It is announced that the Sagasta cabinet has decided to resign if the financial proposals of Señor Comacho are rejected.

It is stated that Don Carlos has summoned his partisans to a meeting in London, to discuss the abdication of his claims to the throne of Spain in favor of his son.

The Committee on Commercial Treaties in the French Chamber of Deputies advocates a resumption of the negotiations for a treaty with England.

The committee on the bill proposing the abolition of the Concordat has refused to assent to the separation of Church and State. The Chambers have adjourned until May 2. On Saturday the Senate voted the credit of 8,000,000 francs for the Tunis expedition for the second half of the current year, which was agreed to in the Chamber of Deputies on March 28. M. de Freycinet stated that it had been necessary to maintain a force of 35,000 troops in Tunis, which number is being gradually reduced.

The Bey of Tunis has decided to offer to the leading insurgent chiefs, if they will submit, a full pardon, and it is thought they will accept the offer, as their hopes of Turkish aid are greatly diminished.

General Strelnikoff, the Public Prosecutor of the Kieff Military Tribunal, was shot by Nihilists at Odessa on Friday. Two of the assassins were captured, and were hanged at Odessa on Tuesday, April 4. It is officially announced that the Czar has ordered the commutation of all the death sentences passed at the recent Nihilist trials at St. Petersburg to an indefinite period of hard labor in the mines, except in the case of a military officer whose sentence is confirmed, since his position as an officer aggravated his crime.

General Skobeleff has been nominated to a commission for the reorganization of Turkestan. This appointment is said to be looked upon as a kind of honorable exile.

A despatch to the London *Times* says that General Ignatieff professes to have information that a treaty exists between Germany and Sweden, by the terms of which, in the event of a war between Russia and Germany, Sweden will lend her fleet to the latter, receiving Finland if the allies are victorious.

Debate was resumed on the Ecclesiastical bill in the Prussian Diet on Thursday, and, in accordance with a compromise between the Centre and Conservative parties, the provisions relative to the right to protest against ecclesiastical appointments, and concerning the obligation of the clergy to give notice of such appointments, were withdrawn, and, notwithstanding the opposition of the Minister of Ecclesiastical Affairs to several alterations in the bill, it was passed on Friday. The House then adjourned until April 18.

The anniversary of the Sicilian Vespers was celebrated at Palermo, Italy, on Friday. Many shops were closed, and the streets were crowded.

There has been trouble impending between Italy and the Republic of Uruguay, owing to the maltreatment of two Italians in Montevideo. The Italian representative, not being able to obtain satisfaction, left the city, and the Italian Minister at Buenos Ayres was instructed to proceed to Montevideo and inquire into the affair. A telegram was received by the Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs at Rome, on Friday, stating that the two principal offenders had been arrested and would be prosecuted.

It is reported that a conspiracy is on foot in Egypt to restore the ex-Khedive Ismaïl Pasha to the throne, and that Arabi Bey and Abdallah Feyre, the present Ministers of War and Public Instruction, and leaders of the Military Party, have been obliged to take precautions for their personal safety. An attempt was recently made to poison the latter.

Mr. Trescot, in a correspondence which has been published in Chili, has formally withdrawn any offer of the good offices of the United States in the conclusion of peace between Peru and Chili.

TUESDAY, April 4, 1882.

PERFORMANCE AND EVASION.

THE Civil-Service Committee of the Senate have reported to that body Mr. Pendleton's Civil-Service Reform Bill in the shape in which he originally introduced it in December. The bill provides for open competitive examinations for the subordinate places in the executive departments and the larger Government offices in the country, for a term of practical probation before definitive appointment, and for a Civil-Service Commission to supervise the workings of this system. If this bill becomes a law and is executed in good faith, the clerical force of the Government will be delivered from the control of partisanship; it will acquire the necessary degree of stability; appointment and promotion in it will depend exclusively upon merit, and a higher degree of efficiency and character will thus be insured. As far as it goes the bill is very satisfactory to every earnest friend of civil-service reform.

On the other hand, nothing can surpass the ingenuity displayed by the "practical politician" who wants to preserve the spoils and yet at the same time appear to be a friend of reform. How not to do it has been raised by him almost to the dignity of a science, and this science has recently received a very valuable contribution. On March 21st Mr. Dudley, the Commissioner of Pensions, addressed a letter to the Civil-Service Committee of the House of Representatives concerning the appointment of an additional force of clerks, in which he proposes to reform the service in this wise: A board of three persons is to be appointed to examine all applicants "eligible to appointment." The report of the board shall be made to the Secretary of the Interior. The Secretary shall appoint to the vacant places those persons who, in the judgment of the board or of two members thereof, are best fitted for the work of the office. But in making these appointments the Secretary shall (1) have "due regard to a fair and equitable apportionment of the whole force among the several States and Territories," not according to population, but in proportion to the number of Republican votes cast therein. He has (2) to confine himself to persons who have the right to vote somewhere, and are likely to exercise the right regularly, and, "other things being equal, or nearly so," to prefer Republicans. And (3) when it comes to the appointment of examiners of pension claims the Secretary has to consider that men to be fit for that sort of work must be of those who "have settled down to the real work of life; if possible, those who have fought for the nation's life, who are ripe in years and experience, of capacity and education sufficient to enable them to discover the legal points involved," and so on; which things, in the opinion of Mr. Dudley, cannot be found out by examinations. In other words, in such cases, comprising about two-thirds of the whole force, the Secretary will have to be guided very much by what he knows, or rather by what he is told by others, about the applicant's ripeness, experience, capacity, education, and general fitness for official position. Those who are appointed shall at first be commissioned for six months, at the expiration of which period only such shall be recommissioned as are recommended for reappointment by the Commissioner, and then only for a term of three years, subject in the meantime to removal for cause upon the Commissioner's recommendation.

This is the scheme of the "practical politician," and, if accepted, the outcome of it will be exactly what the practical politician desires. Here is an examination provided for. What is the examination to determine? That the man who receives the best rating shall be appointed? Not at all. In order to be "eligible to appointment," the applicant must first be a Republican, and then he must "hail from" a State or Territory which, by the Republican vote cast therein, is "entitled" to an appointment. And then he must have the right to vote somewhere, and be in the habit of exercising that right regularly and steadily. But even if he meets these requirements of eligibility, his winning the first place in an examination will not entitle him to an appointment to a place in the examiners' force, comprising two-thirds of the whole, for the appointing power will, according to Mr. Dudley, have to apply standards which cannot be furnished by an examination. It is evidently upon outside testimony—that is, upon the recommendation of political patrons—that these appointments are to be made. It is reported that there are already over 2,000 names of applicants for these clerkships on file in the Interior Department, and it may be taken for granted that almost every one of the applicants has Congressmen and other politicians at his back to vouch for his "ripe age and experience," his "capacity and education," and all those things which, according to Mr. Dudley, no examination can find out. In other words, the examination is virtually nothing but a mere sham, a make-believe, adopted to invest this method of distributing patronage with the appearance of reform.

Another point. What the service needs, to educate a class of experienced and thoroughly efficient officers and employees, is a certain degree of stability. "Clean sweeps" and "new deals" with every change of Administration are therefore deprecated by every sensible man. But Mr. Dudley's system not only leaves the possibility of sudden and violent changes in the personnel of the service, it invites them, it renders them inevitable. "This is a Republican Administration," says he. Let the Democrats do likewise "when the pendulum swings the other way and the Administration passes into Democratic hands." But even in the meantime the service is not exempt from commotion, for the clerks are to be appointed only for terms of three years, at the end of which it may be necessary to consider new claims of Republican States and Territories as well as of persons. Altogether, Mr. Dudley's so-called reform plan is one of the most mischievous schemes we have yet seen, and it is to be hoped that some sincere friend of civil-service reform in Congress will unmask it there, if it should ever come up for serious consideration.

THE "FAIR-TRADE" AGITATION IN ENGLAND.

THE improvement in the English revenue receipts, and especially in the income tax, which has risen nearly $2,500,000 over the Ministerial estimates, is the best proof that could be given, if not of the restoration of prosperity, of very great improvement in trade. The tax-collector's returns were, however, hardly needed to establish this fact. That improvement had set in was made manifest months ago by the decline and, one may now say, the disappearance of the "fair-trade" agitation. Only a year ago this agitation was giving great comfort to the friends of high tariff in this country. It furnished the texts of hundreds of editorials in the protectionist press. It was pointed to as almost a demonstration of the failure of free trade. No figures were sufficient to make head against it. We might point as much as we pleased to the growth of British industry and commerce under the free-trade régime—the great fact remained, we were told, that a large and growing body of the British people confessed that though free trade might be a good thing if all the world adopted it, no one nation could work it successfully. How were we to get over this? Well, we have got over it simply by waiting a little. It now appears that it was not true that any considerable portion of the British public had come to the conclusion that free trade was a failure. Nor was it true, it now appears also, that the portion of the British public which did clamor for fair trade knew much about trade of any kind, free or fair. They were mostly either persons who were not engaged in or dependent on foreign trade at all, but were much troubled by the fall in the value of agricultural produce, or persons who had never mastered the free-trade theory.

Accordingly, when they were asked for a plan of putting their own theory into execution, the agitation collapsed almost in a month. As long as they had nothing to do but denounce free trade, all went well. The times were bad, and the demand for British goods in certain markets had fallen off, and it was easy enough to say that the reason was that England let people into her markets who would not let her into theirs. But as soon as they were asked what was to be done—supposing all this to be true—the bubble was pricked. The United States were the chief offender against British industry, and, of course, any system of retaliation that might be adopted would have to have the United States for its principal object. The minute the details of retaliation began to be arranged, however, the absurdity of retaliation became clear. Nearly everything the United States sent to England was raw material; that is, it was either food for the artisan, or something out of which he was to make the British exports. In neither case was it possible to put a duty on it without still further increasing the disadvantages under which British produce labored in foreign markets. On most manufactured articles in popular use there was no need of a duty, on any theory, because there was no foreign competition in them. Consequently the movement rapidly died out. The few Tory politicians who had committed or half committed themselves to it, ceased to talk about it. Now the second stage has been reached, and many who favored it, or even took part in it, have begun to

deny that they ever had anything to do with it. It will soon have gone the way of the Know-Nothing craze in this country, and the craze about the Southern Confederacy, and the Jingo craze in England. Probably we shall not again in our time hear anybody in England questioning the wisdom of the free-trade policy because it does not furnish the country with constant protection against commercial depression—as if protection did so, as if anything did so.

It begins, in fact, to be more and more clearly recognized in England by the best observers of industrial phenomena, that English industry runs no serious risk from the high tariffs of the great manufacturing nations, because every high tariff practically deprives the nation which maintains it of access for manufactured products to all markets except its own. If, therefore, Continental Europe and the United States should all devote themselves to the vigorous pursuit of a protectionist policy, it would result, as, in fact, it has resulted already, in giving the ocean carrying-trade and the markets of all the rest of the world to Great Britain. She can, indeed, well afford to surrender the Continent of Europe and the United States, if she is let alone in South America, in Africa, and in the greater part of Asia, with their vast and growing populations, which are gradually beginning to acquire the tastes and feel the wants of civilization. And let alone she will be, as long as Germany, France, and the United States are satisfied with keeping the home market for the domestic manufacturer. In fact, English financiers now begin to foresee that in the future the greatest danger to which "British free trade" will be exposed will be a cheapening of production in this country. If we should ever add to our prodigious abundance of food the advantage which would come from cheap raw materials and cheap everything that we did not ourselves care to manufacture, we should rapidly threaten English supremacy in nearly all the remote markets in which she now consoles herself for the barriers by which those nearer home are surrounded. Consequently the English watch our tariff discussions with far more interest than our diplomatic intriguing in South America. They have what our statesmen have not yet acquired—profound faith in the attractiveness of cheap goods; and, as long as they can offer them, care little what our Hurlbuts and Kilpatricks do to get their trade away from them by treaties or memorandums.

POLAND.

When, eighteen years ago, the last Polish rising against Russia was stamped out, the cause of Poland seemed to be more irretrievably lost than ever. The youth of the kingdom established by the treaties of Vienna had bled away in a protracted struggle marked by despair and fury rather than by warlike heroism. There had been no battle of Grochów, no Ostrolenka, as in 1831; no Dembinski or Bem had arisen. Lithuania lay desolate, a prey to the relentless vindictiveness of Muravyeff, who gloried in the surname of Hangman, bestowed upon him as a distinction by Russian patriotic frenzy. Alexander II., whose kindness and liberalism, yet unchilled and unchecked by attempts on his life, had unfettered Polish sentiment and prompted a revival which led to insurrection for independence, was carried by his weakness and the clamor of Russian fanaticism to the extreme of tyranny in dealing with a people whose special aspirations had so rudely crossed those of his Empire, and had threatened to bring upon it the intervention of Austria, France, and England. The complete Russification of all his Polish provinces was now adopted as the guiding maxim of policy, and this was applied as remorselessly by the better class of his statesmen, such as Tcherkasski and Nicholas Milyutin in Warsaw, as it was by vulgar satraps like Potapoff in Wilna, who made the speaking of Polish in streets, hotels, coffee-houses, or stores, a crime punishable by heavy fines. The main part of the work was done by deportation, military conscription, confiscation, and similar measures. The Aksakoffs and Katkoffs of Moscow applauded, and goaded on the tools of Imperial vengeance. Western Europe, whose impotent protest had been scornfully defied by Gortchakoff, looked on in silent indignation; Prussia seemed to be glad of a dénouement which secured her a more quiet possession of Posen; Austria's absorbing care was to maintain her position as a great German power.

To maintain that position, Austria joined her rival, Prussia, in the war against Denmark, and two years later, in 1866, fought against Prussia on the fatal field of Sadowa. Crushed by one terrible blow, she renounced her leadership in Germany, sacrificed her last possession in Italy, and fell back for support upon those elements in her complex body which she had been wont to consider as the most dangerous—the Magyar and Polish. Hungary was restored in the fulness of her rights, and the national reorganization of Galicia completed. So there was no "finis Poloniæ" yet. But was it not to come soon enough? Was not the colossal Russian power—rejuvenated by the emancipation of the serfs, victorious over her revolted Poles, and intoxicated with national pride—preparing to draw the sword for the unification of all the Slavs under her rule or leadership? Were not her Fadeyeffs and Tchernayeffs preaching a crusade of which Austria was to be the main, if not the first, object and victim? Was not Galicia, entirely open and unprotected on the Russian side, a ready prey for Panslavic invasion? Was not the Ruthene population of the eastern half of that country sufficiently prepared by secret agitation and intrigue for a revolt in favor of the invaders? Was Austria-Hungary able to stand the shock, keep Czechs, Croats, and other Slavic subjects in the bonds of loyalty, and repel the foe and his allies? The outlook, to be sure, was distressing enough for the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, and still more so for the last nationally organized remnant of Poland, Galicia.

But fortunately Russia's *recueillement* after the disastrous Crimean war, checked by the Polish insurrection of 1863, was not yet so complete as to allow of warlike adventures on a grand scale, and Alexander II. was peace-loving, and already intimidated by Karakozoff's and Berezowski's successive regicidal attempts. Before aggression, as urged by Panslavic fanaticism, could be determined upon, Prussia had by her astounding victories over France risen to the height of a mighty empire, the arbiter of the destinies of Europe. Austria-Hungary, guided by Hungarian statesmanship, became Germany's ally, and thus safe from attack. Alexander II., who rejoiced in his uncle's, King William's, triumphs, was yet forced by the violent current of Slavophilism and the feverish restlessness of his people to draw the sword in its sacred cause, but turned it against Turkey. Germany, thankful for his friendly neutrality in 1870–'71, allowed him, in 1877–'8, to carry his armies across the Danube and the Balkan, and to gain small advantages for Russia, at a ruinous cost in men and money; but Gurko, Skobeleff, and Todleben had to return from before the unassaulted walls of Constantinople, and Ignatieff's treaty of San Stefano to be cancelled, at the dictation of Bismarck, backed by Andrássy and Beaconsfield. More than this, while Russia was robbed by the Congress of Berlin of a part of her well-earned honors and influence in the Balkan Peninsula, Austria-Hungary received from the same European Areopagus, as a reward for an equivocal attitude during the great contest, the permission to "occupy and administer" (that is, virtually to annex) two Turkish provinces, Bosnia and Herzegovina—a task which was immediately executed. Russia was furious over this termination, which was charged to the pusillanimity of Alexander II.; and the national rage, equally divided between the Czar and the hated Teutons and Magyars, added venom to the shafts of Nihilism and fresh fuel to Panslavism. The double convulsive disease which has thrown Russia off the track of real progress, has advanced from stage to stage and from menace to menace, finally culminating in the assassination of Alexander II., and the chauvinistic pronunciamientos of the Moscow Slavophils through General Skobeleff. Ignatieff, the chosen instrument of the Moscow Nationalists, rules the Empire, and Alexander III., whom fear of Nihilism has thrown into his arms, is drifting into war, as his father did, at the instigation of the same faction, and under the same guidance.

Scarcely had this tendency of the Russian mind and this bearing of the Russian situation become perfectly clear, when people on both sides of the border began seriously thinking of Poland—or rather of the Polish nation—as a possible factor of the first magnitude in deciding the great international controversy. The Poles began to hope for a new struggle for existence side by side with their old friends the Magyars; the more thoughtful Russians discovered that they had committed an error in cruelly alienating a branch of the Slavic stem still endowed with strength and vigor. The Austro-Hungarian press spoke loudly of the restoration of Poland as a necessity for the safety of the dual monarchy and the freedom of Europe; Bismarck's intentions in the matter became a subject of speculation. The *Golos* of St. Petersburg, on the occasion of the grand Polish celebration at Cracow, in 1879, in honor of the veteran writer Kraszewski, began a bold agitation in favor of reconciliation with the Poles, who had shown that they were still, and were determined to remain, a nation.

The voice of the *Golos* found an echo in other Russian journals; the Polish press of Posen, exasperated by fresh Germanizing efforts of the Prussian Government and its persecution of the leading Polish priests, did not spurn the proffered olive branch, but demanded positive proofs of sincerity, such as the restoration of the Polish language to its rights in the schools of Russian Poland, and the unmuzzling of the press of Warsaw. The latter remained silent; the press of Lemberg and Cracow, inspired by political and religious sympathy for Austria-Hungary, and exultant in its liberty, answered with disdain; Moscow mocked at the visionary dream of liberal St. Petersburg. The Russian Government hesitated with the first tentative indication of a conciliatory design till the beginning of this year—when the Russianized University of Warsaw received the gift of a Polish professorship. The Russian endeavors to win over the Poles to the Slavic side in the "long and terrible" grapple of the Slavs with the Teutons, which Skobeleff and his friends announce as unavoidable and imminent, have, however, been continued to this day, and they are watched with intense interest.

If this terrible struggle between the two races be really unavoidable, the prediction may be hazarded, though not without the necessary reservations, that that race will be victorious on whose side the Poles shall stand. This prediction is not founded on the value of the Polish sword, however high that may be estimated by those who remember 1831, but on the consideration of numbers, geographical position, and politico-religious circumstances. Making rough estimates, and deducting the Poles subject to all the three Emperors, the population of Russia is about equal to those of Austria-Hungary and Germany combined. The military forces of these allies are vastly superior in quality to those of the Czar, but this superiority would, in a long war, be counterbalanced by the advantages which the leader in the Panslavic crusade would derive from the aid of nearly 15,000,000 of non-Polish Slavs of Austria-Hungary (Slovaks, Czechs, Croats, Serbs, Dalmatians, etc.), as well as of 3,000,000 Ruman subjects of that monarchy, men of the Greek faith—if he could only reach and revolutionize them. Count the Poles among the combatants of the allies, and you not only add 12,000,000 to the material they can draw upon, but Galicia remains a shield of Austria-Hungary, the example of the Poles strengthens the fidelity of the Catholic Slavs of that monarchy (Slovaks, Czechs, and Croats), the Slavic phalanx cannot be formed, the struggle assumes the aspect of a fight for and against the Greek cross, and the war is carried on between the Vistula, the Dniepr, and the Düna, where Russia is most vulnerable. Add the 12,000,000 Poles to the military resources of Russia, and you also open to her the road across the Carpathians, the Magyars become immediately crippled by risings of Ruthenes, Serbs, and Rumans—such as ruined the cause of Hungary in 1849—Slovaks and Czechs follow the Polish lead in preferring the claims of race to those of religion, and the monarchy of the Hapsburgs collapses after a terrible agony. All this can, of course, be presumed only on the suppositions that Russia, with her wonted stubbornness and fanaticism, will not break down under the first heavy blows which the conquerors at Sadowa and Sedan might deal her; that, on the other hand, France will be deterred from mingling in the fray by Metz, Strassburg, Coblentz, etc., and the attitude of Italy; and that the forces of the Sultan will keep in check the lately emancipated Christian states of the Balkan Peninsula—but all these suppositions seem to be well grounded.

Both the Russian and German Governments still hesitate to make overtures to the Poles; both continue to treat their respective portions of Poland as hostile territories, to be kept down by the iron hand; and the Poles of each portion hate their own masters most cordially. Religious antagonism sharpens in each the hatred bred by oppression and the remembrance of old feuds; what Russia gains in comparison by race kinship she forfeits by her tyranny. Posen may hesitate in its choice, if choose it must, between the Slavic banner and the Teutonic, seeing no prospect of independence in the victory of either; but Russian Poland, groaning under a galling yoke, will readily join even German invaders, unless convinced that they mean to extend their Prussian border, as such, to or beyond the middle Vistula, or allured by timely Russian assurances of vital concessions; and as long as Russian Poland does not unequivocally declare for the Panslavic cause, which she would do only after a revolution in Russia, or at least in the Russian policy, the Poles of Galicia will stand firmly by Austria-Hungary, defending to the last the cause of their nationality and church against the deadliest foe of both, the Russian power. Galicia considers herself now the nucleus of a future independent Poland, and as such she is kept in provisional allegiance to the Austro-Hungarian monarchy and its Hapsburg dynasty. The dynasty, the Hungarians, and the German-Austrians will have no hesitation in letting that province go free, to become, with other parts of Poland, a rampart against Russia, the weak objective point of whose constantly menaced attack it is now. The opposition of the Czechs and other Slavs of the monarchy to such a diminution of its Slavic strength will easily be overcome. Let Bismarck speak out the word "restoration of Poland," and all the land, from the Carpathians to the Baltic, will be ablaze, and the real Eastern question virtually decided by the Polish nation breaking the Panslavic phalanx, instead of joining it.

That Bismarck, while doing his best to keep Posen firmly attached to Prussia, and dealing roughly—perhaps ostentatiously so—with his Polish opponents in the German Reichstag and Prussian Diet, may yet harbor the thought of one day playing out that word as a great trump, perhaps his greatest, in European politics, has long been suspected. His Boswell, Moritz Busch, has divulged the fact that he once seriously advised the Crown-Prince of Prussia to have his sons taught Polish, as a thing that might be useful in the future. Could Bismarck have thought of an independent Poland under a Prussian secundogeniture? An independent Poland under an Austrian secundogeniture has been the desire of the Polish high nobility since 1831, when negotiations were entered into with Metternich with a view to placing the Archduke Charles upon the throne of Poland. But of late the report has gained currency in wide circles that Bismarck meditates the creation of a Polish throne for the Saxon dynasty in exchange for Saxony, which would be annexed to Prussia. Two Electors of Saxony reigned in Poland, as kings, from 1697 to 1763, and a King of Saxony was Duke of Warsaw from 1807 to 1813. The Saxon dynasty has remained Catholic since Augustus the Strong adopted that faith, in order to gain the Polish crown, in 1697. Protestant Saxony would hardly object to the change of rulers, and this change would be a great step in the unification of Germany directly under the Hohenzollern sceptre. Poland remembers its Saxon monarchs with a kind of charitable complacency. The scheme is very rational—and perhaps not merely *bene trovato*.

OUR PRODUCTION OF THE PRECIOUS METALS.

THE preliminary report on the production of precious metals, by Mr. Clarence King, has just been issued by the Census Bureau. The statistics, which relate to the year ending May 31, 1880, have been to a certain extent forestalled and supplemented by the estimates of the Mint Bureau, and by those of Mr. Valentine, Superintendent of Wells, Fargo & Co.'s express, although these do not relate to the same period as the statistics of the census. In his preliminary notes, Mr. King describes the methods employed for the collection of the statistics, presenting not only those used by himself, but also those used by the Mint Bureau and by Wells, Fargo & Co. The method employed by the Mint is simply that of summarizing the receipts of domestic bullion at the several mints and United States assay offices, adding to this the amount shipped abroad, as shown by custom-house returns, and estimating the amount consumed in the arts. The objections to this method are that the amount coined within a certain period does not necessarily correspond to the production for that period. The estimates of the amount consumed in the arts are necessarily somewhat vague; and, moreover, the record of imports and exports cannot be accurate or complete, inasmuch as no account is taken of bullion transported overland into Canada, and the export figures for base bullion, ores, and matte cannot be depended upon. The method employed by Mr. Valentine consists in estimating the product from the statistics of the express companies and of the freight lines and banks which handle it. This plan would give satisfactory results if *all* the products of the mines were handled by these companies; but such is not the case, and estimates of the amount which passes into the market through private channels must necessarily be based upon very slight information, and be correspondingly liable to error.

The third system, which is the one that has been adopted, as far as possible, by the census, is what may be known as the direct method. Carried out fully, it would consist in obtaining directly from each bullion-producer a statement of the amount produced. In the case of the larger mines and smelting works, by which much the greater proportion of the precious metals is produced, this plan has been carried out with success. It has been found impossible, however, to use it in the case of the smaller

producers, and therefore recourse was had to other methods. Mr. King found the following obstacles to the full application of his system: the wide extent of the field; the vast number of mines, a large proportion of which are in localities difficult of access; the reluctance of some mine-owners and superintendents to give accounts of their product, coupled with the fact that in a great many cases no systematic accounts were kept by the mine-owners, especially the smaller ones. Many mines had changed hands during the year, and others which had been worked a part of the year were shut down at the time the investigation was in progress. The fact that the census year does not correspond with the fiscal year also made it difficult for not a few of the corporations to give the required figures.

The following table summarizes the figures of Mr. King's report so far as they relate to the total production in the United States. The production is given in dollars:

	Deep Mines.	Placer Mines.	All Mines.	
			Gold.	Silver.
Alabama	1,301	....	1,301	....
Alaska	....	6,002	5,951	51
Arizona	2,307,534	30,256	211,965	2,325,825
California	9,652,575	8,049,253	17,150,941	1,150,887
Colorado	19,146,066	103,106	2,699,898	16,549,274
Dakota	3,325,547	51,109	3,305,843	70,813
Georgia	14,166	67,195	81,029	332
Idaho	1,049,519	894,684	1,479,653	464,550
Maine	10,199	....	2,999	7,200
Michigan	25,858	....	....	25,858
Montana	3,539,730	1,171,105	1,805,767	2,905,068
Nevada	17,208,482	50,427	4,888,242	12,430,667
New Hampshire	26,990	....	10,990	16,000
New Mexico	441,691	....	49,354	392,337
North Carolina	114,367	4,726	118,953	140
Oregon	190,972	934,522	1,097,701	27,793
South Carolina	6,499	6,597	13,040	56
Tennessee	1,998	....	1,998	....
Utah	5,014,503	20,171	291,587	4,743,087
Virginia	9,321	....	9,321	....
Washington	16,800	120,019	135,800	1,019
Wyoming	17,321	....	17,321	....
Total	$62,381,448	12,109,172	33,379,663	41,110,957

In the production of gold California still takes the lead. The great deposits of auriferous gravel continue to yield largely, though their final exhaustion, under the wholesale hydraulic operations now being actively prosecuted, cannot be far away. Prior to the discovery of the Bodie district, these and the other superficial deposits supplied more than two-thirds of the entire gold product of the State; but the Bodie and the other deep mines now make the product of the two classes of mines about equal. California produces comparatively little silver, and that from two adjoining counties, Inyo and Mono. In this State there is a larger number of actively-worked mines than in any other, owing chiefly to the settled conditions, the facilities for transportation, and the cheapness of labor and supplies. On this account it is possible to work mines of a lower grade of ore than in most of the other States and Territories. The State furnishes 71.47 per cent., or nearly three-fourths, of the total placer product of the country; and 40 per cent. of the total gold product of the deep mines, or between 51 and 52 per cent. of the total gold product of the United States. Its yield of silver is but 2.8 per cent. of the whole. The interests of the State, however, are not centred in its mining industry, as of late years agriculture and manufactures have assumed greater relative importance.

The mining industry of Nevada shows a considerable decrease, in consequence of the diminished yield of the Comstock lode. From 1871 to 1879 Nevada stood at the head of the States and Territories as a producer of the precious metals, but during the census year both California and Colorado outstripped it. In 1876, the Comstock yielded a total of $38,572,984; but during the census year the product of the whole Comstock district was but $6,922,330—a decline of $31,650,654, or more than 82 per cent., in four years. The placer mines of this State are insignificant, no gravel deposits of importance having a suitable water supply being known. Their aggregate yield is estimated to be but little more than fifty thousand dollars.

The bullion product of Utah is remarkably steady, varying but little from one year to another. The principal yield comes from a few rich claims which are largely in the hands of corporations, and the bulk of the ore is treated by a limited number of mills and smelting-works. The placer yield of the Territory is inferior even to that of Nevada, being estimated at about twenty thousand dollars.

The mining industry of Arizona was but slightly developed at the time of the census investigation. Since that date the development has been very great, a number of mines having become heavy producers. Owing in great measure to the unsettled condition of the mining industry, which at that time was mostly in the prospecting stage, the statistics cannot be regarded as possessing a high degree of accuracy; indeed, Mr. King states that they contain a probable error of at least 20 per cent. The principal production has been from the mines in Pima County, and consists largely of silver.

Although Idaho has produced precious metals during the last twenty years, its mineral resources have still been but slightly developed. During the past four years its production has been confined almost entirely to the older mining districts, of which the placer mines of the Boisé basin have contributed a large proportion. The Owyhee mines, whose production was formerly very considerable, suspended operations in 1876, as a result of the financial crash in San Francisco. Since the close of the census year the Wood River and other districts in and about the Salmon River mountains have been discovered, and now promise large returns of the precious metals. Of the total gold product, about 60 per cent. is from placer and 40 from deep mines. The Territory furnishes 7.33 per cent. of the total placer product of the country, 2.81 per cent. of the deep-mine gold, and 4.43 per cent. of the total gold production. Of the silver production it yielded 1.13 per cent., and 2.61 per cent. of the entire product of the precious metals in the country.

Although Oregon is one of the oldest of the Western mining States, its output has never been large, and mining has always been secondary to agriculture. The greater part of its production is from Baker County, in the eastern portion of the State. The prevailing type of the ores is a free gold quartz. Of the total production of the country, its yield is 7.71 per cent.

The precious-metal production of Washington Territory is of little importance, four-fifths of it being from placers, one-half of which comes from the Upper Columbia. The Skagit mines, which recently caused much excitement, have not as yet proved to be productive. The deep mines of the Territory are practically confined to the Peshaston district in Yakima County, where gold-quartz mining is conducted on a small scale.

Recent reports from Alaska of the discovery of very extensive and rich silver deposits have drawn thither large numbers of persons, but thus far only to be disappointed. The sole returns from the Territory up to the close of the census year consisted of a small amount of placer gold.

Colorado, which up to 1877 produced annually an average of three or four millions, has suddenly, with the discovery of the silver deposits at Leadville, come to the front, ranking first for its silver output and fourth for its gold. During the census year its production of gold and silver was, in round numbers, nineteen and a quarter millions, and, adding to this the value of lead and copper produced, the total metallic product was twenty-two and three-quarters millions. A full collection of statistics in this State was in the highest degree difficult to obtain on account of the unsettled condition of the industry, the immense number of mining claims held by private parties, and the sporadic character of the work being done upon them. Moreover, a large proportion of the ore was shipped east directly, or in the form of lead bullion. The character of the ores and of the mineral deposits presents the greatest possible variety, defying all known modes of classification. Lake County, in which are situated the Leadville deposits, is, of course, by far the heaviest producer, contributing more than two-thirds of the entire product of the State. Gilpin and Clear Creek, each producing nearly two millions of dollars, follow next in order. The mines of these counties were among those first worked. The placer mines of the State, which, shortly after the discovery of mineral deposits, produced very heavily, now furnish only about one hundred thousand dollars to the total production.

The mineral deposits of Dakota are confined to the region of the Black Hills, and the productive mines are almost entirely deep mines of free-milling gold quartz, of a very low grade. The average assay value of these ores is only about eight dollars per ton, but many of the mines, by reason of the great abundance of the ore and the cheapness of its extraction, are extremely profitable. The production of the placer mines is surprisingly small, being only about fifty thousand dollars.

Montana possesses all the elements favorable for a large production—namely, rich and varied ores and abundant fuel, both coal and wood; as yet, however, it has not taken a high rank, because of the want of development and transportation. The discoveries of the rich deposits at Butte will undoubtedly raise the production very considerably in the immediate future, and the opening up of the Territory by the railroads which are now being constructed within it will probably bring to light other equally promising fields. During the census year the principal production came from Deer Lodge County, in which ore having an assay value of more than four millions was raised during the census year. The placer deposits of the Territory formed an important source of its production during the census year, being estimated by the Mint Bureau at more than a million dollars, or nearly one-fourth of the total production of the Territory.

During the census year the mines of New Mexico attracted much attention, but their development has to a certain extent awaited the completion of the railroads through the Territory. Indian difficulties, too, have been another cause of delay, the miners having been repeatedly driven out of a number of the richest districts. Large extents of placer grounds known to be extremely rich have thus far been allowed to lie idle, on account of the difficulty, indeed in most cases, the impossibility, of obtaining water. During the census year there is no report of any production from the placer grounds of the Territory.

Wyoming, although surrounded on three sides by important mining regions, has thus far developed very little in the way of mineral deposits. The only ones known at present are those at the east base of the Wind River Mountains, in Sweetwater County, which produced during the census year but little more than seventeen thousand dollars.

In concluding his report, Mr. King remarks

that the outlook for the future of the mining industry in precious metals is very promising. This view seems to be sustained by the reports of production during the calendar year just passed, for which Mr. Valentine reports a total production of $76,947,515, in the proportion of $31,869,686 gold and $45,077,829 silver.

PERSONAL GOVERNMENT AND ENGLISH DEMOCRACY.

LONDON, March 14, 1882.

WHOEVER has been accustomed to reflect on the course of public affairs must have noted the great effect produced from time to time on opinion by current terms, phrases, or catchwords. Of formulas such as the "sovereignty of the people," the "rights of man," "liberty, equality, and fraternity," the claims of "nationality," which have in their day shaken the civilized world, there is no need to say anything. I can better illustrate my meaning by referring to minor phrases or maxims which within my own memory have assuredly exercised no small weight on the sentiment and the judgment, and therefore on the action, of Englishmen. Thus the need of having "the right man in the right place," the danger of "the tyranny of majorities," the "duties of property," the wisdom of substituting "lateral" for "vertical" extension of the suffrage, the "representation of minorities," the inexpediency of "concurrent endowment," or the expediency of "levelling up" instead of "levelling down," with a score more of expressions or sayings, have within the last thirty years counted for a good deal in the making up of that public opinion which is, or is supposed to be, the ultimate authority in English politics. All these expressions and others like them are vague, indefinite, and from their very nature inaccurate. But it is from their vagueness and from their pliability that they derive their force. They represent not the thoughts but the sentiment of the hour: they betray the general tone of feeling prevalent among large classes. It is therefore always worth while to examine with care and impartiality what is the idea or feeling which the catchword of the time contains, and to ascertain what may be its amount of truth or falsehood.

One of the notions which, as far as I can judge, has at the present moment most currency among the well-to-do and, therefore, roughly speaking, the conservative classes of English society, is the danger of "personal government." The circumstances which have given rise to this sentiment are obvious. It takes no acuteness to see that admiration for individuals has been the special weakness of the French democracy. It is, again, clear that under the rule of Lord Beaconsfield, no less than of Mr. Gladstone, the individual peculiarities of the Prime Minister have exerted great influence on the course of English politics. It is therefore easy to conclude that modern democracies tend to create systems of "personal government," and further to infer that this tendency is purely evil and must be denounced as a rock ahead. Nor is it possible to overlook the fact that to the preachers who warn us against the dangers of personal government, their text, as is often the case in a sermon, is of far less interest than its practical application. Writers who honestly enough dread what I take it you would call the "one-man power," are much less concerned to establish any speculative doctrine than to enforce the practical conclusion that the influence of "one man," namely, Mr. Gladstone, "has," if I may borrow a formula from the politics of the last century, "increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished." Here, in fact, we are brought face to face with the worst intellectual result produced on Englishmen by public life—the ineradicable habit of enlisting general principles, or so-called general principles, into the service of party warfare. This vice deprives the speculations even of Burke of half their permanent value, and writers who have not a tithe of Burke's genius to sacrifice, are quite as ready as he was to give up to party thoughts and theories which were meant for mankind. It is indeed odd enough to observe how readily the very class of writers who when the American democracy was in trouble turned against republican government all the paradoxes and half truths of Carlyle, now arm themselves against the democracy of England with the maxims of De Tocqueville, and apply or misapply warnings needed by France during the whole period of De Tocqueville's public life to the totally different circumstances of modern England. While, however, it were folly to disguise from one's self that theoretical fear of individual despotism is often, in writers who give the cue to public feeling, a mere cloak of very actual dislike to Mr. Gladstone, it would be a great mistake for one who like myself is neither a vehement opponent nor an undiscriminating admirer of that Minister, to overlook the fact that the language current about personal government does express a genuine and prevalent idea. My object is therefore to estimate, as fairly as I can, the real relation of personal government and English democracy.

"Personal government" is, as I have before pointed out in your pages, an ambiguous term. When it is used with any strictness, it is nothing more than a synonym for our old friend tyranny or despotism. It is a term strictly applicable to the rule of men such as Cæsar, Cromwell, or the two Napoleons. It may be applied with some laxity, but without essential incorrectness, to the kind of administration which George III. attempted to establish during the earlier part of his reign, and did actually establish during the Ministry of Lord North. The essential feature of genuine personal government is that a ruler who cannot be removed, and who cannot be made responsible for his acts, has predominant power in the state. He may be competent or incompetent. He may or may not be the representative of genuine popular conviction. He may owe his power to armed force, to an original popular vote, or to his hereditary position. But whatever the other characteristics of his rule, the despot who maintains a system of personal government is beyond the reach of regular legal control. Any one who believes that the errors of freedom are in the long run a less evil than even the wisdom of despotism—and this is the fundamental dogma of all genuine Liberals both in England and in the United States—must at once admit that "personal government," as contrasted with the government of the nation by the nation, is an undoubted evil; and that modern democracy, in so far as it promotes personal government, promotes a state of things hostile to all true and permanent progress. But I may almost venture to assume that there is no Tory or Home Ruler insane enough to dream that Mr. Gladstone will play the part of Cromwell or of Napoleon. I say that I "almost" venture on this assumption, because in a periodical purporting to be specially addressed to educated men I saw last night the statement deliberately put forward that Mr. Gladstone, both in character and in policy, bears the closest resemblance to James I.; and the man who can trace a likeness between the present Premier and the most learned fool in Christendom may, for aught I know, believe that Mr. Gladstone meditates an armed *coup d'état*. But, putting aside the dreams of fanatics the violence of whose hatred has deprived them of sane judgment, it may be safely assumed that no one supposes that England stands in danger of a Gladstonian despotism. Those who apply the expression personal government to any form of administration which has, or does, or can exist in modern England, use the word in a secondary and almost metaphorical sense.

For "personal government" means, in the mouths of those who connect it with the tendencies of English democracy, not despotism, but the condition of things under which the will of one man, in virtue of the confidence reposed in him by the nation, exerts great or predominant influence on the course of politics. There is not, it must be granted, the remotest doubt that personal government has in this sense, from time to time, existed in England. Chatham, Pitt, Lord Palmerston, Lord Beaconsfield were each, during part of their career, able from their position and character to impress their own personal will, ideas, or fancies on the whole policy and legislation of Great Britain. Whoever will be at the pains to read any of the memoirs which have thrown such abundant light on the reign of George III. will easily come to the conclusion that personal government, be it a bane or a blessing, is no novelty. The language, for example, used by rivals no less than by followers about Pitt, implies that at one time he was not so much the leader as the master of his colleagues. The way in which his influence and importance are spoken of would assuredly be denounced as servile adulation if employed by any of Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet with regard to the authority of their head. I am not, however, the least concerned to deny that Mr. Gladstone's individuality does exert predominant influence in the Cabinet and throughout the Liberal party. It is quite true, and this truth is a most serious and important truth, that England is at this moment to a great extent governed in accordance with the ideas of one man. It must further, I think, be conceded that whenever this kind of personal government exists, the direct power of the House of Commons is lessened. If Mr. Gladstone is bent on a course of action which, as in the case of his perfectly just determination to introduce the *clôture*, is disapproved of by many of his party, it is pretty certain that as things now stand it is not the Premier who will have to give way. Members elected to follow Mr. Gladstone are compelled to play the part of followers. They feel, consciously or unconsciously, that if it came to a conflict between the Prime Minister and a body of Liberal seceders, the constituencies would probably support Mr. Gladstone. I must further in candor grant, that in my judgment the English democracy will, in the long run, tend to produce a system of personal government in the only sense in which that term can be applied to an English cabinet. I come to this conclusion partly from observing the course of politics since 1868. Whether Lord Beaconsfield or Mr. Gladstone has been in power, one thing has remained unchanged: the Premier for the time being has overshadowed both his colleagues and his party. The elections of 1874 and the elections of 1880 were as distinctly contests between Mr. Gladstone and his rival, as if each of them had stood as candidate for the Premiership. But my belief that English electors will, on the whole, wish to place wide powers in the hands of the leading statesman in whom for the time being they have confidence, rests less on the experience of what, after all, is a very short period, than on the general character both of Englishmen and of democracies. An ordinary elector feels—and, I think, rightly feels—that he can form a far sounder judgment on the character and the general tendencies of a leader than on the details of intricate political questions. An intelligent person, who has read the papers and

has observed Mr. Gladstone's career, may say to himself with much more confidence, "I am willing" or "I am not willing," as the case may be, "to trust Mr. Gladstone's conduct of public affairs," than "I have a distinct opinion as to the right policy to be pursued in Ireland or in Egypt." Add to this that a person undoubtedly is more interesting to masses of men than a principle. When Mr. Gladstone "stumped" Midlothian, he excited an amount of interest in his cause which could have been kindled by no mere impersonal appeal, either to reason or to feeling. Moreover, Parliament, which means in reality the House of Commons, is not a body to impress the imagination of multitudes. One may be devoted to parliamentary government, one may hold, as I do hold, that it is on the whole the best form of government which has as yet been discovered by man. But parliamentary government is, one must nevertheless admit, a form of government which is apt to be wanting in dignity and in visible effectiveness. The House of Commons wastes time in debates which are neither instructive nor interesting. It does get through a good deal of business, but the one thing visible to the public is that the House is always in arrears with its work. It is always, as Dickens would phrase it, "trying how not to do it," and in this negative effort the House attains constant and depressing success. Thoughtful democrats will therefore tend to throw power into the hands of some leader who is able to make Parliament work with effect. The less thoughtful electors will feel more and more that a known and admired individual, such as Palmerston, Lord Beaconsfield, or Mr. Gladstone, interests them far more keenly than does the House of Commons or the individual members (often commonplace persons enough) who make up the House. Every motive, in short, good and bad, will therefore lead the English democracy to favor that kind of "personal government" under which one man practically elected by and representing the majority of the electors has predominant authority.

Is the growth in England of such personal government as I have described in reality an evil? There are, as it seems to me, valid reasons for answering this inquiry in the negative.

The supremacy, in the first place, of a leading statesman, trusted by the majority of the country, in no way imperils national sovereignty. The loss of popular confidence entails the loss of power. Let it be once ascertained that Mr. Gladstone is no longer trusted by the electors, and a fall of Mr. Gladstone's Government is, we may be certain, at hand. The question, as long as England has a free Parliament and a free press, will never be, as it has often been in France, between the claim of some saviour of society to rule the nation and the right of the nation to rule itself. The only question which can arise must lie between the right of the electors to choose the Premier and fix the general outlines of his policy, and the claim of the House of Commons to elect the Government and actively to control the Executive. On the whole, whenever there exists a statesman of commanding powers, there is every reason to hold that it is better for the nation that he should as far as possible derive his power from the people, and not be trammelled by the intervention of the House of Commons in matters of government. Parliamentary government is excellent. It still remains to be proved whether government by Parliament is in the long run possible, and if it be possible whether it be tolerable. The English democracy are amply justified in preferring that the Executive should be strong. Parliament itself has never done its proper work, has never maintained popular respect, and has never produced effective legislation except under vigorous guidance. England has been great not when Prime Ministers were weak, but when some Premier of genius commanded Parliament because he represented the nation. It is a plain truth, which one would think hardly more disputable than that two and two make four, that a committee of 600 and odd gentlemen cannot govern an Empire; they could not govern a parish. Such a committee does, however, form, under good guidance, a most valuable body of critics. To create and support a vigorous Ministry—that is, a Ministry to a certain extent independent of Parliamentary factions and Parliamentary intrigues—is therefore the one mode of making Parliament itself really efficient.

It is, in the second place, perfectly clear that the electors, who are in the last resort the sovereign power in England, will in some way or other make their will felt. Two ways present themselves in which large bodies of men may exert their authority. The one is the system apparently favored by Mr. Chamberlain, and of which the readers of the *Nation* know much more than I. This system consists in the enforcing of the strictest party discipline, and forming that kind of "machine" which appears to be much better known than admired by Americans who have at heart the welfare of their country. The other mode of bringing the will of the people to bear, is to induce the electors to place confidence in the leading statesmen with whose views they in the main agree, and in whose character and abilities they have trust. This is the system of "personal government" in its best form, and my belief is that in England the ultimate choice is between such personal government and the "machine." If I am right in this conclusion, the *Nation* and its readers will not be hard to persuade that I am right in preferring the influence of a popular Minister to the power of political mechanism. On this matter there are two things which ought to be borne in mind. No man can obtain in England the influence of Palmerston, Gladstone, Disraeli, or Bright without being long and well known to the electors. He must make his character and his way of looking at politics thoroughly well known to them. He must explain to them, so that every man in England may understand his meaning, what are his principles of government. No man till he has done this can, under the present condition of English politics, be a great popular leader. Hence, it ought to be quite possible for the English democracy to combine allegiance to persons with care for principles, and in such personal allegiance will, it is to be hoped, be found a check on the tendency, fostered by men like Cobden, to regard the whole policy of the nation as subordinate to the success of some one cause.

It should, again, be observed that if the English electors place men to a certain extent above measures, they will be following in spirit one of what used to be considered the soundest of Conservative maxims. We used to be told, and certainly with some truth, that an elector could judge of the character and capacity of a candidate far better than of abstract questions of principle. He could tell that Squire A was a sensible, honest gentleman, and that Lawyer B was a sly, pettifogging scoundrel. He therefore acted wisely in electing the respectable though Conservative landowner in preference to the plausible Radical attorney. English democrats are now showing a tendency to apply this principle on a larger scale. They know the character and antecedents of say Mr. Bright or Mr. Gladstone. They send Mr. Bright or Mr. Gladstone to power mainly because they trust in the character of known leaders. In this I see little to regret, though of course every sensible person will admit that the principle of "men," not "measures," has, like every other principle, its weak side.

A. V. Dicey.

THE BRADLAUGH CASE IN ITS LATEST PHASE.

London, March 15, 1882.

We have now entered the third act of the Bradlaugh drama. To us it has become a tedious drama, but to you it must seem so strange, so all but inexplicable, that a letter may well be devoted to explaining the phases it has passed through, and the reasons why it has roused so much warmth of feeling.

Till 1880 Mr. Bradlaugh was known merely as a secularist lecturer, against whom a prosecution (which ultimately failed) had been directed for publishing a book charged with being injurious to public morals, and whose attacks on Christianity, as well as on the Crown and several of the other institutions of the country, had won for him a certain measure of notoriety. He was, however, in no sense a political power; his following was confined to a small section of the working class, and it was rather by his anti-religious than by his political opinions that this section was attracted. For a good many years he had kept himself before the electors of Northampton, where the shoemakers, who form a large part of the population, are extreme Radicals. He contested the borough once or twice; but his Radical adherents were not strong enough to carry him, because the Nonconformists and other Liberals professing Christianity wholly refused to vote for him, and no one would consent to fight along with him in the Liberal interest. In 1880, however, political excitement had risen much higher than on any previous occasion for a long while. No moderate Liberal candidate could be induced to stand for Northampton, because Mr. Bradlaugh's party, though unable to get him in, were able, by giving their votes to him alone, to prevent another Liberal from succeeding. At last, however, a candidate appeared whose political programme was as advanced as Mr. Bradlaugh's, and who consented to run along with him. The recognized manager of the Liberal party, from his office in London, approved their joint candidature. The Nonconformists, in the excitement of the moment, waived their religious objections, and Mr. Bradlaugh, to the astonishment of the country, was returned. When he presented himself in May, 1880, to take his seat in the House of Commons, he asked permission to make an affirmation, such as our statutes provide to be taken in courts of justice by persons who object to an oath. The Parliamentary oath is a short and simple one, but it ends with the words, "So help me, God!" and these words he, not believing in any Supreme Being, claimed not to be obliged to use. The Speaker doubted whether the statute to which he appealed had any application to the Parliamentary oath, and accordingly a committee was appointed to consider the point. When it came to the conclusion that he could not, under the statutes, affirm as he desired, he then claimed to be permitted to take the usual oath in the usual way. A watchful Tory member, however, interposed before he had well begun the ceremony; the Speaker allowed the objection, and a second committee was, after much wrangling, named to consider whether he could be prevented from taking the oath. This committee also reported against his claim, and when he reappeared to take the oath, the House refused to suffer him to do so by a majority of forty-five. He persisted, however, and, being directed by the Speaker to withdraw, refused to do so, so that he was taken into custody by the Sergeant-at-Arms, after a very un-

edifying scene of disorder. Next day he was discharged, because the House did not know what to do with its prisoner, and left at large, while forbidden to take his seat. At length, the position growing more awkward the longer it lasted, Mr. Gladstone took the matter up, and proposed that persons claiming to affirm should be allowed to do so at their own peril, subject to the decision of a court of law. The statute prescribing the Parliamentary oath provides that whoever votes or speaks without having taken it shall forfeit £500 for every offence, and shall vacate his seat. Thus a means was furnished of trying the question at law. Mr. Bradlaugh made the affirmation, and then voted. An action was brought against him for the penalty, which, after the lapse of eight months, during several of which he had sat and spoken, was decided against him. Thus his seat became vacant, and the first act in the drama came to an end.

The second opened with his offering himself again at Northampton and being reëlected. Proceeding once more to the House of Commons, he now declared himself ready to take the oath in the usual way, which he had previously declined. But his opponents were more than ever on the alert. They now insisted that he could not be permitted to take the oath, because he had previously declared that it was not binding on his conscience, since the words, "So help me, God!" had no meaning for him. It would, they urged, be a profanation of the oath, an insult to the Deity and to Parliament, to allow the words of the oath to be repeated, and God to be appealed to by one who knew no God at all—to whom the words were so much idle gibberish. To these arguments it was answered that the House of Commons had nothing to do with the administration of the oath, and no right to inquire into the mental state of the person who took it: all that the statute required was that the words should be duly repeated and the ceremony performed; if they saw and heard him do what others did, that was enough. Moreover, he had been reëlected, and such knowledge as they had obtained of his opinions by what he stated when he was a member before, and came up asking to affirm in 1880, must now be put out of sight, since he now appeared with the new title to sit derived from his second election in 1881. These considerations were urged by one or two Liberal lawyers and by Mr. Gladstone, who, though he did not make the question a matter of confidence in the Government, was evidently anxious to have it settled. But the House of Commons decided by a pretty large majority not to permit Mr. Bradlaugh to take the oath, and when he persisted in coming forward again and again, passed a resolution directing the Sergeant-at-Arms to exclude him from the precincts of the House. Insisting, however, that it was his duty to take his seat, and that the House was acting illegally in keeping him out, he forced his way into the lobby one day last summer, and had to be removed by force, after an unseemly scuffle. When this session began, and he presented himself as usual to take the oath (the resolution of last session for his exclusion having expired), Sir Stafford Northcote, as leader of the Tory party, again proposed that he should not be permitted to take the oath, and again carried his proposal against the Government, by a majority of about sixty. Three weeks afterward, Mr. Bradlaugh, having carefully chosen his opportunity, darted up the floor of the House one evening, to the table, and there administered the oath to himself before anybody had time to move the Speaker to interpose and stop him. Alleging that he had thus satisfied the statute, he took his seat and voted in a division. This open defiance of its authority irritated the House, so, after a tumultuous debate, the Conservative leader carried his summary expulsion. Mr. Gladstone and many of the Liberals, condemning his conduct as disrespectful to the House, declined to vote, but about eighty still supported him, on the ground that his offence did not deserve expulsion, and that the question whether he had vacated his seat ought to be regularly tried.

With this expulsion—an extreme penalty, which the House of Commons has the legal right to inflict, rarely as it has been inflicted—the second act of the drama was wound up. Most people thought, and many Liberals as well as nearly all Tories hoped, that the whole play had ended. They were tired of Mr. Bradlaugh, and expected to see him no more, because they conceived that the borough of Northampton would disapprove of his principles and his conduct, and, perceiving that Parliament was resolved not to have him, would choose some other representative. In so reasoning they forgot to allow for the dogged persistency of the English character, and that tendency to sympathize with any man, however little they may otherwise like him, who seems to be getting less than justice. Had Parliament been dissolved and an election taken place in the ordinary course of things, it is almost certain that Mr. Bradlaugh would have lost his seat. The Nonconformists would have been swayed by their old dislike of his secularism, and without the Nonconformists his own special partisans could have done but little. His expulsion, however, had raised the feeling of the town in his favor. Northampton felt itself pitted against the House of Commons, and determined to show that it could be as obstinate as the House. Accordingly, Mr. Bradlaugh was again returned, by a smaller majority no doubt, but after such great efforts by his opponents that it was plain that the whole Liberal party in the town was disposed to stand by him and back him up in his struggle with the House of Commons. That struggle immediately recommenced; for as soon as his election had been announced, and before he appeared applying to be sworn, Sir Stafford Northcote once more moved and carried a resolution forbidding him to take the oath. An amendment was moved by one of the Liberals who had formerly opposed his admission, declaring that some measure ought to be introduced permitting an affirmation in lieu of an oath; and this being put as an alternative to Sir Stafford Northcote's resolution, was lost by sixteen votes only. The result has been to leave things exactly where they were before. Mr. Bradlaugh is member for Northampton, but cannot take his seat, cannot vote or speak, because he has not taken the oath, and cannot take the oath because the majority of the House of Commons will not let him—a strange and uncomfortable predicament for all parties; but nobody seems to know how to get out of it. One person, however, has seen what is the logical result of the action of the House of Commons. This is Lord Redesdale, an old-fashioned and sternly-consistent Tory, who has introduced in the House of Lords a bill providing that every member of either House of Parliament shall before admission solemnly declare his belief in Almighty God. The notion of imposing a new theological test at this time of day has caused some amusement, and the bill will of course never pass even the House of Lords.

What, then, some one may ask, is the explanation of the behavior of the House of Commons? Why should it be thought absurd for Lord Redesdale to propose formally what they have done practically? The answer is that they have been drawn on, step by step, into their present position, and that they have been governed not so much by general principles applicable to the case of every person who, being an unbeliever, should offer to take the oath, as by dislike to the particular man in whose person the case has arisen for solution. When the first objection was taken nearly two years ago, it was laid hold of by the Tories, then smarting from their defeat at the polls, as an unexpected means of harassing the Liberal Ministry. Soon they became interested in the struggle, their animosity to Mr. Bradlaugh increasing with his persistency, and their dislike to his taking the oath, which at first seemed in some of them not altogether sincere, having now become a strong and earnest feeling. Although not many would go so far as to say that all atheists or pantheists ought to be absolutely excluded from Parliament, a great many really think so, and are glad of the opportunity of excluding one who has become conspicuous by his attacks on religion. Among the Liberals few would confess to such a feeling, and all are sensible of the mischief done to the party by keeping the question open. The Government have suffered in credit by having been overridden by the majority of the House; the party as a whole suffers by being mixed up in the minds of respectable people with an unpopular personality. Nevertheless, a large number of Liberals inside the House of Commons have steadily voted, against their party leaders, to prevent Mr. Bradlaugh's being permitted to take the oath, and a considerable body of Liberal opinion in the country, particularly in Scotland and the North of Ireland, supports the same view.

They are swayed by a mixture of feelings. In the first place, they think that as he began by declaring that the oath was meaningless to him, it would now be enacting a solemn farce to let him repeat its words. The oath would be desecrated, the House would be stultified; public respect for the sanctity of such a solemn appeal to Heaven would be gravely shaken. Then, further, they have conceived a horror of Mr. Bradlaugh's views—not merely his political and anti-religious views, but his declarations on other moral and social questions as to which public opinion in England is very sensitive. His presence in the great legislative assembly of the nation seems to them a misfortune, which they would willingly avert. If there were no technical objection to his entering it, why of course he must be allowed to enter; but when there is such an objection, they are not eager to remove it. And lastly, they fear that if they should vote for his admission their vote would be misunderstood by pious and respectable men among their constituents. They would be thought to be "voting for Bradlaugh"—*i.e.*, voting for a man who has spent his life in diffusing doctrines which most well-conducted people hold in horror. The electors, they fear, would make no fine distinctions as to the legal points in the case, but would simply consider that a member who voted to admit Mr. Bradlaugh voted in his favor, and thereby expressed sympathy with his position and his views. Under these combined influences of personal feeling and fear of misconception, a considerable number of Liberal members have either abstained from voting or have voted with the Tories for the exclusion of the member for Northampton; and it has now apparently become too late to get the matter considered as a mere dry legal question, with which the doctrines or behavior of the individual has nothing to do.

How will the problem be solved? The obvious solution is to pass an act abolishing the oath of allegiance altogether (a rational course, for which people seem hardly prepared), or permitting any person who does not wish to take the oath to make an affirmation instead, as various classes of persons are now allowed to do in courts of justice. There would be a majority in the House of

Lords against any such measure ; and probably the House of Lords in its present warlike temper might reject it. It would, moreover, be so strenuously opposed by the Tory party in the House of Commons that much precious time might be spent in carrying it, and not merely spent but lost, if it were to be rejected by the Lords. This is probably the reason why Mr. Gladstone refuses to take the matter up. Although he has of course great aversion to Mr. Bradlaugh's opinions, he has been so much annoyed by the behavior of the House that he would gladly see the question settled by the admission of the excluded member. That must come sooner or later ; the only question is, whether the Tory party will be able to keep the sore open till a general election is at hand, in the hope that the Radical party may be discredited by their support of Mr. Bradlaugh's claims.

However small the legal question involved, the case becomes instructive when one sees in it an instance of the perplexities in which assemblies become involved by the necessity of observing fixed rules. Here is a purely technical matter which, with a little common sense, might have been disposed of in a few hours had people been so willing. Party spirit getting hold of it, and taking advantage of the forms of the House of Commons, makes out of it a problem which has cost weeks already, and is as far as ever from solution. It is also an instance of the way in which men tend to confound an abstract principle with a concrete example. The fact that Mr. Bradlaugh is an atheist and an assailant of the monarchy looms so large before people's minds, that they cannot or will not consider whether the House of Commons has not gone beyond its strict legal right in keeping him out. "Ought atheists to be legislators?" "Is not Christianity a part of the Constitution?" These and similar questions are the questions which we hear put, as if the point of law were to be decided by them. Yet nobody would have thought of putting them in the case of any man elected a member who might, like Mr. J. S. Mill, have written books in which the existence of a Deity was questioned. Everybody knows that there are already in Parliament persons who make no secret of their disbelief. No one, except Lord Redesdale, thinks of interfering with them. But Mr. Bradlaugh is thought fair game. Nor can those who pursue him be brought to see that they are really making him and his opinions far more familiar to and influential with the working classes than they could otherwise have become. It is lucky that there is no revolutionary party in England now, for if there were, Mr. Bradlaugh's case would go far to rouse it into action, and to provoke a quarrel between the House of Commons and the masses. B.

Correspondence.

THE CHINESE AND THE DEMAGOGUES.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : Although I am a constant reader of the *Nation*, I have never been more deeply impressed than I was by your late article on the Chinese Bill, which I see from the newspapers has just passed also the lower house of Congress. I was in California when the measure was first brought forward in the United States Senate, and when it was exciting the greatest interest, I might say, among all classes of the population of the Pacific coast. In connection with your comments, made respecting the speech of Mr. George of Mississippi, in the Senate, "in which he assumes the bill to be a confession that this is 'a white man's government,'" I was much struck with one argument I remembered as having been used, in discussing this same subject, by some of the most intelligent men of San Francisco, at the time I have referred to. This was, that every Californian should profit by the sad, but at the same time perfectly logical, result of the powers granted the negroes, as in Virginia, and avoid at once in California every possibility of similar occurrences, and the great dangers, not to speak of the disgrace, attending them.

The present political revolution in Virginia, one of the oldest and most conservative communities of the country—involving the repudiation of a great part of the State debt, and the changes for the worse in its judiciary, together with the total disorganization in the management, not only of the charitable, but even of the educational State institutions—brought about by Senator Mahone, by means of the vote of nearly the entire negro population, has had no little influence, I assure you, in alarming even the less intelligent here as to what may be in store for every community on this coast with a Denis Kearney in the place of Mahone, using for his own ends the balance of power which the Chinese too, if the negroes are to be upheld, will surely gain through the ballot with time and any further increase in their number.

Respectfully, C. M. B.

Tucson, Arizona, March 24, 1882.

LANGE'S 'ALTERTHUEMER.'

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : A "Note" in the *Nation* of February 16 recalls to my mind studies once pursued with ardor, but for some time pressed aside by more urgent duties. Speaking of Madvig's 'Verfassung und Verwaltung des Römischen Staates,' you refer to the "great works" of Mommsen-Marquardt and Lange. Objection should be taken, I think, to the commendation of Lange here implied, as misleading to the student who looks to the German scholar for something more than a collection of facts—for a comprehensive, judicious presentation of the development of Roman institutions. Going over such a battle-ground for scholars as the early history of Rome is, it is important that the student should estimate the real value of a work to which he may trust for guidance in respect to its treatment of the history as a whole ; in respect to what I may call its *statesmanlike touch*. It is important to judge how it grasps the constitutional growth of Rome, as the modern historian grasps the constitutional growth of England, for example—as a reality to be illustrated and explained by the critical ingenuity of scholars, not as a proposition of historical dialectics to be maintained and controverted by successive generations of disputants. Judged by this test, I do not think Lange's 'Alterthümer' can fairly be called a great book. Extensive it certainly is, and with great apparent erudition in the foot-notes, though I think serious exception can be taken to it in this respect.

It is of course not to be expected that the most careful student will verify the majority of the references in the foot-notes of such a work as Lange's. But he must feel confidence that his author has done so, that they really represent what the text claims they do, and are supports of the positions taken in the text. A very extended and thorough use of Lange gave me reason to doubt that the notes are of this kind. Frequent attempts at verification led me to the conclusion that, to a considerable degree, these notes are simply transferences at second or third hand, without verification, from numerous other modern historians and compilers. Compared with the full and accurate quotations of the Mommsen-Marquardt series, of Mommsen's essays, of Schwegler's history, they are almost worthless.

This is, however, a small matter compared with the defect in the work I have implied above—its failure to grasp Roman history as an organic whole, with a vital and real development, which determined the character of the several institutions, and which must be the guiding line of valuable criticism on its several parts. This broad, statesmanlike perception of Roman constitutional growth is one of the great features of Mommsen's work—perhaps the greatest feature of his History, and hardly less noticeable in the masterly essays, published (I believe) in 1864, under the title, 'Römische Forschungen.' Here we have a most acute scholar, as his book on the tribes shows, applying himself to the study of institutions in such a way that it is always the statesmanly instinct which directs and holds in hand the exercise of that critical argumentation and ingenuity which sometimes run away with other Germans. Here, it seems to me, Lange falls far short. He has none of the broad, strong grasp on Roman polity which I have just spoken of as characteristic of Mommsen. His ingenuity is ingenuity pure and simple, with no other necessary connection with Roman history than that the latter affords the subject of its exercise.

In illustration of what I mean, take Lange's complicated, artificial, and improbable notion of the *patrum auctoritas* and *lex curiata de imperio ;* or, as a better illustration, and one which goes deeper into the character of the political life of the early republic, the way in which he discusses the relation of the *plebs* to the curiate assembly. After Mommsen had well-nigh demonstrated the presence of the plebs in the *curiæ* and the *comitia curiata*, at a very early period, Lange, feeling the force of Mommsen's argument, but unable to see that this is a great political factor in the institutions of Rome, a probable or improbable result of the development of Roman institutions, to be passed on as fact, in its entirety ; and also unable to see that the theory of their exclusion is purely artificial, the result of Niebuhr's critical, but sometimes extravagant, reconstruction of Roman history—Lange, I say, unable to judge of historical facts as such, and unwilling to abandon a theory entirely, invents a compromise which he passes as history.

This letter is too long already, but an old enthusiasm for the study of the Roman Constitution was awakened by your Note, and I have hoped to induce the small number of special students of this subject to carefulness in their reading.—Yours very truly,

D. W. Brown.

New York.

[In speaking of Lange's book as "great," we had reference of course to its size. We should not call the Becker-Marquardt work "great" in any other sense : the Mommsen-Marquardt treatise is the only one to which this epithet will apply in any broader sense. But while admitting that Lange is not a great writer, in the sense in which Mommsen and Niebuhr are great, and that he has not the deep and intuitive insight of these writers—that he fails in a degree "to grasp Roman history as an organic whole, with a vital and real development"—his book is nevertheless one that we value highly and make constant use of. No writer has worked out so satisfactorily and completely the patriarchal institutions out of which the Roman institutions grew ; and the chapters upon the constitu-

tional history of Rome which occupy part of the third volume and the whole of the fourth, while, it is true, principally made up of detail, are nevertheless the best book of reference for these details. If not a "great" book, it is a very useful one.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will publish, by subscription, in an elegant edition, limited to 1,000 copies, 'English and Scottish Popular Ballads,' edited in their entirety and purity by Prof. Francis J. Child, of Harvard University. They have also in press 'The Gipsies,' by Charles G. Leland.

Cassell & Co. will shortly have ready 'The Constitution of the United States,' a popular exposition by Simon Sterne, of the New York Bar.

We understand that Mr. F. H. Underwood, whose sketch of the poet Lowell has lately been published by J. R. Osgood & Co., is now well advanced in the preparation of his biography of Longfellow, projected and begun over a year ago, and aided by frequent counsels and suggestions from Mr. Longfellow, who had also chosen most of the subjects to be used as illustrations. Messrs. Osgood hope to have it ready in a few weeks, as the pictures are now well advanced. They will include the ancestral home at Newbury, the birthplace of the poet at Portland, and other scenes of similar character.

Alfred Barbou's 'Victor Hugo and His Times,' translated by Ellen E. Frewer, and profusely illustrated, is announced by Harper & Bros., as also a work on 'The New York Volunteer Fire Department,' by George W. Sheldon.

Henry Holt & Co.'s announcements include the second volumes of Cory's 'Guide to Modern English History' and of Fyffe's 'History of Modern Europe'; Lady Jackson's 'The Old Régime'; J. A. Doyle's 'English Colonization of America'; Frances Anne Kemble's 'Records of Later Times'; Bernhard Ten Brink's 'English Literature'; and Heine's 'Romantic School.'

A new and uniform edition of Mr. T. W. Higginson's works, and new editions of Wendell Phillips's 'Speeches and Lectures' and 'Scholar in a Republic' (the latter with an appendix containing Mr. Phillips's plan of civil-service reform), and of Mrs. Mann's 'Life of Horace Mann,' are promised by Lee & Shepard.

'The Geological and Mineral Resources of the James River Valley of Virginia,' by Dr. J. L. Campbell, is in the press of G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Peter G. Thomson, Cincinnati, issues immediately General J. D. Cox's 'Second Battle of Bull Run, as connected with the Fitz-John Porter Case.'

'American Caves,' from an historical, scientific, and descriptive point of view, by Professor H. C. Hovey, is the title of a work announced by Robert Clarke & Co.

Of timely interest is the 'Walking Guide to the White Mountains,' by a member of the Appalachian Club, which will have the imprint of A. Williams & Co., Boston.

'Hunting and Trapping,' six months in winter camp in the Maine wilderness, by Captain F. C. Barker and J. S. Danforth, will be published this month by D. Lothrop & Co., Boston.

The Soule Photograph Company, Boston, succeeds John P. Soule in the business of photographic art reproductions, so long and favorably known to the public. The new firm consists of Messrs. W. B. Everett and W. S. Soule.

The *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease* (Putnam's), formerly edited by Dr. I. S. Jewell, of Chicago, begins its ninth volume with a new editor, Dr. W. J. Morton, of New York, and with a large and attractive number of 240 pages. In two long articles Drs. Beard and Hammond urge that, while Guiteau is a lunatic, he is or may be at the same time deserving of punishment—a view of the relations between medical and legal insanity much more familiar to alienists in Europe than to those in this country. The *Journal* will, no doubt, be attractive reading to others than specialists.

Those interested in the education of defectives will find much that is valuable in the modest little pamphlet on the 'Education of the Blind,' from the pen of Mr. M. Anagnos, Boston. A hasty and popularly written sketch of the condition of the blind from the middle of the seventeenth century to the present is followed by an account of the Perkins Institution, of which the author is the head, and of Dr. Howe and Laura Bridgman. Mr. Anagnos is his own publisher.

Macmillan & Co. will shortly bring out Matthew Arnold's 'Irish Essays' and J. P. Mahaffy's 'Decay of Modern Preaching.'

Under the title of 'One of Cleopatra's Nights, and Other Romances' (New York: R. Worthington), Mr. Lafcadio Hearn has translated Gautier's charming dream-stories into English with a scholarly understanding of their mythological and historical basis, and with such rare insight and sympathy, as well as skill and taste in reproducing phraseology, that the author's glowing fancies and grace and delicacy of style are even more noticeable to a foreigner than in the original. Comparing the translation with the French, it proves to be perfect in every respect, excepting a few words that might have been better chosen.

Three instalments of the 'History of the Second Massachusetts Regiment of Infantry' have recently been published in Boston. Captain Geo. A. Thayer writes of the part taken by the regiment at Chancellorsville, Colonel Charles F. Morse describes Gettysburg, and Captain Samuel M. Quincy reproduces his diary, kept while a prisoner of war, between August and November, 1862. Each of these papers was read at one of the annual reunions of the officers. Of their great value, not only as material for military history, but also as graphic pictures of the every-day life of the rank and file during the great war, there can be no question, and no stronger evidence could be produced of the high character of the famous Second Massachusetts than these three admirable papers, showing the culture and education of the men who were company-officers in that regiment. Captain Thayer's paper not only describes the part played by his regiment at Chancellorsville, but gives an excellent summary of the principal features of the whole battle.

Marcus Ward & Co., 734 Broadway, send us a great variety of floral emblems in the shape of Easter cards. While most of them are fine specimens of color-printing, the range of both designs and mottoes is inferior to that of the Prang series noticed last week.

E. C. Bridgman, 83 Warren Street, sends us his new railroad and township wall map of New York State, which is on a scale of five miles to the inch. The lettering is bold and distinct. In the free spaces are given the whole of Long Island, at scale, a ward map of New York city, a map of the whole United States, and various tables of statistics—population, Congressional districts, railroad distances, post-offices, express companies, etc. As railroads in process of building (like the West Side and the New York, Lackawanna and Western) are represented as complete, the map in this respect will be less out of date a year or two hence than now.

Late in life Mr. Tennyson took up dramatic writing, and saw three of his plays acted on the stage. Mr. Tupper is moved by the same tardy spirit. W. H. Allen & Co., London, announce as in press "Three Five-Act Plays and Twelve Dramatic Scenes, suitable for recitation and home theatricals. By Martin F. Tupper, D.C.L., F.R.S., author of 'Proverbial Philosophy.'" It will be remembered that Mr. Tupper kindly wrote a drama about Washington at the time of our Centennial Celebration, and not long after Mr. Tennyson had published "Queen Mary."

Mr. Henry B. Wheatley has recently published in a thin volume (London: Elliot Stock; New York: Scribner & Welford) a paper on 'Bookbinding Considered as a Fine Art, Mechanical Art, and Manufacture,' which was read by him two years ago before the Society of Arts. In so contracted a space the essayist must perforce take a hasty view of a widely extended subject; and this paper is therefore of less interest and value than Mr. Cundall's volume, and than the admirably illustrated book of Mr. Zaensdorf, both of which are about contemporaneous with its delivery originally. But anything is to be welcomed which draws attention to the fact that bookbinding is an art and not a mere mechanical process. Mr. Wheatley's essay is illustrated by eleven plates, all more or less rough. The most important is an English binding of the sixteenth century from Queen Elizabeth's library, with the badge of her mother, Anne Boleyn.

—At the last meeting of the Biological Society of Washington, Dr. Elliott Coues laid before the members the advance sheets of his latest contribution to ornithology, about to be published in Boston by Estes & Lauriat. This work is ostensibly the second edition of his 'Check List of North American Birds,' published in 1874, but enlarged to include a lexicon of the etymology, orthography, and orthoepy of the scientific names of North American birds, a concordance of previous lists, and a catalogue of the author's ornithological publications, some 300 in number. In his remarks on recent advances in the study of ornithology, Dr. Coues sketched the progress of our knowledge of North American birds under heads of the Wilsonian, the Audubonian, the Bairdian, and the modern periods, showing that in round numbers the current lists of birds of each of these periods increased by 200 names—the Wilsonian showing 300, the Audubonian 500, the Bairdian 700, and the present one 900. The total number of names in Dr. Coues's new list is 888, being an increase of 120 over the 768 tenable names of the original edition of 1874. A portion of this accession results from the formal inclusion of Greenland birds in the North American list; and another large portion from discoveries of species over our Mexican border and in Alaska. The speaker stated that some twenty or thirty, perhaps, of his 888 species or sub-species might not be regarded by all persons as valid; and with this margin of probable reduction of his figures, making due allowance for probable discoveries, he presumed that the list of North American birds, stragglers, etc., included, would finally settle at about 900. The novel feature of Dr. Coues's work was stated to consist in the philological character of the explanation it gives of the derivation and application of the technical names. Every word, both generic and specific, is defined, with the usual diacritical marks of quantity and accent. The "Roman" pronunciation is adopted and recommended. The treatise makes a royal octavo of some 200 pages.

—Surgeon Joseph R. Smith, United States Army, has prepared a paper concerning the 'Retired List of the Army,' which has considerable interest at the present time, in view of the provision in the Army Appropriation Bill now pending in the House of Representa-

tives, which places all officers on the retired list when they reach the age of sixty-two. He shows that the retired list originated in 1861, and under the laws then and subsequently passed it now consists of five different classes of officers—namely, (1) those retired on their own application after forty years of service, (2) those retired on the report of a Board as being incapacitated for active service, (3) those retired in the discretion of the President after forty-five years of service, or having attained the age of sixty-two years, (4) those retired on their own application, in the discretion of the President, after thirty years of service, and (5) those restored to the service and placed on the retired list by Act of Congress. The whole number at present is limited to 400, and three-fourths of them are included in the second class. The whole number retired in twenty years has been 583. The mortality in the first and third classes (those retired for age) has been about 6 per cent. per annum, while in the second class (retired for wounds) it has been less than 4 per cent. The mortality among officers on the active list in the last twenty years has been 1.36 per cent., excluding losses in battle, and 1.94 per cent., including such losses. The great number of officers, of the same average age, placed in the Army upon the reorganization at the close of the war, has now brought about such a stagnation in promotion as very seriously to affect its *morale*. Officers are attaining their fiftieth year while still captains, and their sixtieth year as majors; more than one-third of the first lieutenants of infantry are over forty years of age, and a large proportion of officers have been serving from fifteen to twenty years in one grade. The result is that officers pass the prime of their life in subordinate positions without responsibility, and only attain the more important positions at such an advanced age and so little accustomed to responsibility that their usefulness is greatly diminished. In order to remove this stagnation, at least in part, it is now proposed to remove the restriction as to numbers on the retired list, and to apply to the Army the same law that has been found to work very well in the Navy for the past twenty years—viz., that every officer *shall* be placed on the retired list on attaining the age of sixty-two. It is found on examination that under such a law forty-two officers would be retired during the present year and smaller numbers on succeeding years, the number reaching 119 in the space of six years. Surgeon Smith's paper is in advocacy of such a law, and the statistics and arguments which he presents are valuable and interesting.

— The total number of students in attendance at the University of Michigan this year is 1,534, just the same as the total given in the annual calendar for 1880–81. Compared with last year, the Department of Law and the School of Pharmacy have made slight gains. In no department has there been any material loss. In point of numbers this university has risen rapidly, till it now holds the leading position among the higher educational institutions of the country. Organized and conducted primarily for the purpose of meeting the wants of citizens of Michigan, it pursues a wise and generous policy toward students coming from other States and countries. At the present time only forty-five per cent. of its students have their homes in Michigan. The number of women in attendance is about one hundred and eighty, or nearly twelve per cent. In the department of literature, science, and the arts, or, as it might be called, the collegiate department, students are allowed a wide though not unlimited choice of studies. The aim appears to be to secure the benefits and to avoid the dangers of the elective system by prescribing a part of the work to be done by the candidates for the several literary degrees, or by requiring the student to elect a specified amount of work from limited groups of studies. The announcement of the organization of a School of Political Science, and a description of some of the studies to be pursued in the School, appear for the first time in the calendar for the current year.

—The first volume of Dr. Hayman's edition of the Odyssey, containing the first six books, appeared in 1866; the second, containing the next six books, in 1873; and the third volume, covering the remaining twelve books of the poem, is now published (London: David Nutt; New York: B. Westermann & Co.). Soon after the appearance of the second volume, in the spring of 1874, the trouble which the editor had been having with the assistant masters and with the governing body of Rugby School came to an end in his dismissal from the head-mastership. To this he makes indignant and pathetic reference in the preface to the third volume and in the Greek motto (Od. 14, 372 f., which runs thus in English: "But as for me, I dwell apart by the swine and go not to the city"). The whole work is a monument of untiring industry and perseverance, which does not flag even in the last twelve books of the poem, where most readers find their interest somewhat languid except at one or two points. As a contribution to Homeric scholarship, the chief value of this edition lies in its marginal references to occurrences of words and phrases in other parts of both Homeric poems. These will be used, however, mainly by specialists in the study of Homer, while the discussions in the prefaces and appendices contain matter interesting to other scholars. Those in the first volume, it is true, are confined mainly to the history of the text of Homer and to discussions of the characters and language of the poems. But before the second volume appeared, Mr. F. A. Paley had set forth, in the prefaces to his edition of the 'Iliad,' a theory in regard to the late origin of the present form of the Homeric poems, arguing that it was not earlier than the Peloponnesian war. This led Dr. Hayman to devote the prefaces to his second and third volumes, of 138 and 152 pages respectively, to a minute discussion of the evidences of a knowledge of the poems as we have them, and of the use of the art of writing for literary purposes, for a century or two earlier than that time. Mr. Paley's theory has produced a great many magazine articles and pamphlets, but, so far as we know, he has made only two converts, Prof. A. H. Sayce, in England, and Dr. Johannes Overdick (*absit omen!*), in Germany. Whatever we may think of the wisdom of adding two hundred pages on such a subject to an edition of a classical author, there can be no doubt that there is much valuable matter in Dr. Hayman's essays, and very little doubt that he leaves the Paleian theory in a rather mournful condition.

—Berlioz's symphony of "Romeo and Juliet," which will receive its first complete representation in New York at the sixth concert of the Symphony Society next Saturday, is spoken of as follows in an article by M. Blaze de Bury in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for March 15:

"'Romeo and Juliet' is a tragedy which has come down from the stage into the orchestra. It not only undertakes to depict the psychologic state of two lovers, their ardors, their frenzy, their despair; it does more: the entire drama is unfolded, scene by scene, and without words; the altercation between the domestics at the rising of the curtain; the intervention of the prince as a peace-maker; the ball of the Capulets—and all this splendid, imposing, inspiring; possessing an interest at once musical and dramatic; a Delacroix set to orchestral music, with a programme written by Shakspere."

The article in question is devoted to Schubert and his indebtedness to Diderot's novel of 'La Religieuse,' and abounds in bold epigrams which almost defy translation. Among other brilliant things in his essay, M. de Bury cites a long conversation which he once held with Musset concerning Schubert. "What secrets this man possessed," said Musset. "Do you know a single voice of nature of which he has not caught the individuality? . . . Truly, an incomparable landscapist." Further on we are told that the influence of the piano was so powerful on Schubert that his most beautiful songs make the impression of *études* for the piano with a human-voice accompaniment. Again, Schubert is the most modern of the moderns. His music is impregnated with the picturesque and with literature. Music was architectural with Sebastian Bach, sentimental and psychologic with Haydn and Mozart, the art of pure thought with Beethoven, and in Franz Schubert turned to the picturesque.

—In the same number of the *Revue* M. Othenin d'Haussonville, one of the French delegates to the Yorktown celebration, prints the second instalment of his American diary. It is throughout almost always laudatory, the writer evidently feeling that the cordial reception given to our visitors and the great pains that were taken to make their stay agreeable forbade his saying anything that could offend American susceptibilities. It is worth noting that he collected a great deal of correct information, although he does not entirely escape the mistakes to which travellers in general and Frenchmen in particular are liable in judging of foreign countries. Thus, in mentioning that the corner-stone of the monument at Yorktown was laid by the Grand Master of Masons instead of President Arthur, he expresses a doubt whether this circumstance, in spite of the very simple explanation it received, did not point to a dangerous increase of the influence of the Freemasons on public affairs. Our public men generally made a favorable impression on him, and he was particularly pleased with General Sherman, whose appearance was about what he had imagined—at once martial and unaffected, half soldier, half gentleman-farmer, a Davout tempered by a Bugeaud.

—The Academy of Sciences, Paris, has lately awarded the Valz Astronomical Prize to Mr. David Gill, Her Majesty's astronomer at the Cape of Good Hope. Mr. Gill has devoted his time most energetically for many years past to researches on the distance of the sun, and it is in recognition of this service that the award of the Valz Prize has been made to him—especially in consideration of his observations of Mars, at the Island of Ascension, in 1877, as discussed in a recent volume of the Memoirs of the Royal Astronomical Society. The committee was of opinion that the expedition to Ascension was fully successful, as Mr. Gill obtained twenty-two series of observations of the planet, each of which gives a value of the parallax of the sun; and the value resulting from a combination of all these was considered one of the most exact yet obtained. The astronomical prizes offered by the Academy for the present year are the Lalande and the Valz Prizes, and a renewal of the Damoiseau Prize, 10,000 francs in value, for a review of the theory of the satellites of Jupiter—this subject having been first proposed in 1869, and renewed four times since, no memoir having so far been presented to the Academy which could be regarded as meriting the award.

—Nothing is more bewildering to students in the field of Biblical criticism than the manifold attempts to harmonize the chronology of the Hebrew Scriptures with that of the Assyrians, Babylonians, Egyptians, and Persians, as re-

corded in the cuneiform and hieroglyphic inscriptions, in the Canon of Ptolemy, the fragments of Manetho and Berosus, Herodotus, etc. Some of the works devoted to the subject are perfect mazes of speculation, computation, and conjecture. Such is preëminently Johann Raška's 'Die Chronologie der Bibel im Einklange mit der Zeitrechnung der Egypter and Assyrier' (Vienna, 1878). Less extensive, but more perplexing in its method and execution, and surpassingly venturesome in its conjectural flights, is Victor Floigl's 'Geschichte des Semitischen Altertums in Tabellen' (Leipzig, 1882), with introductory elucidations, which has so speedily followed the same author's 'Cyrus und Herodot nach den neugefundenen Keilinschriften' (Leipzig, 1881). Both these bold, if not reckless, reconstructors of ancient chronology are Austrian provincial scholars, Raška being professor at Budweis, and Floigl dating his preface at Gratz. A less ambitious, and, we believe, much sounder, attempt in the same sphere is Heinrich Matzat's (a Prussian provincial teacher) 'Chronologische Untersuchungen zur Geschichte der Könige von Juda und Israel' (Weilburg, 1880). But the best recently published summary of the ancient history of the states east and west of the Euphrates is Fritz Hommel's 'Abriss der babylonisch-assyrischen und israelitischen Geschichte . . . in Tabellenform' (Leipzig, 1880). This little book presents in a succinct and clear manner the most generally adopted results of recent investigation, and will be found a very handy companion by teachers as well as students.

— Scholars in this country have often deplored the fact that they were cut off from one attractive and valuable class of studies, that of palæography and its application to textual criticism. The improved methods of photographical printing, however, are gradually bringing within their reach treasures heretofore locked up in European libraries. We need not refer to the facsimiles of classical and Oriental manuscripts which have been published lately in Germany and England, but will pass to a more restricted and less-known field, that of Romance palæography. Until quite recently even the most famous monuments of the French language were accessible only in the unsatisfactory facsimiles in Roquefort's 'Glossaire,' and Chevallet's 'Origine et Formation de la Langue Française.' In 1875 Gaston Paris published for the Société des Anciens Textes Français superb heliogravures of the 'Oaths,' 'St. Eulalie,' 'The Passion,' 'St. Leger,' and the 'Fragment' of Valenciennes. Three years later Prof. Stengel, of Marburg, had the Bodleian MS. (Digby 23) of the 'Chanson de Roland' photographed entire and published in that form by Henninger, of Heilbronn. Although the appearance of such a book will not compare with that of the work before mentioned, it is on the whole the most satisfactory process, and there is a sentimental feeling of satisfaction and security in using the direct photograph which one does not experience with the other methods, though they may be as safe. The next essay in this direction was by Professor E. Monaci, of Rome, who published the 'Provençal Mystery of St. Agnes.' The favorable reception accorded to this work has induced Signor Monaci to undertake other similar ones, the first of which is before us. Part 1 contains twenty-five sheets of heliotype facsimiles printed upon hand-made paper, and is sold at the very low price of twelve francs. The manuscripts, with two exceptions, are from Roman libraries, and contain Old French, Provençal, Catalan, Spanish, and Italian texts. A brief notice directs attention to printed editions of texts (where such exist), and to detailed descriptions of the MSS. The four Provençal texts are from the two famous Vatican MSS. (5232, 3207) of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, and consist of biographies of several troubadours, parts of *canzoni*, and a portion of a short treatise on Provençal poetry. Among the old French texts the most valuable are the Glosses of Cassel, here given entire in seven sheets, and the fragment of the poem on Alexander the Great (first published by Heyse, 'Romanische Inedita,' 1856), in two sheets, which may be had separately for the use of students. The Italian texts consist of a Latin legal document, dated 1193, and containing an admixture of Italian words, a formula of confession in Latin and Italian, an extract from a volume of annals of Perugia, the beginning of a will (Siena, 1367), one hundred and eleven verses from the 'Tesoretto' of Brunetto Latini, and an extract from G. Villani's 'Chronicle.' This last MS. is the only one that possesses any artistic interest. At the bottom of the page is a miniature representing the execution of the unfortunate Conradin. We trust that Signor Monaci's enterprise may meet with the warm encouragement of Romance scholars in this country, who ought to be especially grateful for such publications. The same publishers announce an *Archivio Paleografico Italiano* conducted by E. Monaci and C. Paoli. It will appear at irregular intervals, in numbers of about ten sheets, of the same form, we presume, as the 'Facsimili.'

SYMONDS'S RENAISSANCE IN ITALY.

Renaissance in Italy. By John Addington Symonds. 2 vols. Part 1. The Age of the Despots. Part 2. The Revival of Learning. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1881.

It is pleasant to chronicle the issue of an American edition of Mr. Symonds's history of the Renaissance in a style quite worthy to be compared with the original. Such American spellings as *theater, center, meäger, equaled, practiced*, strike the eye; and we note an occasional misprint, as *adventures* for *adventurers*, i., p. 131; *villians*, p. 147; *credible* for *creditable*, p. 185; *imperasse* for *imperasset*, p. 180. But, on the whole, the reprint is as correct as it is elegant.

These books have so high and well-established a reputation that it would seem hardly necessary to do more than mention their publication. But we understand that the issue of part 3, "The Fine Arts," is conditional upon the reception accorded to these volumes; we wish, therefore, to express very heartily our gratification at the undertaking, and to hope that it will prove a success in every respect. In order to emphasize more strongly the importance of the work, it will be well to call attention more particularly to the character of the epoch and to Mr. Symonds's treatment of it. The great reawakening of the fifteenth century is largely associated in our minds with inventions and discoveries—the invention of printing and the discovery of America are perhaps the two things that occur to us first in connection with it. With neither of these fields did the "Renaissance in Italy" have much to do: Columbus and Cabot were Italians, to be sure, but it was as Spaniard and Englishman that they made their voyages. It was upon classical literature and art that the activity of Italy was exercised at this period: "It was the duty of Italy in the fifteenth century," says our author, ii., p. 321, ". . . to resuscitate culture." To each of these two topics, therefore—the revival of learning and the fine arts—the author has devoted a volume; an introductory volume undertakes to characterize the age in its political and historical character—this is 'The Age of the Despots.'

The state of society depicted in these two volumes is without question the foulest of which we have any record. We cannot say that it was worse in reality than that of Rome in the early empire, or of Greece in its decline, for there is no description of society in those earlier periods so complete and detailed as that which we are enabled to construct of the period before us; but, so far as we possess the materials for a comparison, the fifteenth century of our era must be pronounced worse than the first. We have no knowledge, in all human history, of anything so profoundly and universally corrupt. When, in part 1, the reader comes to the account of a prince, Duke Frederick of Urbino, distinguished for integrity, good faith, and personal purity; or, in part 2, to the description of a scholar, Vittorino da Feltre, at once learned, simple, and pious, he is struck with a certain sense of unreality and incongruity. Is it possible that characters like these could be produced in such an age as this? Of course, as such examples show, there were exceptions to the general demoralization, and Mr. Symonds denies (part 1, p. 488) "that the humanities of the race at large . . . were vitiated." He adds that "the immorality of the age descended from the upper stratum of society downwards." Here, we imagine, is the great contrast between the corruption of this age and that of the early Roman Empire. Whatever virtue survived in ancient Rome was in the upper classes—the representatives, so far as they were to be found, of the genuine Romans of the Republic. In the period before us, the people at large retained something of practical Christianity when it had wholly vanished from the upper clergy and the nobility.

This will serve to explain the fact that the picture of the age, painted by itself, is so much worse in the period of the Renaissance than in the Roman Empire. The Latin writers belonged to that class in which survived whatever good there was. They were patriots, Stoics, men of austere morality, in whom still lived something of that spirit which sacrificed everything for the common good. In this age of the decay of paganism men still admired virtue, and placed before themselves a high standard of purity and integrity. In the last days of the mediæval Church, on the other hand, virtue itself was no longer praised—the very name had lost its signification: the standard of conduct was vice. There was no Persius or Juvenal to hold the age up to scorn; there was no Tacitus to depict with loathing the crimes of princes; there was no Lucan to sing of heroic deeds; among the soldiers of Italy there was no Agricola, among her philosophers no Seneca, among her sovereigns no Trajan or Marcus Aurelius. The foulest writers of Greece and Rome would have found congenial companions among the most eminent churchmen and most distinguished humanists of the Italian Renaissance.

The causes of this ineffable depravity are to be found partly in the political demoralization of mediæval Italy, partly in the condition of the Church at this epoch. The former topic is largely illustrated throughout the volume; the latter forms the subject of a special chapter—"The Church and Morality." A rapid examination of the earlier history of Italy shows why it was that no union of the peninsula was possible during the Middle Ages; and why, therefore, at the threshold of modern history, it fell a prey to foreign invaders. The selfish "particularism" of the Italian states goes a great way to explain the universal bad faith, unscrupulousness, and want of genuine patriotism of the public men of this period; their incredible inhumanity was a natural enough outgrowth of their selfish isolation; and when men are perfidious and cruel, licentiousness is not far distant. The moral sense

has already been destroyed. But even this sequence and development of vice seem inadequate to explain corruption such as existed at this period. Mr. Symonds proceeds boldly—but after all treading in the footsteps of Machiavelli and Guicciardini—to lay it to the charge of the corrupt and worldly Church. It was not merely that the ecclesiastical system of the Middle Ages proved ineffective to prevent immorality; it was not merely the example of popes like John XXIII. and Alexander VI.; it was the false standard of conduct sedulously inculcated and made into a rule of practice—a rule which burned Huss and Savonarola and made Cæsar Borgia a cardinal. The causes of "the inherent feebleness of Italy" in respect to spirituality and morality are summed up in vol. i., page 455, as "an intellectual apathy toward religious questions, produced partly by the stigma attaching to unorthodoxy; partly by the absorbing interests of secular culture; partly by the worldliness of the Renaissance; partly by the infamy of the ecclesiastics; and partly by the enervating influence of tyrannies." All of these receive ample illustration in these volumes.

Of course a condition of society like this could not endure. It would have speedily conducted mankind into a universal barbarism far worse and more hopeless than that out of which it had emerged generations before. Immorality is compatible with a high state of civilization, but not with the continuance of a high state of civilization. The terrible sack of Rome by the mercenaries of Charles V. was the crisis in the moral history of Italy. "From the shame and torment of that sack she [Rome] never recovered, never became again the gay, licentious, lovely capital of arts and letters; the glittering, gilded Rome of Leo" (p. 445). But "the Papal state had learned by its misfortunes the necessity of a reform. . . . No force of arms could prevent the Holy City from returning to a better life, and proving that the Christian priesthood was not a mere mockery and sham. In truth, the counter-Reformation may be said to date historically from 1527."

Part 1, "The Age of the Despots," is the volume which possesses most interest for the general reader; the second part, upon the "Revival of Letters," will be very acceptable to those who wish to obtain a clear and connected idea of this great era of scholarship, and to have the names of the leading humanists something more than names to them. The humanistic movement, our author thinks, may be said to have passed through four distinct phases or periods. The first, that of Petrarch, was "the age of inspiration and discovery." The second, associated with Poggio Fiorentino, was "the age of arrangement and translation." The third is "the age of academies"—"whereof the Platonic Academy at Florence, that of Pontanus at Naples, that of Pomponius Lætus in Rome, and that of Aldus Manutius at Venice, are the most important. . . . At the same time, Italian erudition reaches its maximum in Poliziano." The fourth is "the age of the purists, over whom Bembo exercises the sway of a dictator." This is in reality a period of decay. This volume, besides an elaborate sketch of each of these periods, has a chapter upon "Latin Poetry" and a concluding chapter.

We do not understand the definition of *municipality*, given part 1, p. 195: "To begin with, the Italian republics were municipalities. That is, like the Greek states, they consisted of a small body of burghers who alone had the privileges of government, together with a larger population who, although they paid taxes and shared the commercial and social advantages of the city, had no voice in its administration." This defines correctly the citizenship both of the Greek cities and the Italian republics; but neither the Greek cities nor the Italian republics were true municipalities. The Greek cities were sovereignties in the fullest sense of the word, and the Italian republics were sovereignties to all intents and purposes, even though some of them might owe a nominal allegiance to some lord, and all of them, except Venice, were in theory subject to the Emperor. But the very essence of a municipality is that it is not sovereign—that it forms part of a larger organism in which sovereignty resides; the municipality exercises only delegated authority over purely local concerns. There is a slight inconsistency in speaking of Isabella, wife of Gian Galeazzo Sforza: page 543 she is correctly spoken of as daughter of Alfonso II., of Naples, but page 555 she is called his sister.

THE PAINTER COPLEY.

The Domestic and Artistic Life of John Singleton Copley, R. A. With notices of his works, and Reminiscences of his son, Lord Lyndhurst, Lord High Chancellor of Great Britain. By his granddaughter, Martha Babcock Amory. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1882. Pp. 478.

THIS labor of love on the part of the late Mrs. Charles Amory will doubtless meet the fate of the thousands of other useless biographies. The materials so carefully collected and copied seem of priceless value to the editor, but they are hastily glanced over by the unsympathetic reader in quest of new facts or equally desirable amusement. The volume is composed mainly of family letters, of interest only to the recipients at the time, and of no value to any one at the present day. At best it may be said that they prove a lively attachment between the members of the Copley family, and give a touch of human warmth to our impressions of the learned, stately, and elegant Lord Chancellor.

John Singleton Copley, born in Boston in 1737, of parents who had but lately immigrated, will long be remembered as the great portrait-painter of New England prior to the Revolution. As the artist who perpetuated the faces of the most distinguished gentlemen and ladies of the local aristocracy, he occupies a place analogous to that of Lely and Van Dyke in England. In England, however, where he passed the latter half of his life, he is known as an artist of a certain rank, but more especially as the father of Lord Lyndhurst. The names of the father and son are thus closely united, somewhat as those of the elder Disraeli and Lord Beaconsfield will hereafter be. It is with regret that we add that this book gives us no new information of value in regard to the artist A few references to well-known pictures painted by Copley are no great contribution to history. We had hoped at least for an attempt at a list of Copley's English paintings, somewhat on the plan of the American catalogue published by Mr. A. T. Perkins, of Boston, in 1873. As none is given, we may briefly recapitulate the leading points of Copley's history, correcting some errors of his biographer.

According to Mrs. Amory, the artist's father, Richard Copley, married Mary Singleton, sister of John Singleton, of Quinville Abbey, County Clare, Ireland, and the Copleys were a Yorkshire family long settled in County Limerick. It is added that Richard Copley and his wife went to Boston in 1736, and the former died in the West Indies about the time that his son was born—in 1737. Cunningham, in his 'Life of Copley,' says the artist was born, "by the most credible accounts, at Boston July 3, 1737." From the utter silence of the Boston records it seems most probable that the father did not remain there long, and that Mrs. Copley was soon left a widow. In 1747 the widow Copley married Peter Pelham, an English artist, who had been for some twenty years struggling with untoward fate in uncongenial Boston. "Though engaged in trade, like almost all the inhabitants of the North American colonies at that time, his stepfather had some knowledge of art, as many drawings and engravings of tolerable execution by his hand still remain," says this memoir. The newspapers of the date contain a much clearer statement in the month following her marriage. "Mrs. Mary Pelham (formerly the widow Copley on Long Wharf, tobacconist) is removed to Lindel's Row, against the Quaker Meeting House, near the upper end of King Street, Boston, where she continues to sell the best Virginia Tobacco, Cut, Pigtail, and Spun, of all sorts, by Wholesale and Retail, at the cheapest rates." This we print as a sure indication that Mary Singleton, when first left a widow, possessed the energy to maintain herself, and that after her second marriage to a widower with at least three children, she lacked neither ability nor wish to contribute to the support of the new establishment. She lived to a good old age, and the following brief letter, dated Boston, February 6, 1788, is worth copying: "Your fame, my dear son, is sounded by all who are lovers of the art you bid fair to excel in. May God prosper and cause you to succeed in all your undertakings, and enroll your name among the first in your profession." It is not unreasonable to presume that it was from her that Copley and Lyndhurst inherited not only longevity, but those qualities of mind which raised them above their fellows.

According to previous accounts, Copley is here represented as a self-instructed artist, whose excellence was intuitive and wonderful. But an examination of the facts must correct the error. Peter Pelham, his stepfather, was an artist of no small ability. John Chaloner Smith's recent 'Catalogue of British Engravers' shows that Pelham executed some thirty-six mezzotint engravings, more than twenty being published in England before he came hither. These portraits certainly place him in a very good rank among engravers, and would to-day be readily purchased on their merits. Coming to New England about 1726, he must soon have found that there was no large demand for his skill. He taught a school for the education of children in "Reading, Writing, Needlework, Dancing, and the art of Painting upon Glass"; he engraved portraits of a few of the clergymen, and in fact did what he best could to earn an honorable living. After his second marriage he continued his "Writing and Arithmetick School." We will add briefly that success rewarded him; that his oldest son, Charles Pelham, was an honored citizen of Newton, and married a niece of Sir William Pepperell; and that the late distinguished lawyer, Charles P. Curtis, was his grandson. A second son, Peter Pelham, jr., went to Virginia, and was the ancestor of many noted bearers of the name in the South.

It is beyond dispute that Peter Pelham was also an artist with the brush. His engravings testify to this; and one or two specimens remain of the portraits which he painted as preliminary to his use of the graver. Though rather sketchy, they prove his ability to teach all that the master can impart to the readiest pupil. Moreover, in 1753, Copley painted and engraved a portrait of Rev. William Welsteed, of Boston, so evidently in Pelham's style as to render it certain whence he had obtained his instruction. Copley's earliest known picture is a portrait of his stepfather, Pelham; another early production is the portrait of his stepbrother, Charles Pelham; and his first step toward fame was the sending to England that portrait of his half-brother, Henry Pelham,

known as "The Boy with the Squirrel." Again, the well-known artist, John Smibert, lived until 1752 in Boston, and his inventory embraced "thirty-five portraits, forty-one History pieces and pictures in that taste, thirteen Landskips, two conversation pictures, bustoes and figures in Paris plaister and models, prints and books of prints, and drawings." Smibert's son, Nathaniel, pursued his father's art till his death in 1756. John Greenwood (born in 1727) was at this time painting; Richard Jennys, jr., and Nathaniel Hurd, engraving. In fact, the young Copley was reared in the midst of surroundings which impelled him to art; and an examination of his pictures compels us to believe that he was less an artist from overwhelming impulse than from circumstances. In 1767 Copley himself wrote, "I am now in as good business as the poverty of this place will admit. I make as much money as if I were a Raphael or a Correggio; and three hundred guineas a year, my present income, is equal to nine hundred a year in London."

The valuable catalogue of the American portraits painted by Copley, prepared by Mr. A. T. Perkins,* contains notes of some three hundred, executed before the artist left this country. These pictures are of the highest interest historically, and of very high rank artistically. But after Copley had visited Italy in 1774, and taken up his residence in London under the influence of West, he added to his profession of portrait painter that of historical painter. Vast pictures of Scriptural subjects were to the taste of the King, and consequently of the wealthy collectors. Equally large canvases were given to famous events, as the "Death of Chatham," the "Death of Major Peirson," the "Arrest of the Five Members," etc. But many of these pictures remained unsold, and the artist was evidently less prosperous than he would have been had he been less ambitious. From this memoir we learn that the main support of the family during the closing years of the artist was furnished by his learned and devoted son.

The few letters of Copley's herein given are unimportant, and in fact the reader will gain a much better idea of him from Cunningham's well-known 'Life,' brief as it is. So in regard to Lord Lyndhurst: the letters here copied, especially those narrating his visit to America in 1795, are pleasant to read, but they contain nothing of importance. They will be duly prized by his relatives, but the public will not find any cause for wonder that the Lord Chancellor was not deficient in politeness or affection to his nephews and nieces. It is, indeed, rather strange that none of the Boston literati have essayed a suitable memoir of Lyndhurst, certainly one of the most distinguished of all the sons of that goodly city. The subject is a tempting one, for he was eloquent, witty, learned, and successful. English writers protest against Lord Campbell's description of him, but the great party which he served has no longer, apparently, any interest in its past history.

We can only say in conclusion that the article, also by Mrs. Amory, which was printed in *Scribner's Magazine* for March, 1881, contains the essence of this volume. The book will be read by Bostonians, and will perhaps in an abridged form contribute to the reputation of the writer. It is an ungracious task to review a posthumous work, but in this case we presume that nothing more has been printed than the author intended, and its diffuseness is the chief weakness of the book.

On a Raft, and Through the Desert. By Tristram J. Ellis. 2 vols. London: Field & Tuer. Pp. 122, 128. Small 4to, illustrated. 1881.

THIS work, apart from the artistic merit of its numerous etchings, is chiefly interesting for its graphic descriptions of scenes witnessed in the author's search after subjects for an exhibition of paintings. It has the additional value of being the testimony of an eye-witness to the utter misery entailed by Turkish rulers, and the gradual but certain destruction which they are bringing upon their subject peoples. In this respect it should be read in connection with Mr. Tozer's account of his journey through Turkish Armenia, published last year. Both tell the same story of corrupt and inefficient government, of a wasted and despairing people, of famines frequently recurring and inevitable. In all parts of the Turkish Empire traversed by these gentlemen there were but two or three places which showed any signs of prosperity. In one of these, at least, Deir on the Euphrates, the cause was to be found simply in the fact that the Governor, Ali Pasha, was an "honest official." Nearly everywhere, however, both the population and the flocks and herds were decreasing at an alarming rate. Aleppo, for instance, contained more than 300,000 inhabitants fifty years ago; "now there are less than 100,000"; while in the winter of 1879–80 "as many as 240,000 sheep" perished under its walls. This winter was exceptionally severe in the East, and Mr. Ellis, on touching at Sidon, "found the picturesque little town in a great state of agitation. Three inches of snow had fallen—a thing never known or even heard of before. The people were alarmed lest its weight lying on the flat roofs of the houses should break them in. Many were the consultations they held with Mr. Eddy, the American missionary, who had kindly received me as guest, as to what ought to be done. They had such an exaggerated notion of its weight, that they were afraid of sweeping it into the street, lest in falling it should kill the passengers. . . . On account of the unaccustomed cold the people made a change in their clothing, and, as they were quite unused to snow, this took rather a surprising form: they put an extra handkerchief on their heads, and, taking their shoes off for fear they should be spoiled, walked about barefooted."

Our author's route was by steamer from Beyrut to Iskanderoon, "the most unhealthy spot in Syria, or perhaps in the world." Though he only spent one night there, it was long enough for him to have an attack of fever. From thence he went by Antioch and Aleppo to Diarbekir on the Tigris, the true starting-point of his adventurous journey. Just before they reached the city, he says: "We presently met a long line of shivering people that we learnt had been turned out of Diarbekir for fear of pestilence breaking out there. They were slowly making their way westwards, where they had heard there was plenty to eat." Apparently, the only method of descending the Tigris is by rafts, which are constructed in the following manner:

"A number of long, straight boughs of the poplar are lashed together with rope made of bark and fine osier-twigs, so as to form a grill with bars eight inches apart, of the full size of the raft. A few inflated skins are fastened to this, and it is floated out into the shallowest and stillest water available. The rest of the skins are pushed underneath the grill, and tied to it in rows, touching each other, so that the skins completely hide the water. . . . After the inflated skins have been fastened to the grill, the principal framework made from the trunks of poplar-trees is laid over it and firmly tied. Over the whole a flooring of osier-sticks is laid, and upon this the merchandise, or in my case a hut, is placed. As my raft consisted of only 120 skins, and measured about 12 feet by 9 feet, my hut had to be very limited in dimensions. It measured 6 feet by 7 feet 6 inches, and 5 feet 6 inches high. It had a floor of wood. The framework was made of stout branches of trees, and the covering of thick Kurdish felt, quite impervious to the weather. The layer of osier-branches on the raft is very difficult to walk on, as, unless one is very careful, a foot will slip through on to the skins. These give way on each side, and one's leg is in the water in a second. The skins immediately close round the ankle, and it requires the assistance of others to haul one's foot out."

It was with the greatest difficulty that Mr. Ellis could find two raftsmen who were willing to take him to Mosul, as the banks of the river between Diarbekir and this place were lined with a starving people, who stopped every raft in the hope of getting food. The deplorable condition of Mosul, however, had aroused the Government to decided action, and navigation was opened by the aid of soldiers and a mountain battery. Mr. Ellis's raft, containing six persons, was the first to descend the river after the blockade. The voyage was without incident, though there were numerous alarms of robbers. At one point "the scenery became very grand. The precipices grew bolder and higher, with lofty snow-covered mountains in the background. The windings of the river were so sharp that every now and then we seemed rushing headlong into a wall of rock. When within a few feet of it the banks suddenly opened to right or left, and we rushed down that gorge only to see another precipice just before us a few hundred yards off. It required all the skill of the raftsman to prevent the kelek from striking any of the sunken rocks, and, in spite of all precaution, half a dozen skins were broken during the day, each going off with a sudden and discomfiting pop." On his reaching Mosul he found the famine still raging with fearful intensity. "My servant sought in vain for edible bread. He brought in a specimen of the only stuff he could find; it was a cake five inches across and a quarter of an inch thick, made of fine chopped straw, with just enough flour to paste the bits together, and the price demanded was twopence." A few days later none even of this could be had at any price. Though trade generally was at a standstill, the armorers were very busy, as "every one was arming himself against the expected rising" of the poor. In the neighborhood of the bazaars the wretched people were gathered in great numbers.

"Many had sold all their clothes, and were lying, covered with sores and swarming with flies, on the ground, naked except for a dirty rag. They were fearfully emaciated, all their ribs and the articulations of the joints showing with the utmost distinctness. It seemed impossible that such people could live, and on noticing a crowd that had formed round a young man, who had been lying on his face without even a single rag, I went up to see what was the matter. I arrived just in time to see him turned over. He was quite dead. This happened close to a small stall for the sale of cooked gaubs, yet not a morsel had been given him, so selfish did want make even the usually charitable Arabs."

But for the daily distribution of soup at the English Consulate, chiefly through Lady Strangford's agency, many more would have perished.

At Bagdad Mr. Ellis found himself in the midst of entirely different scenes. He was invited to a feast celebrating the marriage of the principal consular dragoman, who was also one of the richest Christians in the city.

"I was surprised that none of the ladies present had dark complexions, being as fair as southern Europeans. Their out-door dress entirely protects them from the sun, and they seem to have none of that dark blood which is prevalent in India. The hair was black, with hardly any exception; the eyebrows and eyes were also dark, but the skin was frequently of an ivory whiteness, sometimes assisted by cosmetics—in fact, there was not a lady there who did not paint her eyes and eyebrows, and there were very few who did not also color their lips and cheeks. The eyes are painted in a way much in advance of ours in Europe. Besides the usual dark line under the lower eyelashes,

* Reviewed in the *Nation*, No. 436, Nov. 6, 1873.

the full thickness of the lower eyelid is stained or painted a deep brown or black, and frequently the upper eyelid is slightly darkened all over, graduated toward the edge. The effect is splendid at a distance, and after a time one gets so much used to seeing it, one scarcely notices the means by which the effect has been obtained. . . . My partner had two large cascades of jewels with pendants hanging down in front from each shoulder, besides half a dozen necklaces, enormous ear-rings, strings of coins in the hair, numerous bracelets and bangles, and rings covering all her fingers up to the first joint. Most of the other ladies were as profusely bedecked. The hair was carefully parted in the middle, and frequently cut in a crop over the forehead, the rest generally hanging down the back in plaits from one to twenty in number, each with a little gold or silver knob at the end."

The most direct way from Bagdad to Damascus, 450 miles distant, is by the desert, which is traversed by the post in ten or twelve days every fortnight. "The carriers are always Bedaween, and [during a service of forty years] scarcely a single instance is known of the letters failing to arrive at the other end." It should be said that all money and valuables are rigidly excluded. To the usual difficulties, however, arising from the scarcity of food and water for the camels, was added at this time the presence of large bands of hostile Bedaween. The alternative routes, however, were so fatiguing, and required so much time, that Mr. Ellis determined to brave the dangers of the desert. We have no space left to follow him in his wanderings by day and night as he successfully strove to elude the Anezeih, the especial friends of Lady Anne Blunt. Damascus was reached on the twenty-second day after leaving Bagdad, the 450 miles having become 750. Of Mr. Ellis's etchings we can only speak in terms of very high praise. The sketch-map accompanying these volumes, though drawn with sufficient accuracy, is disfigured by numerous (we have counted eight) gross typographical blunders. In every other respect the work is an unusually fine specimen of the book-maker's art.

John Quincy Adams. By John T. Morse, Jr. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1882.

No better choice could have been made for a beginning of the important series to be edited by Mr. Morse than the life of John Quincy Adams. Not only did Mr. Adams's great age, the extraordinary precocity and the no less extraordinary persistence of his public career, serve to connect the first days of the republic with the middle and later periods; not only was he Ambassador, Secretary of State, President, and (proudest of all) Representative in Congress; not only did his independence reject the badge of party; but, thanks to his invaluable diary, in the case of no other American statesman is the record so complete, the "human document" so ready to be summed up. Judgments will of course differ as to the greatness or wisdom of Adams, but they need neither await nor expect any further materials. That Mr. Morse's conclusions will in the main be those of posterity, we have very little doubt, and he has set an admirable example to his coadjutors in respect of interesting narrative, just proportion, and judicial candor.

If entire patriotism, incorruptibility, political fairness, prescience, initiative, and high physical and moral courage are the marks of statesmanship, it would be difficult to point to any of his contemporaries or successors who possessed them in an equal degree with Mr. Adams. Forty-eight hours after he had taken his seat in the Massachusetts Senate, as one of the Federalist majority in 1802, the first act of his legislative life was to propose that the Republican minority should enjoy a proportional representation in the Council (the Governor's body of advisors). Yet he had just been spitefully removed by President Jefferson from the position of Commissioner in Bankruptcy. As President he determined (and with Mr. Adams to determine was to act) to renominate every Federal office-holder "against whom there was no complaint which would have warranted his removal." Though desirous of a reëlection, he refused to heed those who exhorted him to make a clean sweep of his political opponents and fill their places with his friends. "An invidious and inquisitorial scrutiny into the personal disposition of public officers will creep through the whole Union, and the most selfish and sordid passions will be kindled into activity to distort the conduct and misrepresent the feelings of men whose places may become the prize of slander upon them." He rated liberty above the Union, and foresaw the dissolution which actually occurred. He menaced slavery with the "war power" long before civil war was imminent. He was almost the sole champion of free speech and the right of petition on the floor of Congress, for more than half a generation, maintaining a veritable state of siege against all the onslaughts of the slave power, until reinforcements could arrive and the defence be committed to younger though not more ardent or able combatants.

Mr. Adams entered the House of Representatives in the same year with the founding of the *Liberator*. The final campaign against slavery was thus simultaneously begun within and without Congress, yet neither ally quite recognized the other. In December, Mr. Adams presented fifteen petitions from Pennsylvania Quakers, asking for the abolition of slavery and the slave-trade in the District of Columbia. He expressed his opinion that the suppression of the slave trade might be a proper subject of legislation, but astonished the Abolitionists by giving notice that he hoped the other subject would not be discussed in the House, and that it would not receive his countenance. This seemed to the editor of the *Liberator* "a trimming policy—an attempt to court Southern popularity," the trifling of a "Northern doughface." Later on, this misunderstanding disappeared, but Mr. Adams always felt uncomfortable under the pressure of the Abolitionists. They were constantly urging him "to indiscreet movements" which would be his "irredeemable ruin in this world." Between them and the "adverse impulses" of his family his mind was "agitated almost to distraction," and he felt himself walking upon the edge of a precipice in every step that he took. Throughout his diary one remarks Mr. Adams's dread of "ruin," which seems paradoxical even when explained to mean a fear of losing the estimation of the public. His Congressional career, with vigilant hostility for his normal condition, as Mr. Morse happily phrases it, has the appearance of the most absolute indifference to public opinion or to future political preferment. Yet he was never as reckless as his enemies thought him, and, while never abating his abhorrence of slavery and contempt of slaveholders, weighed carefully every step, whether personal or official, as if it involved a calamity which we can even now hardly define.

The fact is that this eminent man, who had "a strong natural propensity to give offence and make enemies," who was "an adept in alienation—a novice in conciliation," and was doomed by nature to an austere isolation from his fellows, had an inextinguishable craving for their approval. When they gave him the Presidency, he felt it was only his desert, but he did not cease to exact of them a continuance of their approbation—not in the vulgar form of office, for nothing higher remained, and he cared nothing for the mode or measure of their good opinion. He did extort the respect even of his bitterest foes, but it brought him small comfort, for what he wanted was sympathy. The Abolitionists offered him this as they were able, but he could not reciprocate it. Their allegiance to duty was not more high or more single than his, but they voluntarily accepted the slight and hatred of their countrymen. He watched their progress like a prophet who "sees what he foresaw," but he had no desire to share their odium, or to descend with them into the fiery furnace. He congratulates himself (April 19, 1837—the date is significant) on having escaped it in the late session of Congress, and writes: "It behooves me well to consider my ways before I put myself in the way of being cast into it again. On the other hand," responds his Puritan conscience, "may God preserve me from the craven spirit of shrinking from dangers in the discharge of my duty!"

A Monograph of the Pribylov Group; or, The Seal Islands of Alaska. By Henry W. Elliott. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1881. Pp. 171. With 29 plates, 2 maps, and 12 sketch maps.

THIS is the second of the series of monographs published, or to be published, by the Census Bureau. Mr. Elliott, as a special agent of the Treasury Department, spent more than two years upon the Seal Islands, in 1872-3-4. He tells us that in former times the range of the fur-seal was very greatly extended. It was found in great numbers at many localities in the Antarctic, South Atlantic, and South Pacific oceans; but, being unprotected, it became the prey of the sealing fleets of all nations. As the result of the indiscriminate slaughter which ensued immediately upon their discovery, they were almost exterminated in the Southern hemisphere, and to-day, of the vast rookeries which once existed, there remains only a small one at Cape Corrientes, owned and protected by the Argentine Republic, and a few individuals scattered about along the coast, or upon rocky, uninhabited islets. The fur-seal in the North Pacific, on the other hand, has been found in large numbers in only two localities, the Pribylov and the Commander Islands. The latter are of much less importance than the former, the number of fur-seal taken there annually being less than one-half that taken on the Pribylov Islands, while they are probably worked much more nearly up to their maximum capacity.

The Pribylov islands (St. Paul and St. George) are mere islets in the heart of Behring Sea. For six months of the year they are surrounded by ice, and during the other six months are enveloped in dense fog. They are the breeding-grounds of hosts of seals, which congregate here in dense bodies along the shore, landing in June and remaining until August and September. Their total number upon the two islands is estimated by Mr. Elliott at 4,700,000. The first to arrive upon the islands are the mature males, who at once take up their positions upon the shore, to receive the females as they come. The seals are polygamous, each male having as large a harem as he can obtain by fair or foul means. The natural result is that the younger and weaker males are forced to remain bachelors, and, through fear of the older ones, keep aloof from the rookeries, and are found in droves or herds of thousands scattered along the shore. The adult male seal measures six and a half to seven and a quarter feet in extreme length, and, when in good flesh, weighs 400 to 600 pounds. The female is very much smaller, measuring only four to four and a half feet, and weighing only about one-sixth as much. The pups, when first born, weigh only three to four pounds, and measure twelve to fourteen inches in length.

The Alaska Commercial Company has, by lease, the monopoly of this amphibious stock-yard, under certain restrictions, the principal of which are that no female or pup seals shall be killed, except for food, and that the killing shall be restricted to 100,000 of the young males, or "bachelor seals," annually upon the two islands. These conditions are obviously to the advantage of the company; but Mr. Elliott makes a suspiciously labored argument to prove that the contract has been fulfilled in this respect, and almost casts doubt on his own estimate of the total number of seals on the islands by attempting to show that an annual product of 100,000 skins can be maintained without injury to the stock. That self-interest is not a guarantee against killing the goose that lays the golden egg, our lumber devastation abundantly demonstrates. The killing of the seals is done in June and July, for later than the latter month the skins are not in prime condition. It is conducted in this wise: A body of "bachelors" is surrounded by a dozen natives, who cut off their retreat to the sea, and then gently drive them inland to the killing ground, which is convenient to the village. Arrived there, the seals are killed by blows from clubs, with which their skulls are crushed. The skins are at once taken off and prepared for shipment.

Besides the fur seal, Mr. Elliot treats of the sea-lion and the walrus, and briefly of the feathered tribes which inhabit these islands in the summer. The volume is fully illustrated by maps and sketches made by the author. Of the latter, it is fair to say that while the figures of animals are admirably drawn, the artist has only a shadowy idea of perspective.

Anecdota Oxoniensia. Aryan Series, Vol. I., Part 1. Buddhist Texts from Japan, edited by F. Max Müller, M. A.

By this little publication, the Oxford University has initiated an enterprise of which the plan is wholly praiseworthy, and which may well enough grow into something really important. The intention is, as the prospectus informs us, "to publish materials, chiefly inedited, taken directly from MSS.," especially from those contained in the Oxford libraries; and there are to be four series, namely: Classical, Semitic, Aryan, and Mediæval-Modern. Taking advantage of the extraordinary vogue attaching to anything that bears the name of Prof. Müller, the University issues first a little Sanskrit text, of less than thirty pages (there is added a preface of eighteen pages), containing the *Vajrachedikâ*, or 'Diamond-Cutter,' a Buddhist philosophical treatise of the *Mahâyâna* or Great Vehicle (we might fairly render it "highfaluting") school. The edition is founded on manuscripts or block-books recently brought to light from three of the countries to which Buddhism long ago spread out of Northern India; that is to say, from China, Japan, and Tibet. Filled as these countries are with Buddhist monasteries, and priests, and nominal adherents, and abounding in voluminous translations of the Sanskrit Buddhistic literature, little understood and well-nigh unintelligible (for neither country has had the independence and mental force to produce a literature of its own, or to add anything but a chapter of decay to the history of this religion), it has long been surmised that there must be Sanskrit originals in some form still preserved there. Prior, however, to the recent complete opening of Japan, nothing came, or could be expected to come, from any attempt at discovery in that country; and China had proved equally barren.

Now the aspect of affairs is quite changed; and Müller finds reason to make profuse acknowledgment of the good offices of certain young Japanese, Buddhist priests, who had come to England to study the ancient languages of India, the dialects of their own sacred books, and who have helped to procure him knowledge or copies of such material as is still accessible among the Buddhists of Japan. And, as it never rains but it pours, sundry Sanskrit texts from China were found already within reach, in England, in the hands of returned missionaries; and others, it may be added, are known to exist in this country. Such discoveries, until the present stage of study of the Buddhist literature, would have been of little account; now, they are comparatively timely; for it is a matter of some degree of interest to see how the originals preserved in the furthest East compare in text with the same documents as found nearer home. But that is all, or nearly all. That we should gain by their aid any deeper insight into the origin and early history of this system of belief is not in the very least to be expected. In fact, largely for personal reasons easy to understand, the value of these discoveries has been vastly overrated. First communicated by Prof. Müller to the Asiatic Society, with an emphasis heightened by his non-attendance for many years, the story was told again at the last autumn's International Oriental Congress in Berlin, and its author, supported by his Japanese neophytes, laid the present little work on the table as his contribution to the interest of the occasion. And once more, on the way home to England, the same *cortège* exhibited itself for a like purpose before the Institute of France.

Seldom has so much *renommée* been won at so small an expense. One cannot but contrast it with a case or two of another character. By exceptional acuteness and energy, Prof. Roth, of Tübingen, caused the bringing to light in Cashmere, some years ago, of the new text of the Atharva-Veda. It is the most important find made for a generation, in Hindu literature, of which the credit is due so exclusively to an individual, and all specialists know it as such; but the great public has never been asked to look on and applaud. Of kindred merit was Burnell's discovery of a new and voluminous text belonging to the second, or Brâhmana, period in the religious history of India; but of that, too, the knowledge is limited to those whom it really concerns, and who are capable of estimating it at its true value.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott's Young Christian. A Memorial Edition, with a Sketch of the Author by one of his Sons. New York: Harper & Brothers.
Auerbach, B. Spinoza: a Novel. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Baker, T. Ueber die Musik der Nordamerikanischen Wilden. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.
Baker, G. M. The Reading Club and Handy Speaker. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Boker, G. H. The Book of the Dead. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.
Hughes, T. Tom Brown's School-Days. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 10 cents.
Madvig, J. N. M. Tulli Ciceronis De Finibus Bonorum et Malorum Libri Quinque. New York: Harper & Bros.
Metcalfe, F. Passio et Miracula Beati Olaui. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.
Newton, W. W. The Voice of St. John; or, The Story of the First Easter Day. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co.
Paine, Harriet E. Bird-Songs of New England. Boston: A. Williams & Co.
Perry, W. C. Greek and Roman Sculpture. 268 illustrations on wood. New York: Scribner & Welford.
Pebody, C. English Journalism, and the Men who have Made it. New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.
Pollard, Josephine. The Decorative Sisters. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $2.
Polly's Scheme. By Corydon. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.
Reiss, W., and Stübel, A. The Necropolis of Ancon in Peru. Part 5. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $7 50.
Scribner's Geographical Reader and Primer. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. 60 cents.
Seymour, T. D. Selected Odes of Pindar, with Notes. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.
Sime, J. Schiller. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.
Shepherd, P. First Aid to the Injured. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Shorthouse, J. H. John Inglesant: a Romance. New York: Macmillan & Co. $1.
Spofford, A. R. The American Almanac for 1882. New York: American News Co.
Subdued Southern Nobility: a Southern Ideal. New York: Sharps Publishing Co.
Three Hundred Outlines of Sermons on the New Testament. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Co. $1 50.
Underwood, F. H. James Russell Lowell: a Biographical Sketch. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1 50.
Verhandlungen des Ersten Deutschen Geographentages zu Berlin am 7. und 8. Juni 1881. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer; New York: L. W. Schmidt.
Warington, R. The Chemistry of the Farm. New York: Orange Judd Co.
Weeden, W. B. The Social Law of Labor. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1 50.
Wheatley and Delamotte. Hand-books of Practical Art: Art-work in Gold and Silver—Mediæval. Also, Art-work in Earthenware. New York: Scribner & Welford.
Wright, W. A. Life of King Henry the Fifth: Shakespeare Select Plays. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.

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HAVE READY:

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 13, 1882.

The Week.

THE President possesses a discretion in making up his Cabinet on which no reformer proposes to place any formal restriction. Cabinet offices are, and must be under every system, political offices, for the manner of filling which he cannot be held accountable anywhere except at the polls. He may fairly, in making them, consider various things besides a man's administrative capacity, because the Cabinet is, in a certain sense, a representative body. But in making appointments to subordinate offices, he is bound to consider nothing but administrative efficiency. President Arthur has acknowledged this himself, both in his letter of acceptance as Vice-President, and in his message to Congress last year, which contained by implication complete condemnation of the use of the subordinate offices of the Government to reward party services. Whatever, therefore, may be said for the manner in which he has filled the Cabinet, it is difficult to see what can be said for the appointment which he has just made to the Boston Collectorship. There is no point of view from which it will bear examination. The President said in his message that the tenure of office should be "stable." Well, the late Collector, Mr. Beard, had given universal satisfaction to the business community, and had brought the Custom-house to a high degree of efficiency; so that there was no administrative reason whatever for his removal. Nor was there any political reason which even a good party man ought to be willing to avow. Mr. Beard is undoubtedly the choice of the great body of the Massachusetts Republicans, and was carrying out to some extent that system of reform to which they gave emphatic approval in their platform of last year, which defined the reform as consisting in "the relief and exclusion of members of the legislative branch from the business of selecting officeholders in the department of administration"; in the prohibition of assessments on officeholders for party purposes; in appointment through competitive examination and a short term of probation; and "tenure of office during good behavior or for a reasonable fixed term." The Convention called on their representatives to support measures designed to bring this reform about, and denounced the system now in use as "aristocratic," and as affording the "fewest restraints against abuse," and as tending to "extravagance and inefficiency in the public business," and to "selfishness, corruption, and violence in politics." The Republican press of Boston, too, with one exception, strongly approves of the retention of Mr. Beard, and strongly reprobates his removal.

This one exception is the *Traveller*, which has long been in a position of bitter antagonism to the bulk of the Republican party, and represents nothing but the small clique which followed General Butler's lead until he went over openly to the Democrats. Since then it has been rabidly "Stalwart," but has mainly displayed its Stalwartism in ridicule and abuse of civil-service reform, and has surpassed every politician now in public life in its advocacy of the spoils system. It not only does not believe in competitive examinations or tenure during good behavior, but does believe in appointment for party services, and tenure during any kind of behavior which does not diminish a man's usefulness as an electioneering agent. Moreover, no paper, except the Whiskey-Ring organs of the West, has descended to such coarse abuse of everybody who makes any profession of a desire to improve the character of the public service. Well, the editor of this paper, Mr. Worthington, is to be the new Collector, in Mr. Beard's place. As an expression of indifference to the opinions not only of the Massachusetts delegation in Congress, who have not a word to say for him, but of the best part and by far the larger part of the Republican party of the State, which has over and over repudiated both his opinions and his associates, nothing equal to this has occurred since General Grant appointed Mr. Simmons, Butler's henchman, to the same place. In that case, as in this, neither the wishes of the Boston merchants, nor of the local party leaders, nor of the Republican press, nor of the Senators or Representatives of the State, had any weight with the President. It would be interesting to know from some qualified source under what system such an appointment is made. It cannot be the "spoils" system, properly so called, for in that case the Senators or Representatives would control the appointment; it cannot be the reformers' system, for Mr. Worthington glories in his contempt for it, and will make haste to destroy any vestiges of it he may find in his office; it cannot be the business system, for he knows nothing about Custom-house duties. What system is it, then?

It is obvious to everybody who remembers the events of last spring, that the President by his nomination of Worthington for the Boston Collectorship has placed Senators Hoar and Dawes, of Massachusetts, in exactly the position in which Senators Conkling and Platt were placed by the Garfield Administration when they resigned their seats. The long letter to the Governor in which they justified their course contains hardly any argument which the Massachusetts Senators might not now use. That Mr. Arthur felt the force of those arguments, and thought the resignation justifiable, we infer from his coming on to Albany and lobbying for a month to procure the vindication of Messrs. Conkling and Platt by re-election. We are forced, therefore, to ask whether he has meant by his recent action to compel Messrs. Hoar and Dawes to resign, or to confess that he was mistaken in thinking Messrs. Conkling and Platt did right in resigning. In either case we trust Messrs. Hoar and Dawes will not resign; but they can hardly avoid open opposition, however meekly they may feel, because in selecting Worthington for the Collectorship the President has made that nomination, of all possible nominations in the State, which most distinctly indicates his disregard for the formally expressed views of the Massachusetts Republicans on the question of civil-service reform. It is as if the Mayor of Boston, by way of revealing his opinion of the license and screen laws, were to place a renowned and audacious liquor dealer and old toper at the head of the Police Commission.

The President's veto of the Anti-Chinese Bill has been sustained by a vote of the Senate. The Pacific Coast is in a blaze of indignant excitement, and the Democrats, with an eye to the vote of the Pacific States, declare with exultation that now the record of the Republicans and of the Democrats respectively on the Chinese question is complete. Senator Miller, from California, has reintroduced the vetoed bill, changing only the period during which Chinese immigration is to be suspended, from twenty to ten years. This change, while to some extent meeting the President's most prominent objection to the bill, is quite insufficient to cover the case. Not only should any law passed by Congress upon this subject be consistent with the provisions of our treaty with China in point of form, but its substance should be such as to render the maintenance of friendly relations with China possible. The people of the Pacific States have lashed themselves into an unreasoning fury about the Chinese question, which has made them entirely blind to their own manifest interests.

The Californian papers give expression in various ways to this indignation. One says the veto is "appalling"; another says it is "arbitrary"; another says it has caused great "dejection"; and another that it has given "a shock of painful character," so painful, indeed, that "it is difficult to find language to describe it." The Pacific Slope is not easily appalled, and never remains long dejected, and gets over even the most powerful shocks with much rapidity. Of course reflection is not easy for persons in deep affliction, but it will come by and by; and when the time for it has come, we advise the Californians to read the resolution which Mr. Miller, their Senator in Washington, and the promoter of the Anti-Chinese Bill, introduced and got unanimously passed by the Republican State Convention in 1869. This resolution ran as follows:

> "Resolved, That we recognize the power of the general Government to restrict or prevent Chinese immigration whenever the welfare of the nation demands such a measure by terminating our commercial relations with China. But it should be considered that the adoption of non-intercourse in respect to China surrenders to Europe the commerce of the Empire of China. We believe that the general prosperity will be greatly enhanced by fostering commercial intercourse with Asia, and that the closing of our ports at this time against Chinese immigration would be most injurious to the material interests of this coast, a reproach upon the intelligence of the American people, and contrary to the spirit of the age."

Of course Mr. Miller was no wiser or more trustworthy then than he is now, when he is full of

anti-Chinese fury and fuss, but the facts have stood by him as he was in 1869 remarkably, for the Chinese immigration has not increased in the same ratio as the white population, while the Chinese trade has increased in much greater ratio. Our imports from China in 1870 amounted to $8,520,000; in 1881 they amounted to $22,358,908. Our exports to China amounted in 1870 to $420,000; in 1881 they reached $4,661,957.

President Arthur has now completed his Cabinet. As it stands it may be considered the Cabinet of his choice, for it is generally believed that Mr. Lincoln will remain at the head of the War Department at the President's request. Mr. Kirkwood leaves the Interior Department with the reputation of an upright and faithful officer. His successor, Mr. Teller, is a man of ability and brings to the discharge of his duties such an equipment as the experience of the Senate, of an active law practice in land and mining cases, and of Western life gives. He takes charge of a department which is an unwieldy conglomeration of incongruous parts, some of which would separately be sufficient to put even more than ordinary executive ability to a severe test. The duties upon which Mr. Teller enters are of the most complicated and thankless kind, and in the judgment passed upon his performance of them he will be entitled to a candid consideration of the great difficulties which every man in that position has to contend with.

Mr. William E. Chandler, who has been nominated as Secretary of the Navy, is undoubtedly a man of capacity, who may soon succeed in mastering the duties of the department. But in some respects his appointment borders upon the grotesque. What end President Arthur expects to accomplish by it is a matter of speculation. Mr. Chandler has so far been known mainly as a shrewd and not overnice political manager. Although thoroughly in sympathy with and profoundly versed in "Machine" methods, he has been counted as a member of a faction opposed to that to which the President belonged. If the President intended to make a concession to the "Garfield Republicans," for the purpose of "uniting the party," it will be thought that he might have selected a representative carrying more weight with the great mass of them. Mr. Chandler has been considered one of the principal lieutenants of Mr. Blaine in his political operations. If he continues to be such, he may form a connecting link between the Administration and that candidate for the Presidency, but he would be a very uncomfortable link for the President to have in his political family, supposing Mr. Arthur to cherish any aspirations himself. But if, as is rumored, Mr. Chandler has severed that intimate connection with Mr. Blaine, he will be regarded with distrust in that quarter, and it is difficult to see with whom he is to connect at all. We apprehend that the President, in attempting an exceptionally shrewd thing in the way of political management, has made an investment that will not pay. When in addition to all this it is remembered that Mr. Chandler was rejected by the Senate when nominated for the office of Solicitor-General about a year ago, and that the same Senate will now have to pass upon his nomination for a higher position, the case appears in a still more curious light.

The bill passed last week by the Senate for counting the electoral vote, originally drawn by Mr. Edmunds, probably guards as efficiently as any Congressional legislation can against a recurrence of such troubles as arose out of the electoral contest of 1876. It provides, in the first place, that the electors of each State shall meet and give their votes on the second Monday in January next following their appointment. The law at present requires them to meet on the first Wednesday in December, a date which gives only an interval of a month from the November election for the settlement of all disputes in each State, as to the persons entitled to certificates of election. In 1877, this interval was found to be altogether too small. The Senate bill now doubles it, and, having done this, proceeds to provide, or at any rate to suggest a way of providing, for the summary settlement of all disputes in any State by the State itself. The bill enacts that each State may, pursuant to its laws existing on the day fixed for the appointment of electors (this of course excludes retroactive measures passed after the popular election), determine, in the interval between their appointment and the meeting of the electors in January, any controversy concerning the appointment of any of them; and that the determination shall be conclusive evidence of their title, and shall bind the two Houses of Congress in counting the vote. It will be seen that the whole object of this bill is to throw upon the States themselves the responsibility of deciding all disputed questions as to their respective electoral votes, and to limit the work of Congress to the function devolved upon the two Houses by the Constitution—that of counting the votes sent in.

In an interview reported by the *Evening Post* on Friday, Postmaster Pearson commented with praiseworthy freedom on the recent letter of First Assistant Postmaster-General Hatton. Mr. Hatton said that President Grant's order forbidding postal clerks to hold municipal offices, and President Hayes's order forbidding Federal officers to take part in political work, did not "include employees of post-offices." What he meant was rather that under the present Administration these orders would not be applied to such persons, for the orders themselves are sufficiently explicit. The first one relates to postal employees in terms, and the second makes no exception in their favor. Mr. Hatton does, indeed, add, "unless the [municipal] employment interferes with the efficient discharge of their duties in the post-office." He decides that "under this limitation" a postal clerk may "accept the office of Alderman." The original order, however, makes no such qualification. It was not intended merely to prohibit neglect of Federal duty for other work in particular cases, but to lay down a general rule for the correction and prevention of a tendency to neglect, which is inevitable if such double employment is tolerated. There is also a political reason for the order. The inexpediency of blending diverse and perhaps conflicting public trusts in this way is recognized by the Constitution of this State, which provides (Article III.) that no member of the Legislature shall receive any civil appointment from the Governor or the Legislature during the time for which he shall have been elected, and that no person who, at the time of election, or within a hundred days of it, holds a civil or military office under the United States or any city government, shall be eligible to the Legislature. The State thus embodies a sound principle in its organic law, and the United States should at least respect it in practice.

As to participation in politics, Mr. Hatton holds that it is not only the privilege but the duty of a postal clerk or other Federal officer to exercise his "rights as a citizen" by promoting "the success of all public and political measures" which he regards as "beneficial to his country"—that is, to help the "grand old party" to "win victories." Does this mean that a Democratic clerk will be allowed to promote "political measures" which he believes to be beneficial, or that only Republican officers will be permitted to help their "grand old party"? Postmaster Pearson points out the "radical change in the civil-service regulations" which his superior officer's letter implies, and says that the duties of municipal or State and Federal offices simultaneously occupied "will naturally clash"; and while he cannot in the circumstances forbid the double employment, he will deal as the interests of the service require with any man who neglects his duties for any reason whatever. This may have the effect of practically prohibiting in this city what the Washington department in terms allows.

The scenes attending the burial of the late Jesse James on Thursday, at Kearney, Missouri, were very affecting. Crowds of people flocked together from all parts of the State to get a last sight of the dead bandit, who had, while alive, done so much to enable them to lead what they call in Boston "full" lives. Mrs. Samuels, Jesse's mother, was on the ground early, and talked without reserve to everybody. Her conversation naturally, under the circumstances, was colored with deep religious feeling, and she said to a reporter, who in his shy way ventured to express his sympathy with her in her bereavement, "I knew it had to come; but my dear boy Jesse is better off in heaven to-day than he would be here with us"—a sentiment from which no one will be likely to dissent. The officiating clergyman with much tact avoided dwelling on the life and character of the deceased, and improved the occasion by enlarging upon Jesse's chances of future improvement in Paradise, in a manner that would probably have struck Mr. James himself as rather mawkish. The wide-spread belief in the West that he has gone straight to heaven is a touching indication of the general softening of religious doctrines.

Dr. G. Halsted Boyland, of Baltimore, has contributed a letter to the Lamson case in which he mentions the following facts as tend-

ing to show that Dr. Lamson is not criminally responsible: first, that once, about twelve years ago, he went off into a "state of semi-syncope," and was at that time of "an anæmic temperament generally"; second, that on another occasion he displayed a violent and unreasonable temper; and third, that he prepared an anonymous letter containing groundless complaints about a surgical amphitheatre. He adds in a postcript, "I remember well his passion for experimenting with different chemicals." He modestly forwards this "on oath, in the interest of justice, for what it may be worth." Now, supposing that twelve years hence Dr. Boyland himself should commit a crime, could not this letter be used in the interest of justice, for what it is worth, to show that in 1882 he had begun to develop symptoms of mental weakness, and mental weakness, too, on the very subject of responsibility for crime? What is a better test of irresponsibility than symptoms of confusion in the patient's mind as to responsibility? Dr. Boyland probably does not himself intend to poison any one in 1895, but we throw out the hint to all physicians contemplating a career of crime as among the possibilities of the future—for what it is worth.

Bishop Elder, who presided at the late Catholic Provincial Council at Cincinnati, has written a long letter to the Cincinnati *Commercial*, explaining the pastoral letter issued by the Council, whose doctrines touching the sources of political power and the equality of men had alarmed that paper, as well as a great many others. The Bishops had denied that political power came from the people, or that men were equal either in mind or body—which led some editors to tremble for popular government, and for equality before the law, and for the authority of the Declaration of Independence. Bishop Elder now says that the inequality of men is a fact which stares us in the face; that everywhere around us we see differences in physical and mental power and in social advantages, and everywhere we see the many ruled by the few. There can be no harm, therefore, he argues, in describing what exists and has always existed, and this was all the Council did in the matter of equality. As to the source of power, he cites the Scriptural proposition that "the powers that be are ordained of God," in support of the doctrine of the Council that power does not come from the people, and points to the difference between the duties of officers and those of the people, in support of the proposition that rulers have rights which the ruled have not. All this is really very harmless word play. Power always and everywhere originates with those who have it. If the priests have it, it originates with the priests; if the aristocracy, with the aristocracy; if the people, with the people. Nobody ever held power which he had got in the wrong place. We shall be in danger from the pastoral letters of Catholic theologians whenever they seem likely to persuade the people to give up the elective system; but until this comes to pass, an opinion that power comes from some place else than the popular vote, is as harmless as an opinion that it comes out of a hole in the ground.

During the week the Treasury called for redemption $15,000,000 more United States 3½ per cent. bonds, which makes $90,000,000 called since last November. This gives some idea of the amount of the surplus revenues of the Government, and shows also how rapidly investment-money is being driven from United States bonds into other securities. No gold was exported during the week, although foreign exchange ruled most of the time near to the point at which gold must leave the country. The disbursements of the Treasury for interest and called bonds were heavy, and the domestic exchanges were generally in favor of this city. The method, however, of the banks in making a statement of average condition for six days, instead of actual condition at the close of the week, accounts for an apparent decrease in their surplus reserve. The money market was throughout very easy for borrowers, and at declining rates. At the Stock Exchange the course of prices for speculative stocks was downward, although varied with "sharp rallies" from time to time. United States 4 and 4½ per cent. bonds advanced to the highest prices ever paid for them—119¾ and 115⅞ respectively. All the foreign money markets continue very easy. Silver bullion advanced in London to 52½d. per ounce, and the bullion value here of the 412½-grain silver dollar to $0.8855.

The Imperial Government of Austria has done a thing which if it had been done at the right moment by Prince Bismarck, would have saved Germany much shame, and if it had been done by the Czar a year ago, would have spared Russia great material loss and deep disgrace in the eyes of the civilized world. There is just as much and just as little reason for anti-Semitic movements in Austria as there is in Germany or Russia. But the Imperial Prime Minister, Count Taaffe, has nipped them in the bud by issuing stringent orders forbidding all anti-Jewish demonstrations, and declaring the duty and the resolution of the Government to protect the rights of every subject, regardless of politics or religion. In Germany the Jew-baiting movement has been suppressed by public opinion. The last elections showed that the disreputable disturbance had been caused by a very small minority of the people, who stopped their noise as soon as their feebleness was exposed. In Russia it will continue as long as the Government maintains an attitude leaving it uncertain on which side its sympathies are. In Austria and Germany people are sincerely ashamed of it, but in Russia they are not.

Prince Gortchakoff has finally retired from office—we believe for the third time. His advanced age and long term of service have kept him on the point of retiring ever since he repudiated in 1870 the restrictions put on Russia in the Black Sea by the Treaty of Paris. This marked the close of that process of self-examination, not sulking, to which Russia, he said, in a famous *mot*, subjected herself after the Crimean war. It marked, too, her reappearance on the stage of European politics, and her readiness for any venture which might offer itself. For this rehabilitation the Empire was indebted to nobody so much as to the old diplomatist who is now disappearing, for this must be his last final departure. He belonged to the Metternich school of diplomacy, which plumed itself on its finesse, its reticences, its evasions, and its skill in the use of social influences, and has, since the Emperor Nicholas's death and the rise of Bismarck, had to play a game which was a little too novel for an old man. Bismarck's brutal frankness and truthfulness have in fact worked a change in the methods of the art to which nobody who had learnt it in the old days before 1859 could find it easy to adapt himself; and the Prussian was undoubtedly too much for Gortchakoff in the long game which preceded Sadowa. The conditions of official life in Russia, too, since Nicholas's death have considerably changed. The good old times, which De Maistre describes, in which envoys and generals had nobody to account to but the sovereign, and no place in which they needed to stand well but the Court, have come to an end in Russia as well as elsewhere. The great advantage which the Continental diplomatists used to enjoy over the English in having no public behind them, has been lost even by the Russian Foreign Office. Gortchakoff's "august master"—the Russians are now the only diplomatists who make free use of the phrase—is really not his master any longer. There is behind the throne a power greater than the throne, and which the throne is vainly trying to shake off, but whose will is still somewhat inscrutable, and which a man of Gortchakoff's training could never have effectively served. The world he leaves is in fact a new world, made by steam, electricity, and, though last not least, by dynamite and other explosives.

There can be but little question that the exhibition recently made of his treasury by the Sultan to General Wallace and Mr. Phelps was the result of his recent investigation of American matters through the former of these gentlemen. He doubtless heard of the exhibition of his securities made by Jay Gould, and thinks Gould is a great pasha, of unusual skill in "squeezing" the taxpayers, and in all sorts of ways getting money out of people against their will, which is now the art which the Sultan estimates most highly. As he has several times within the last year come near being out of mutton for the palace, owing to inability to pay a long-standing butcher's bill, and as he can borrow no more from the "Galata bankers," he probably thinks, from Jay Gould's example, that by merely "showing his securities" he can revive his credit. This will hardly do in his case, however, because he has no stock market to work on. Our advice to him is to get Gould to Constantinople, and put him at the head of the Ministry of Finance. We promise him that he will in three months open his eyes as to the resources of his unfortunate empire. Even Osman Pasha, the old ruffian who secures payment of his salary by knocking down the Treasury messengers and rifling their bags, thinks the Turks are a used-up people, but Gould would soon show him his mistake.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE President sent to the Senate on Wednesday a report of the Secretary of State relating to the American citizens imprisoned in Ireland, from which it appears that all but three of the prisoners have been set at liberty in response to the request of Mr. Lowell. Mr. Frelinghuysen further states that the negotiations have been carried on for some time "in a spirit of entire friendship." The London *Times* says the Government hold all persons resident in Ireland liable to British law, and to be treated as British subjects, and that the naturalized subjects of the United States who have been released, were released for reasons entirely unconnected with their citizenship.

The President sent a large batch of nominations to the Senate on Thursday, among which were those of Senator Henry M. Teller, of Colorado, to be Secretary of the Interior, William E. Chandler, of New Hampshire, to be Secretary of the Navy, William H. Hunt, the Secretary of the Navy, to be Minister to Russia, and Roland Worthington, to be Collector of Customs at Boston. The last nomination has been received with a general feeling of disapproval throughout the country.

The Senate took up the Chinese Bill on Wednesday, and, on a motion to pass it over the veto, sustained the veto by a vote of 27 yeas to 21 nays.

The bill to fix the day for the meeting of the electors of the President and Vice-President, and to provide for and regulate the counting of votes for those officers, and for the decision of questions arising therefrom, was passed by a *viva-voce* vote by the Senate on Thursday.

The Senate has passed a bill which opens the entire reservation recently occupied by the White River and Uncompahgre Utes to settlement. This tract of land, amounting to nearly 10,000,000 acres, is declared by the bill to be public land, subject to disposal in accordance with the regulations of the Ute Bill of the last Congress.

Senator Dawes introduced a bill into the Senate on Thursday, appropriating $50,000 to provide for a deficiency in the subsistence of the Cheyenne and Arrapahoe Indians. He submitted a telegram from General Pope, showing the necessity for an immediate appropriation to save these Indians from starvation, and explained that the exhaustion of the regular appropriation had been caused by a rise in the price of beef, the principal element in Indian subsistence, and that an outbreak was threatened if the deficiency was not provided for. The Senate promptly passed the bill, but the House (by way of rebuke for encroachment on its prerogative) threw it out, and at once passed a bill of its own of the same tenor.

A resolution was passed by the Senate on Tuesday authorizing Lieutenant-Commander Sigsbee, United States Navy, to accept a decoration from the Emperor of Germany, and Senator Hawley to accept decorations tendered to him, as President of the Centennial Commission, by the Governments of the Netherlands, Spain, and Japan.

The House passed the Army Appropriation Bill on Wednesday, and the Committee on Elections adopted, by a vote of 7 to 2, a resolution declaring that E. W. Mackey was duly elected and entitled to a seat as Representative from the contested Eleventh district of South Carolina.

The debate on the bill to create a tariff commission continues in the House. The subject has been almost exhausted by the speeches which have already been made upon it, but there are over a hundred more members who have given their names to the Speaker as wishing to speak for or against the bill.

The House Committee on Education and Labor has directed Representative Sherwin, of Alabama, to draft a bill to be submitted to the Committee, recommending that an appropriation of $10,000,000 be made to be expended throughout the United States for educational purposes in accordance with the ratio of illiteracy.

The accounting officers of the Treasury, who were constituted a committee on the question of Government supplies, have made a report to Secretary Folger. They recommend that the existing laws be so amended as to do away with all advertising for proposals in the case of necessary articles of small value, and in the case of articles in which there cannot possibly be any competition. It is probable that Secretary Folger will bring the matter to the attention of Congress.

The limited appropriation remaining at the disposal of the Bureau of Steam Engineering, and the expense of fitting out certain ships at the navy-yards at New York, Boston, and Mare Island, California, have made it necessary to suspend work at all the other navy-yards until the next appropriation becomes available. Many artisans and laborers have thus been thrown out of employment.

The Hydrographic Office at Washington has just perfected a new circumpolar chart showing the course of the *Jeannette*, the location of the islands discovered by Commander De Long, the boundaries of Wrangel Island, as recently determined by the United States ship *Rodgers*, and other valuable data, embraced, for the first time, in a chart of the Polar regions.

The report of the Naval Board that examined the *Jeannette* at San Francisco before she sailed in 1879 has just been made public. The report says, among other things, that it was not possible to make the *Jeannette* "particularly adapted" for the service for which she was intended. It is regarded as singular that Commander De Long should have been willing to start in the *Jeannette* in the face of this report, as he had authority to buy a vessel that would be fit.

Secretary Hunt has received a despatch from Engineer Melville, dated Yakutsk, January 27, in which he says that he has completed all necessary arrangements for supplies and outfits for six months, and will "leave this place for Bulun to-day, thence to the Lena delta to continue the search for missing comrades. The provision train is four days in advance of me, and, unless some unforeseen circumstance arises, I shall be at the Lena delta before March 1. No mails pass between Bulun and Yakutsk between March 8 and October; therefore no anxiety need be felt for the safety of myself and party for that time."

Reports received by the Agricultural Department at Washington show a hopeful prospect for good crops in the South. There is a general increase in the acreage of spring wheat and oats, and a slight decrease in that of cotton.

The Secretary of War has not yet given out his report in the case of Sergeant Mason. It is said, however, that he has recommended a mitigation of the sentence to four or five months' confinement in the regular guard-house, to forfeit all pay due or which may become due to him, and to be dishonorably dismissed from the service.

Mrs. Scoville has filed a petition in the County Court at Chicago, praying that a conservator be appointed for the person and estate of Charles J. Guiteau. She alleges that he is possessed of copyrights, manuscripts, etc., valued at several thousand dollars, and has a large income from the sale of photographs and autographs, and that by reason of his insanity he is incompetent to take charge of this property. She alleges also that he is negotiating a sale of his body to be preserved after death.

In the Criminal Court at Washington on Monday Judge Wylie rendered his decision on the motion to quash the indictments in the Star-route conspiracy cases. He decided that the indictments were good and sufficient and must stand. It is believed that the cases will be brought to trial in May. The prosecution are confident that the same great array of evidence that secured the indictments will secure conviction, and the defence is said to be growing despondent. S. W. Dorsey having left Washington for New Mexico, his recognizance was declared forfeited and a bench-warrant issued for his arrest. Mr. Ker, of Philadelphia, who drew up the indictments, said on Monday night that if Dorsey did not surrender himself no effort would be spared to find him, and, in conclusion, said, "We have relied on Colonel Ingersoll's honor, and he has promised to produce his clients in court."

After Judge Wylie's decision in the Star-route cases, on Monday, Colonel Totten, counsel for the defendants, stated that in the cases of Brady and Turner he had certain pleas of abatement to file, to the effect that, pending the time the Grand Jury were finding the indictment, certain persons other than the District Attorney and his assistants had free access to the Grand Jury room, and laid before them pamphlets and other ex-parte evidence; but the court decided not to go into the matter.

Mr. George M. Chilcott, of Pueblo, has been appointed United States Senator from Colorado, to succeed Mr. Teller, recently appointed Secretary of the Interior.

The Senate and House Executive Committees of the Democratic Congressional Campaign Committee met in Washington, on Monday, and elected General Rosecrans permanent chairman of the Joint Committee.

The Republicans carried Rhode Island on Wednesday by 4,583 majority and elected a Legislature that will return Mr. Anthony to the Senate.

A correspondence between Wharton Barker, a prominent Independent Republican of Pennsylvania, and Mr. Mitchell, Senator from that State, has been published. Mr. Barker thinks that the Republican party will no longer be able to control Pennsylvania unless something be done to emancipate it from the control of the "Machine" headed by Senator Cameron, and writes to ask Senator Mitchell to take some steps in the matter. The latter suggests a conference of regulars and independents.

The Readjuster measure for redistricting Virginia for members of Congress, so as to give that party eight out of the ten members of Congress to which the State is entitled, passed the House of Delegates on Saturday.

Governor Cameron, of Virginia, has commuted the sentence of the oyster dredgers, who were recently convicted of violating the oyster laws of the State, and sentenced to one year each in the Penitentiary. The captains are to be confined for sixty days in the County Jail, and all the seamen, except one, are pardoned.

The Oregon Democratic Convention have adopted resolutions demanding the legislative regulation of railroads and the reform of the tariff. The resolution on the Chinese question states that the President's veto of the Chinese Bill is a public misfortune, and that it treats with "contemptuous derision" the protests and appeals of the entire Pacific Coast. In behalf of the people of Oregon the veto is disapproved and condemned.

The Mormon spring conference at Salt Lake City adjourned on Sunday. The Mormons purpose hereafter not to trade with Gentiles. A secret meeting of business men was held on Saturday, and stringent pledges to that effect were signed.

The striking operatives of Fall River as represented in the Spinners' Union have published a temperate and sensible address, in which they deplore the wide separation of capital and labor in the United States, and assert that only "foolish obstinacy and foolish pride" keep them apart. There is no material change in the condition of things at Lawrence; but very few of the strikers have returned to work.

M. de Struve, the new Russian Minister at Washington, was formally presented to the President, on Tuesday, by the Secretary of State.

The boiler of the steamer *Bella Mac* exploded near Brownsville, a few miles below Milwaukee, on Friday, killing six men and injuring many others.

Jumbo, the elephant, arrived in New York by the steamer *Assyrian Monarch* on Sunday. He behaved well on the journey, and seems to be none the worse for it.

FOREIGN.

A Russian imperial ukase has been published, stating that in deference to the wish of Prince Gortchakoff, the Czar has relieved him of the functions of Minister of Foreign Affairs, on account of his shattered health and advancing years. The Prince still retains the dignity of Imperial Chancellor and member of the Council of the Empire. By a second ukase, M. de Giers, who has been Assistant Minister of Foreign Affairs for the last five years, was promoted to succeed Prince Gortchakoff. This appointment is looked upon in Berlin as an "eminently pacific symptom," and it is thought that it will do more to restore confidence regarding the intentions and policy of Russia than all the friendly assurances that have been hitherto received from St. Petersburg. In Constantinople, also, the appointment has given great satisfaction.

Because of the activity of the Nihilists of Moscow, the question of holding the coronation of the Czar elsewhere is being seriously discussed.

A despatch from Vienna to the London *Daily News* said that the Russian authorities took great precautions against a renewal of the anti-Jewish disturbances at Easter. Over 2,000 persons with unsatisfactory papers were expelled from Kieff. A despatch to London on Friday said that grave apprehensions have been felt in Warsaw of a renewal of the outbreak against the Jews. Placards were posted threatening them, and causing great terror among the Jewish population. The Government ordered the shops to be closed, and took military precautions against an outbreak. Easter passed off in comparative quiet, however, and no serious disturbances have as yet occurred. Jewish immigrants from Russia and Poland continue to arrive in the United States in considerable numbers.

Count Taaffe, President of the Austrian Council and Minister of the Interior, has issued positive orders forbidding all meetings avowedly for the purpose of anti-Semitic demonstrations, and maintaining the duty of the Government to protect the rights of every subject regardless of politics or religion.

A meeting of the Mansion House Committee, on behalf of the suffering Jews of Russia, was held in London on Thursday. A telegram from Mr. Laurence Oliphant, one of the honorary commissioners of the fund on the Continent, was read, which stated that 1,221 refugees had already registered at Brody, in Galicia. The committee's fund was reported to have reached £66,000.

The condition of Ireland continues serious. The Coercion Act seems to be an admitted failure, and the Radicals are asking for the removal of Mr. Forster, the Chief Secretary for Ireland. Outrages of the most brutal kind continue. Mr. Smythe, a Westmeath landlord, who, while returning from church a week ago last Sunday with some ladies, was fired at, but who escaped while one of the ladies was killed, has written a violent letter to Mr. Gladstone, in which he "lays the guilt" of his sister-in-law's murder at his door, and says that "the terrorism existing under the protection of your police is so tremendous that I know there are but few who would venture to denounce the assassins had they seen them. Were they to do so their lives would certainly be forfeited, while the prisoners would almost as surely escape after the farce of a trial by jury." Mayor Traill, a resident magistrate of County Mayo, draws an interesting picture of the state of the county in a letter. He says he has often been threatened, and has been warned that his assassination was not only planned but actually paid for. He never travels without the escort of two armed policemen and an armed groom, and his escort search all the plantations, hedges, etc., on the route; and the neighborhood of his house is patrolled all night by an armed guard, who are provided with dogs to aid in the search for explosives and assassins.

Mr. Parnell was released for a week on parole on Monday, in order that he might visit a sister in Paris whose child had died. It was not generally known that he had only been released on parole, so the event was celebrated with great enthusiasm in parts of Ireland.

In conversing with a friend on his way to Paris, Mr. Parnell said he had little to complain of in regard to his treatment in prison. He and his imprisoned followers regarded the recent outrages with the greatest indignation, and he expressed the belief that the state of things in Ireland would improve if the Government introduced a bill to relieve the poor tenants of arrears of rent, and amended the clauses of the Land Act regarding purchase, so as practically to assist tenants to become owners of their farms—a result which he thought would go a long way to restore peace and order.

The "no-rent" disturbances seem to have reached Scotland. Lord McDonald having sent summonses to twenty of the tenants on his estate of Skye, for non-payment of rent, the process-server was seized by a mob and warned not to return, and the summonses were burnt. The no-rent agitation is said to be rapidly spreading on the island.

It is said that MacLean, who attempted to assassinate the Queen at Windsor, will be tried at Reading "with unusual pomp."

A meeting was held at the Mansion House in London, the Lord Mayor presiding, on Wednesday, with a view to taking steps to raise a fund for assisting unemployed working people to emigrate to Canada. Sir Alexander T. Galt, the Canadian High Commissioner, announced that Canada offered to give £1 a head for certain families to which the Canadian Pacific Railway Company offered employment. It was announced that £6,000 would be required to start the scheme.

The first of a series of large parties of colonists for Manitoba arrived in Halifax on Saturday. The party consisted of upward of 500 persons, and carried with them sums of money aggregating £500,000.

The Easter Volunteer Review came off at Portsmouth, England, on Monday. The Prince of Wales, the Duke of Cambridge, and Sir Garnet Wolseley witnessed it.

The returns issued by the Board of Trade show that during the month of March British imports increased, as compared with the same month last year, by £1,200,000, and that British exports increased £1,900,000.

Dean Bradley has issued a statement concerning the memorial window to Dean Stanley, subscribed to by Americans. He says that the list of subscribers thoroughly bears out the statement of the Rev. Phillips Brooks as to its widely representative character, and cites the names of our elder poets, including the late Mr. Longfellow.

Dante Gabriel Rossetti, the well-known English poet and painter, died on Tuesday, at the age of fifty-four.

Señor Sagasta, President of the Spanish Council, in replying to a deputation of Catalonian merchants, reiterated his refusal to make any modification of the commercial treaty with France. The Ministry count on 250 votes in the Chamber of Deputies in favor of the treaty. A meeting organized by Catalonian workmen was held in Madrid on Friday, at which free trade was denounced. It was declared that the treaty between France and Spain would be ruinous to Spanish industry, which the Government ought to foster by imposing high duties on foreign products. An anonymous proclamation has been circulated encouraging the workmen of Barcelona to persevere in their attitude of opposition to the Franco-Spanish treaty. Confidence has, however, been restored in a great measure in the disturbed districts, and on Tuesday most of the shops and manufactories at Barcelona which were closed on account of the recent disturbances, were reopened.

A syndicate of merchants has addressed a petition to the Spanish Cortes, praying that the Treaty of Commerce with France be ratified only after an inquiry has been made by a committee into the industrial condition of the country. The improved state of affairs in Catalonia is said to be due to a report that the Government will consent to an amendment to the treaty providing that it may be terminated at the discretion of either Government.

A despatch from Vienna says that the "bitterly cold weather and frosts now prevailing will, it is feared, greatly injure the crops. Fruit trees, vines, and young wheat in Rumania are almost entirely destroyed."

An official despatch published at Vienna states that the Austrian troops have completed the operations intended to clear the northern part of Crivoscie of insurgents. The Austrians advanced until they sighted the Montenegrin cordon, and saluted the Montenegrin troops.

The Porte, replying to the complaints of Bulgaria of the movement of Turkish troops near the frontier, stated that Bulgaria was aware of the efforts which are being made to produce a revolutionary movement, and should not be surprised at the Porte's endeavor to guard against them.

The Sultan of Turkey on Wednesday granted to General Wallace and Mr. Phelps, Ministers to Turkey and Austria respectively, the permission, now rarely given, to inspect the imperial treasury.

A semi-official newspaper in Constantinople says that the Porte has received a despatch announcing the movement of French troops toward the Tripolitan frontier, which inspires doubts of the value of the pacific declarations of France. The Porte proposes to raise the effective force of Turkish troops in Tripoli to 30,000.

News from Algiers announces that the French column has overtaken Bou Amena's forces south of Fighig, and completely defeated them, capturing his provision train and twenty-six of his women. Almost all of the fighting men were killed or captured. Bou Amena himself escaped. Nearly all of the insurgents in the south of Tunis have taken refuge in Tripolitan territory. A despatch received from Tunis on Tuesday stated that the Wergama tribe, inhabiting the Tripolitan frontier, have petitioned to be allowed to lay down their arms, and it is believed that this will hasten the time when the various other tribes will submit.

The French Government will despatch eight different expeditions to take observations on the transit of Venus on December 6, four of which will be stationed in the southern, and four in the northern hemisphere.

M. Paul Bert, ex-Minister of Worship, has been elected a member of the French Academy of Sciences.

Prince Bismarck, in reply to congratulations on his birthday extended by M. de Saburoff, the Russian Ambassador, wrote as follows: "It makes me happy to be able to inaugurate a new year of life by an expression of sentiments, personal and political, which facilitate the work in which we are both engaged."

A despatch from Cairo says that a plot has been discovered to assassinate Arabi Bey, Minister of War, and that many Circassian officers have been arrested in consequence.

TUESDAY, April 11, 1882.

BRIGANDAGE AND PIETY.

THE extraordinary doings in Missouri concerning the death and burial of Jesse James, the noted robber and murderer, have attracted a great deal of attention from the press, though hardly as much as they merit. James was a successful brigand of the worst kind for nearly twenty years. He served as a guerilla in the war, and when peace was concluded became a common bandit of the Greek or Italian type, but without holding his victims to ransom, there being no proper facilities in this country for transporting captives. His operations, however, were extended over an area, and conducted with a boldness, which make the most famous of the Greeks or Italians seem a petty knave. He robbed all along the Mississippi, from Minnesota down nearly to Louisiana, and some of his greatest exploits were performed in broad daylight, and not on lonely roads, but in the streets of small towns, and in business hours, and were frequently accompanied by murder. In fact, when we consider the extent of country over which his jurisdiction extended, the character of his crimes, the long period during which he enjoyed impunity, and the smallness of the force with which his blows were struck, we must admit him to be the greatest robber of either ancient or modern times, surpassing in many respects both the condottieri and the buccaneers.

The manner of his death, too, has something unprecedented about it. All the great robbers of old times, and of other countries, lived in caves, or in mountain fastnesses, to which it was difficult for troops to pursue them, or in strong castles, or kept the sea in long, low, rakish black schooners. James, however, lived in a comfortable house, surrounded by a loving family, and went off on his expeditions apparently as a business man goes off to collect debts or to solicit orders. Moreover, although the State of Missouri had for long years been trying to arrest him, it was never able to do so, and in order to compass his death the Governor had to resort to the means by which the Venetian Council of Ten and other mediæval powers occasionally tried to get rid of obnoxious foreign sovereigns. He hired an assassin to go and kill him unawares, so that James really died what may be called a royal death. He fell as Henry IV., and William the Silent, and Admiral Coligny fell, the victim of the hostility of a great community who were unable to get the better of him in open fight, but felt that his taking off was necessary to their safety and prosperity. The Governor in fact justifies his own course in language which might have been used by Elizabeth after the defeat of the Armada. He describes the assassination of James as the relief of the State from a great hindrance to its prosperity, and as likely to give an important stimulus to real-estate speculation, to railroad enterprise, and to foreign immigration.

"If you want to know the value of the deed," he said, "ask the managers of banks; ask the owners of land in that part of the State; ask the managers of the many railroads constructed in this State; ask the ticket agents at St. Louis, Kansas City, Omaha, and Chicago; ask the hotel keepers at St. Louis and Kansas City; ask the property-holders and real-estate agents at Kansas City and in Jackson County; ask those who own land in Clay and Platte; hear all their responses, and then say it was not a good deed in behalf of law, order, and general prosperity."

James's relations to the church, too, had a curiously mediæval flavor about them. He was the son of a Baptist minister, but his career apparently did not strike his mother, or any of his family or neighbors, as inconsistent with the possession of a stock of fundamental and ineradicable piety. When he died, she rejoiced in the thought that he had gone to heaven. Two Baptist ministers performed the funeral services, and a vast concourse of friends, including the sheriff, who was deeply affected, followed the remains to the grave, not sorrowing, apparently, as those who are without hope. In fact, the James territory, which includes the adjacent corners of four States, is a region which seems closely to resemble in its religious and moral condition a Frankish kingdom in Gaul in the sixth century. Every one knows how very early in the history of the Church the tendency to make faith take the place of right living began to show itself. St. James had to warn the very first generation of Christians that pure religion and undefiled consisted not in sound belief, but in good deeds. The difficulty of making people show their faith by their works has beset Christianity ever since. Barbarians rapidly accepted the Christian dogmas, and took eagerly to the rites and ceremonies of the Church, but they never were quite ready to accept its views about behavior. Gregory of Tours, in his most instructive chronicle, tells some very grotesque stories of the difficulties which the bishops had in Gaul in his day in refusing the communion to notorious evil livers. One Frankish chief—a great robber and cutthroat—insisted on having it administered to him, and the bishop had to let him have it, in order to save life, for he threatened to kill all the other communicants if he was not allowed to partake also. The comfort the Italian and Greek brigands find in the external observances of their creed, while committing the most atrocious crimes, is now an old story. A sceptical or agnostic robber is in fact unknown in eastern or southern Europe.

The devout brigands all belong to the Catholic or Greek Church, which has always greatly exalted the value of external worship and pious credulity, and thus furnishes only too much temptation to those who are ready to believe without limitation for the purpose of postponing any change in their habits. The Protestant Church has been much more exacting in the matter of conduct, and in fact has afforded in its teaching but few of the refuges for easy-going sinners which its great rival provides so plentifully. But the fight between faith and right-living nevertheless rages within its borders unceasingly, and not always to the advantage of the latter. It is not only in the James district in Missouri that one comes on the strange compromises by which a certain external devoutness is made to atone to the conscience not only for spiritual coldness, but for long and persistent violations of the fundamental rules of morality. Startling as are these revelations about the state of society in that part of the country, they are hardly more startling, everything considered, than the frequency with which our defaulters and embezzlers in this part of the world prove to have been vestrymen, deacons, Sunday-school superintendents, and prominent church members during long years of delinquency and perfidy. There is nothing new about it at all. It is, in fact, as we have said, simply another phase of one of the oldest struggles in the moral world. But the James story derives much freshness from the fact that he is probably the first Protestant who managed to keep his standing good in the local church and retain the affection of his pastor, and maintain a happy home, while openly pursuing robbery and murder as a profession.

THE "DUNGEON" CORRESPONDENCE.

THE official correspondence in the Irish "dungeon" cases has been communicated to Congress by Mr. Frelinghuysen. The correspondence begins in the Blaine period, and the first letter is an excellent specimen of the turgid, lurid, but somewhat obscure rhetoric in which Mr. Blaine was accustomed to open his diplomatic controversies. He ought in common courtesy to have begun by finding out whether any American citizens had been imprisoned under the Coercion Act, but this was much too tame a method for his ardent and impressionable nature. He accordingly assumed at the very outset that the Act had been applied to naturalized citizens of the United States "whose business relations may render necessary their presence in Ireland," or "whose filial instincts and love for kindred may have prompted them to revisit their native country," and then goes on to describe the manner in which these industrious and affectionate creatures ought to be tried, instead of pointing out the absurdity of trying them at all. They should, he said, "immediately upon arrest be informed of the specific crime or offence on which they were held, and be offered an opportunity for a speedy trial before an impartial court and jury," all of which is "essential to every criminal prosecution." But such naturalized citizens as he described and was writing about ought not to have been arrested or tried in any manner whatever, and it was a gratuitous piece of discourtesy to assume that the British Government had done such a thing, or would think of doing it. The decencies of diplomatic intercourse, to say nothing of anything higher, required Mr. Blaine to assume that if the British Government had arrested any naturalized citizen, it had some honest reason for believing that he had not returned to Ireland simply to revisit his aged parents, or prosecute some peaceful and respectable calling. Moreover, it was more than absurd to give the British a lecture on the mode of conducting criminal prosecutions—something with which Lord Granville is probably as familiar as Mr. Blaine—before finding out exactly whether there were any American citizens who were in a position entitling them to the benefit of "those common principles of criminal jurisprudence" to which he called that pampered and haughty nobleman's attention.

Mr. Lowell's answer brought the matter down to the regions of business and common

sense, which Mr. Blaine found so dull and dreary. It was in substance that as the matter in hand was to obtain a speedy trial or release for an American citizen, it would be just as well not to lecture the British Government on the impropriety of passing the Coercion Act, and not to undertake to instruct them as to the proper manner of conducting jury trials in criminal cases. Having thus cleared the ground of rhetorical rubbish, Mr. Lowell seems to have gone to work with businesslike judgment, first to find out what persons, if any, claiming American citizenship were held in dungeons under the Coercion Act; next, whether their claims to American citizenship were well founded; and thirdly whether the British Government would release them if asked to do so. The result has been that of seven persons claiming American citizenship who have been arrested since January most have been released. Of these one is undoubtedly not an American citizen. Another did reside in the United States after the war, during which he served in the Navy, and did apply for naturalization papers, but never got them until 1880, and has now been residing in Ireland and keeping a public house since 1875. He is accused not of "business relations" in Ireland, "or filial instincts or love of kindred," but of participation in an attempt to murder a magistrate. Another, O'Connor, had an interview with Mr. Lowell, described in one of the latter's despatches, in which he disclosed his strong desire for a war between England and America, but admitted that he was a bonâ-fide and permanent resident in Ireland. Although he was a Land League Secretary, Mr. Lowell suggested that he should not be locked up as long as he kept quiet.

In fact, the sum and substance of the whole matter is that everything that can be done through the usual forms of intercourse between civilized nations, to procure the release or trial of every imprisoned Irishman who can make even a show of being an American citizen, has been done, and that these efforts have been remarkably successful and are being continued, although most of the objects are unworthy of either aid or interest.

Only two things more remain to be said about it. One is that the precedents from our own diplomatic history which Mr. Lowell anticipates as likely to be cited against us, have not the importance which he seems to suppose, because they are war precedents. Our arbitrary imprisonment of foreigners, so far as it went, took place while war was actually raging on our own soil, a state of things for which there is no counterpart in Ireland. There the police holds the entire country, the courts are open, and any form of trial that Parliament chooses to prescribe can be peaceably and effectively held. Trial by jury is not, as Mr. Blaine, with characteristic inaccuracy, supposes, a foreigner's right under international law. But some fair trial is his right in time of peace. It is, however, discretionary with every government whether it will use its influence or its power to obtain such trial for its citizens who have infringed foreign laws. The practice of our Government has hitherto been to deal with each case on its own merits, or, in other words, to let a person whose American citizenship is used merely as a means of enabling him to defy the authorities of the country in which he has taken up his abode, get out of his scrape as best he can unless he chooses to come back to the country which he claims as his own, while fully protecting every honest man who has gone back to his native soil from motives either of affection or of lawful pecuniary interest.

SPANISH TROUBLES.

The Sagasta Ministry in Spain has from the first determined to distinguish itself by all sorts of economic reforms; so many, in fact, that if they are all carried out, they will transform the kingdom. It has, however, to be borne in mind, in discussing Spanish affairs, that an immense amount of reform may be effected in legislation in that country of which no trace appears afterward in practice. At the last session of the Cortes, Señor Comacho, the Minister of Finance, carried through very extensive changes in the system of internal taxation, including the reduction or abolition of or change in the mode of assessing stamp duties, mining and real-estate taxes, taxes on agricultural produce, the salt tax, internal tolls on roads and bridges, besides altering the system of keeping the public accounts, suppressing private lotteries, and opening new railroad and telegraph lines. Not content with all this, he provided also for a "conversion" of the public debt, as he calls it, but really for its "readjustment," as it would be called in Virginia, or "scaling down," as it would be called in Tennessee, or its partial repudiation, as it would be and is called in other parts of the world. The Spanish debt has been readjusted six times already within the present century. Each new régime which has come into power has felt unable to pay the interest, but has been too proud to resort to the plan of drawing a sponge over the whole account and making a new departure, although this expedient was actually resorted to in 1746 by Ferdinand VI. He found his father's debts an inconvenient burden, and got a junta, composed of bishops, ministers, and lawyers, to declare that a king was not bound to discharge the debts of his predecessors; whereupon he indulged in a wholesale repudiation, and began borrowing anew, as did his successor, during the troubles following the French Revolution. At the close of the Revolutionary period nobody knew what the debt was exactly, and there were constant disputes about its amount till 1851, when it was decided to be about $550,000,000, and was divided into halves, one being called "active," on which interest was to be paid, the other "passive," on which no interest was to be paid, but which was to be gradually redeemed.

It is needless to say that neither the interest of the active nor the principal of the passive was ever forthcoming. On the contrary, the Government went on steadily increasing what was practically the passive, until, in 1870, the total debt was supposed to amount to about $1,185,000,000. Since then deficits have occurred every year, and the "floating debt"—or debt which could be contracted without borrowing—has been largely increased. In 1876 a scaling operation was again performed, the bondholders submitting to a considerable reduction of the principal in consideration of three per cent. interest to be paid regularly. But it has not been paid regularly, and Señor Comacho now proposes another scaling, by which the principal will be again reduced over fifty-six per cent., but the interest promised is to be four per cent. instead of three. Some of the bonds affected by this arrangement are held in Spain, and the holders of these the Minister has at his mercy. They cannot choose but submit. The foreigners, however, mainly Dutchmen and Englishmen, are not so tractable, and are tired of scaling. They accordingly refuse his terms. They have in their hands, too, the means of coercing him to a certain extent. Before 1876, Spanish bonds had been for a long time excluded from the lists of the London and Amsterdam Exchanges, as a punishment for repeated acts of bad faith; and as long as this exclusion lasted, of course, no fresh foreign loans were possible, and home loans were out of the question—Spaniards, besides being poor, being much too shrewd to lend money to their own Government. In order to prevent this last scaling having the same disagreeable consequences, Señor Comacho asks the foreign bondholders not only to submit to the reduction of their principal, but in doing so to sign a paper acknowledging that "all their rights are wholly satisfied." This they absolutely refuse; and unless they do it, his new bonds will be excluded from quotation both in London and Amsterdam, and his hopes of a new loan nipped in the bud.

His difficulties have been increased by the resolute opposition of the Catalonians, who carry on most of the manufacturing industry of Spain, to the commercial treaty which he proposes to conclude with France as part of his system of economic reform. In this he makes heavy concessions to the French on the cotton, silk, and woollen goods of which the province has until now enjoyed a monopoly. The manufacturers made a determined effort in the Cortes to arrest the negotiations, but without success, and the workingmen, particularly in Barcelona, have of late shown a disposition to rise in insurrection sooner than submit to the competition of "the pauper labor of France." A great deal of violence has already occurred, and more is expected, in anticipation of which the Government has been compelled to pour huge bodies of troops into Barcelona and the other large towns.

Nor is the discontent of the working classes confined to Catalonia. It has shown itself in Madrid and every place else in which there are native manufactures. But it is the Catalonian discontent which is most formidable, because the population far surpasses that of the rest of Spain both in energy and capacity, and is markedly indifferent to the national traditions. It is also much permeated by socialistic ideas, and has a deep-seated hatred of the clergy. In troublous times in Barcelona it is dangerous for a priest to show himself in the streets. This being the case, one might naturally expect that turbulence in such a region would give no comfort to the reactionary party, whether Carlist or Clerical. But, curiously enough, it does. In Spanish politics, it is more than usually true that "it is an ill wind that blows nobody good." The

Opposition to the established Government never had much sense of responsibility, and it has now less than ever. Its great object is always to bring about, in any way that offers itself, the failure of the existing régime. The Republicans are ready to use this weapon against the Conservatives, the Carlists against the Constitutionalists, and the Clericals against everybody who is not a Clerical. Consequently, the turbulence of the Catalonian protectionists, socialists, and infidels, is grist for the Carlist mill, and they are doing their best to take advantage of it. If it could be fanned into revolution, and the present monarchy should disappear in a general *débâcle*, they would desire nothing better, for in a *débâcle* in Spain everything is possible and one thing about as probable as another. They are, however, not likely to be gratified. In the work of economic reform the Ministry has the support of the national Republicans, like Castelar; and the Army, which counts for so much in Spanish politics, has but little sympathy with the griefs of riotous operatives.

THE NEW RULES OF PROCEDURE.

LONDON, March 28, 1882.

THOSE who in America follow the course of English politics must have been surprised to observe the great warmth with which the question of altering the procedure of the House of Commons, by introducing a rule similar to your "previous question," is discussed. You naturally ask, firstly, how it happens that up till now there should not exist any standing order under which a debate can be closed, however long it may have lasted, and however small may be the minority which seeks to continue it; and secondly, why it is that a change which might appear to be a mere matter of general convenience, equally to be desired or opposed by both the great parties, should now be vehemently urged by the one and opposed by the other. I shall try to answer both these questions.

Down till the Reform Bill of 1832 the House of Commons was practically a small body. Its number was indeed very large when compared with the population of the country and with representative assemblies in other countries; but of this large number comparatively few attended the ordinary proceedings. When a great party debate or division was to be taken, members were whipped up from their country houses; but during nine-tenths of the session only a third or a fourth of the total were in constant attendance, and of this number very few took part in the discussions. In the great days of Mr. Pitt and Mr. Fox only some twenty or thirty members were in the habit of speaking, representing the Ministry on the one side and the leaders of the regular Opposition on the other. Moreover, the debates were generally short, as short as those of the House of Lords are now. Even in the decade before 1832, they generally lasted not more than two or three hours in each day, and turned on comparatively few questions, which were discussed with much oratorical dignity, but rather in the spirit and tone of an aristocratic assembly like the Roman Senate than of a body of practical business men dealing with complicated practical questions. The members belonged exclusively to the upper classes; a great proportion of them represented pocket boroughs, and owed allegiance to the owners of those boroughs; the rest were very obedient to the leaders of their party, and controlled by the general sentiment of the aristocratic society to which they belonged. Not only was there no idea of obstruction, but the social pressure was so strong that any member who made himself a bore by long speeches or frequent speeches was very soon put down.

The Reform Bill of 1832 completely changed the functions and duties of the House, but did not so quickly nor so completely affect its composition. It found itself confronted by a host of great administrative and legal problems, which threw on it a tremendous mass of work. The sittings became long, and the topics discussed called out a much larger number of speakers. Assiduously as the House labored, new tasks were always arising, new arrears of work accumulating. At length, after some ten or fifteen years, a class of men began to find their way in who had been previously unknown—men of whom Mr. Cobden and Mr. Bright were the most conspicuous types, who did not belong to the upper ranks, and did not care for the social influences which had hitherto swayed Parliament. They brought in new elements of knowledge, and expressed with force and freedom the sentiments and demands of the middle classes, to some extent of the working classes also. Thus the number of speakers was always increasing, and debates came to be less and less under the control of the recognized party leaders. The immense growth of administrative business, the additional subjects for discussion which were due to the development of trade, the creation of railways, the expansion of our colonial empire, the complaints of the Irish people, whose voice was at last freely heard, the tendency of the House of Commons to draw all sorts of executive matters within its cognizance—all these causes piled up the load of business on the House, while at the same time the always increasing number of persons who attended regularly and wished to speak made it more and more difficult to get this business despatched. At last, about ten years ago, systematic obstruction began to appear. Occasional instances had occurred before, but it was not regularly practised till, in the year 1872, it was employed by some Tory members to delay a bill brought in for alterations in our military system. In the next Parliament these first crude beginnings were followed up by a section of the Irish members, who raised obstruction to the dignity of a science, and succeeded, chiefly by the ingenuity, skill, and tenacity of Mr. Parnell, in all but stopping the Parliamentary machine. The evil, which might possibly have been arrested in its infancy by a vigorous leader of the House, appeared at an unlucky time, because Mr. Disraeli had just quitted the House of Commons. Mr. Gladstone was in opposition, and Sir Stafford Northcote, who led the majority, was new to his duties, and showed himself too kindly and good-natured to act with sufficient severity. Remedies of course were tried, but so far they have proved futile, and the experience of last session, when the deadlock was only relieved by the unprecedented action of the Speaker in stopping an unprecedentedly protracted debate, in which the Irish members had kept the House sitting through forty-two continuous hours, convinced nearly everybody that some stronger measures must be adopted.

This is, in brief, the history of the subject. No provision for closing a debate against the will of any members who seek to go on speaking has existed, because, until some thirty years ago, members belonging almost exclusively to what is called "Society" were controlled by the opinion of Society, and by their sense of party allegiance; and because it is only quite lately that a section of the representatives of Ireland have taken up an irreconcilable attitude. Not, however, that Irish members are the only obstructives. They may claim to have perfected the art, but it is one which members of both the English parties have occasionally employed, and will doubtless continue to employ, unless some means be devised of checking its employment. Add to this the fact that, even apart from systematic obstruction, the House of Commons is unable to grapple with its increasing work, that its debates grow longer because more men want to speak, and more subjects turn up for discussion, and it will easily be seen that our position is a serious one. Something must be done if the popular House is to retain its functions in the government of the country and the empire.

Why then, it may well be asked—and this is the second point I desire to explain—why should so great a reluctance be felt to adopt the obvious and simple expedient of enabling a majority to close the debate by voting that the main question be now put? There are three principal reasons. The first is the strong conservative sentiment of what may be called a corporate body. Englishmen are pretty tenacious of old usage in all things, and wisely so; but in an assembly like the House of Commons the unwillingness of senior members to change the rules they have been accustomed to, even when those rules cause them personal inconvenience, is a notable phenomenon. The second is the idea that, somehow or other, the right of free speech will be trenched upon. So long as every member can have his say there is, it is argued, a security for the expression of every shade of opinion, for the unmasking of any mischievous schemes a Government may contemplate, for the advocacy of unpopular causes. Once this is gone, who can say to what lengths the tyranny of a majority may not proceed? A powerful Minister, supported by a compact majority, may run measures through the House which may seriously affect the rights of particular classes before those classes have had a chance of stating their case in defence. Private members may be refused a hearing; the control of Parliament over the Executive may be reduced to a nullity. Arguments like these affect persons of all parties; not only the Tories, who, of course, oppose a proposal coming from Mr. Gladstone, but also a certain number of more cautious or timid Liberals, and a small number of Radicals. Finally, the whole mass of the Tory party objects to the proposal because, being now in a minority, and expecting to be more often than not in a minority, they think it will be used to silence them, and possibly to bring about revolutionary changes. It is all very well to urge that the House of Commons cannot get on under its present rules: they reply that after all it has flourished for more than six centuries, and that other less drastic measures, particularly the increase of a penal jurisdiction over individual offending members, would be sufficient to restore its efficiency. Many add that they would rather put up with all the inconveniences of the existing system than place themselves at the mercy of a Liberal majority. As to the Parnellite section of the Irish party, they are of course strenuously opposed, because it is they who would be the first subjects of the rule if introduced.

Between all these elements of hostility the position of the Government is not an easy one. A good many of their habitual supporters—some say seventy or eighty—do not like the resolution in which Mr. Gladstone has embodied his new rule. Most of these, no doubt, will yield to pressure—that is, to the threat that if the resolution be lost, Mr. Gladstone will either dissolve or resign. Some few of the more obstinate may vote with the Tory Opposition; others may stay away; but the great bulk, dreading the displeasure of their constituents, will follow the Government. It will pretty certainly secure a majority. But to obtain only a small majority

will be a sort of moral defeat, weakening its prestige, and increasing the risk of its being found in a minority in a division on some of the various minor amendments suggested to Mr. Gladstone's proposal. Besides, it is always a misfortune for a Ministry to have to threaten any of its own supporters. They may submit for the moment, but they resent the appearance of dictation, and do not readily return to their former attitude of loyal confidence. There is, therefore, some anxiety felt as to the issue of this debate, which, having now proceeded for three nights, is likely to extend over many more before the rule is finally settled. Probably the most dangerous division will be on one of the amendments which raises the question whether the power to close a debate ought not to be vested in a majority of two-thirds rather than in a bare majority. This compromise pleases most of the hesitating Liberals and would be accepted by most of the Tories. Mr. Gladstone refuses it because it would involve the leader of the majority in negotiations with the leader of the Opposition, and raise the latter into a position of responsibility, almost of power, for which there is no precedent. Others reject it because they think it would so weaken the rule as to make it almost useless, while at the same time it would bear just as hardly upon the rights of a small minority as would the closing of debate by a bare majority. However, that large class of people who think that a middle course is likely to be right because it is a middle course, look favorably on the two-thirds plan, so possibly the Government may elect rather to yield than run the risk of defeat. Y.

THE DEFEAT OF THE TOBACCO MONOPOLY.

BERLIN, March 28.

THE less expected the more gratifying was the news that the Volkswirthschaftsrath (*Conseil Supérieur de Commeree*) had rejected the tobacco monopoly. In itself this result is of little consequence, as that board of so-called experts numbers only two out of its seventy-five members who are really tobacco experts, the one a manufacturer and the other a planter. All the rest are wholly ignorant of everything concerning tobacco. Besides, the majority is so small—viz., thirty-three to thirty-one—that the decision might just as well have been on the opposite side; but it is nevertheless a great relief, not unmixed with malicious joy, to the great majority of the people. The most exhilarating part of the whole performance, however, has been the discouragement of the official press and of Bismarck's organs, and their subsequent recovery in virtue of certain arithmetical calculations. The Government's "Own," the *Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung*, was richest in the manifestation of this sudden change of mind. For the first two days after the negative vote had been given, it did not dare to utter a word; then it mustered courage and declared that the majority of the Volkswirthschaftsrath had decided in favor of the monopoly. Its reasoning runs thus: "The majority were in favor of a higher duty and tax on tobacco; it is, therefore, the minority only which voted against such raising. A minority, of course, has nothing to say as to how tobacco should be taxed. Of the majority, however, a majority has declared for the monopoly, and this majority of the majority must be respected as the majority of the whole body." I wonder that the worthy paper stops at this calculation in its funny argument. Suppose that among the thirty-one members who voted for the monopoly, there were sixteen who were against allowing damages as proposed by the Government, then the majority of the whole board would have given its vote against a higher indemnification. And let it be further supposed that among these sixteen there were nine who wanted to reduce still more the Government's demands, and that among these nine there were five who preferred to pay no damages at all; then, according to the reasoning of the official press, it would follow, as a matter of course, that the majority was in favor of the monopoly without any payment of damages to the parties now interested in the tobacco trade. Thus there is not the least difficulty in proving that two are a majority of seventy-five. "Speed and alacrity," says the prestidigitator, "is not sorcery" (*Geschwindigkeit ist keine Hexerei*).

When the official mouthpieces of the Chancellor saw that these tricks were laughed at, they proposed that the eleven members who had not been present at the voting should be asked for their vote by letter; but they finally found out that the majority of these men too were against the monopoly. As they did not wish practically to turn to account their ingenious majority calculation, they likewise dropped this new improvement in parliamentary practice. In any other country such a defeat, brought about by a body which was expressly invented and appointed for the purpose of voting the Chancellor's most obnoxious plan, would have buried a measure which from the beginning has been opposed by the people. Bismarck, however, is not the man to submit with grace to a popular verdict. On the contrary, he challenges public opinion, and has no thought of confessing himself beaten. He therefore will not withdraw his pet measure, but will bring it before the Reichstag, to be convoked in May next. First, however, he has to lay it before the Bundesrath. As matters stand at present, he will, in the beginning, meet with a vehement opposition, although he will finally obtain a majority. Of the fifty-eight votes of the Bundesrath, Prussia commands seventeen. She is sure of the votes of the smaller states and of Würtemberg, which poll twenty-two votes together, thus making thirty-nine in all; these, even if one or the other in the last hour should join the anti-monopolists, would still form a large majority over the legally-required number of twenty-nine. Positively opposed to Bismarck on this question are Saxony, with four, Baden, with three, Hesse, with three, and the three Hanse towns, with three together, amounting to thirteen in all. Even should doubtful Bavaria throw her six votes against the Chancellor, twenty votes would probably be the utmost that the Opposition could command.

In the Reichstag, however, Bismarck will be defeated, unless in the meantime he can barter for about one-half of the votes of the Centre. This I think is impossible. It is true, these men are equal to any emergency, and they will be ready to sell their votes for a satisfactory compensation, but what is satisfactory to them will not be satisfactory to Bismarck, who in spite of all the advances made to the Pope cannot come to terms with him. Any prospect of effecting a compromise is now further off than at any previous time, and, besides, the Ultramontanes will ultimately hesitate to make themselves unpopular with their constituents. I therefore consider his endeavors to gain the Centre over to his side as entirely futile. What next? Bismarck will not give up his plan until he has exhausted his last resources. Do not forget that he is bound to raise more money for realizing at least part of his social programme held out to the working classes. When the monopoly is defeated he will fall back on some other method of making tobacco bleed; probably on the American system, as it sharply controls and most heavily falls on the small home manufacturer. This system, in my opinion, will be more unpopular among the masses than even the monopoly, and may possibly reconcile them to the latter. As far as I can judge, the American law is not always strictly complied with: compromises with Government spies, tax-gatherers, and internal-revenue officers are not uncommon; but here the police and Custom-house people will carry out their instructions to the letter, and by molesting the manufacturers and imposing fines drive them to despair, while the profits of the trade will be thrown into the hands of the capitalist and large manufacturer. The only advantage of the American system would be the continuance of Bremen as a large port, the chief importance of which is based on tobacco.

Some people apprehend that Bismarck would dissolve the Reichstag if it voted against the monopoly. I do not think so, because, if he should, he would be sure to obtain, and not in this respect alone, a still more unruly majority against his plans. For the present, however, he needs a more popular pretext, and it is more than uncertain whether he will find one. Other countries try to get rid of or solve difficult problems pressing on them. Here the powerful Chancellor systematically hunts them up for the purpose of intimidating or tiring out the people, in order to make it more subservient to his ends. All he desires is to carry out his absolutistic schemes, which, in spite of their tendency, he knows how to adapt skilfully to a constitutional form. For a long while people did not understand the far-reaching bearing of this policy, but finally they have appreciated its dangers, and they are now on their guard. The charm is broken; the number of his most devoted admirers is daily diminishing, and his popularity is dwindling, to say the least. It will not last long, and Bismarck will stand alone on one side, with nothing but his contemptible tools as his followers, and on the other he will find the intellect, the independence, and generosity of the whole nation his opponents. Even the Second Chamber of the Grand Duchy of Baden unanimously voted the other day against the tobacco monopoly, while in former years no part of Germany contained so many enthusiastic supporters of the Chancellor as Baden. The same can to-day be said of the Liberals of Würtemberg. In Prussia he sues more and more opponents for libel and slander. The Bismarck offence is a standing charge on our court calendars. Among the last indicted is Professor Mommsen, for having said (Mommsen contradicts it) that more and more every day Bismarck showed himself a Merovingian major-domo. At the late supplementary election for the Reichstag held in Bunzlau, in Silesia, in place of the Conservative ex-Minister Falk, who had resigned, a member of the Party of Progress was chosen, while a very able but politically nondescript candidate, Dr. Engel, hitherto the chief of our Statistical Bureau, was defeated.

It is now no longer a mystery, even to the superficial observer of our political development, that we are drifting into a centralization in comparison with which the French governmental machine is almost powerless. Whatever may be the political defects of the German, he hates all centralizing tendencies, and is perhaps too obstinate and too stubborn to submit unconditionally to a majority. It was Bismarck himself who once said, that whenever there were two Germans together, there were three different opinions among them. If it were only in the political field that the Chancellor had successfully concentrated all state functions, his absolutistic aims at unification might be pleaded as an excuse; but he stretches out his hands into domains which belong to the individual sphere of the citizen and never ought to be interfered with. It often seems as if he had set up the Jesuits of Paraguay for his model. At the same time he is

very cautious not to disturb the state rights, which ought to be weakened instead of being strengthened, for he knows very well that on the part of the petty sovereigns he would meet with a very energetic opposition. For this reason the small kings and princes have thus far been his most obedient followers, while the Chancellor tries to prove by his relations to the Powers that he is far from any centralizing tendency. In refraining from violent encroachments upon the reserved rights of the small states, he puts all his energy and influence to work in order to realize his social schemes and to monopolize the whole economical and social life of the country. The state-rights men (*Particularisten*) are so foolish as to believe that they have secured their aims, and do not see that they are only helping to lead the current into a course which some fine day will carry away their dams also.

Before the last elections people could not discern that Bismarck's method was very dangerous to self-government in state and town. They hailed his promises that the Government would charge itself with the care of the poor, the maintenance of schools, and the grant of money to towns for improvements and meliorations. They did not understand that the assignment of the state taxes to the towns and communes implied a gross injustice to the poor in favor of the large real-estate owners, and such a crying inequality for the taxpayer that the solution of this problem cannot go beyond the first stage of experiment. The principal result of our late progress consists in the appreciation of the fact that the power of the Government is swelling gigantically. The intrinsic parts of this process begin to be distinguished by those who till now have been indifferent to the deterioration of our political life. The defeat of the tobacco monopoly marks a salutary change in our public affairs. "No new taxes shall be laid," is the general demand of the Liberals, "before their necessity be proved; but, when proved, we will suffer no new taxes without increasing at the same time those on spirits and whiskey." The next elections will prove this important change. † † †

THE PRECURSORS OF THE RENAISSANCE.

PARIS, March 16, 1882.

M. MUNTZ, the learned librarian of our National School of Fine Arts, has given us a most interesting work on 'Les Précurseurs de la Renaissance.' There is perhaps no branch of literature which blooms like the literature of art, as it combines interesting historical and æsthetic details with the beauty of illustrations. The work of M. Muntz is not the history of the origin of the Italian Renaissance; under the name of "precursors" he chiefly takes the men who in Italy, and more especially in Tuscany, were the promoters of the new ideas, whether they were artists, archæologists, or even amateurs, from Frederic the Second and Nicholas of Pisa to Lorenzo the Magnificent. His work ends before the normal and progressive development—before Mantegna, Leonardo da Vinci, Michael Angelo. M. Muntz notices with reason that there is no exact parallelism between the development of art and the development of literature. The first great precursor, the renovator of the art of statuary in Italy, Niccolo Pisano, lived seventy years before the renovators of classical studies—Petrarch and Boccaccio. The attempt of Niccolo Pisano was, so to speak, premature; a second renovation of art became necessary after him. The victory over Gothic art was not complete at first; it was really only achieved by Brunellesco and Donatello.

Niccolo Pisano has much exercised the imagination of the lovers of art. We know now that he was born in Pisa, and really deserved the name of Pisano; but must we admit, with Messrs. Crowe and Cavalcaselle, with Springer, Schnaase, and others, that he studied art in South Italy and got his inspiration from the models he could find at Capua, at Solerno, at Amalfi, at Troja? Or must we believe, with C. Perkins, Dobbert, Milanesi, Hettner, Bode, that his mind was really formed in Tuscany, and that, by the sole force of his genius, he rose above the vulgar masons of Pisa, of Florence, of Pistoia, of Lucca? "This second hypothesis," says M. Muntz, "which is in accordance with the testimony of Vasari, has now for its partisans all impartial minds. The constituent elements of the style of Niccolo Pisano can all be reduced to the models which the artist found in his native city—that is to say, to the sarcophagi and the vases now preserved in the Campo Santo, and, among them, especially the sarcophagus which represents the history of Phædra and Hippolytus, and which received the bones of the Countess Beatrix, the mother of the famous Countess Matilda." Niccolo afterward visited all the cities of Italy, and was able to study the innumerable remains of antiquity at Rome, Pavia, Venice, etc.

In his 'Origins of the Renaissance in Italy,' Gebhart has passed a very excellent judgment on the work of Niccolo Pisano: "Niccolo, in the pulpits of Pisa and Sienna, and in the coffers of Saint Dominico in Bologna, restored the traditions of the great art with an innocent gravity and a sure taste. He is not a neo-Greek, nor a superstitious antiquarian; he is penetrated with the most general principles of antique sculpture; . . . but his eye and his hand have still the habits of the primitive sculptors: the movements are timid and awkward, the figures often heavy. His works give the impression of those of the end of the Empire. . . . Niccolo Pisano, if he discovered and studied Greece, did not renounce nature, and, in his best works, he is a close observer of life." The son of Niccolo, Giovanni (1240–1320), is a champion of naturalism; he is dramatic, often violent, semi-barbarous. Reminiscences of antiquity are found here and there, but the whole of his work marks the era of the triumph of Gothic style. The same can be said of all the school of the Pisani.

Giotto, the founder of the Florentine school of painting, had not the same advantages as Niccolo Pisano: the frescoes of antiquity were as rare as the remains of antique sculpture were abundant. Still, Giotto was seduced by antique models; he constantly borrowed ideas taken from old monuments. You can see it at Assisi, at Padua, in that Christian monument of art, the Capella dell' Arena. Such traces of antique forms and models can be found in the works of Simone di Memmi, of Ambrogio Lorenzetti, of Taddeo Bartolo. It is a curious fact that Florence, the cradle of the Renaissance, was, in the fifteenth century, very poor in antique remains. The representatives of science, the great writers, became the allies of the sculptors and of the painters. M. Muntz gives us curious documents concerning the precursors of Donatello. In his opinion, the great renovation of the fifteenth century had its origin in the journey which Brunellesco and Donatello made together to Rome, toward 1403. They rediscovered, as it were, the old world; they studied every column, every ruin along the Via Latina or the Via Appia; they had the enthusiasm of genius. Can there be a more original, a more extraordinary creator than Donatello? He is, as it were, a connecting link between the past and the future. Sometimes he humbly copies the antique forms, sometimes he seems jealous of his independence. He is an idealist one day, and the next day a realist; he has a double soul.

Ghiberti was a passionate lover of antiquity: the first book of his 'Commentaries' is a history of art in Greece and in Rome. This essay was probably inspired by conversation with Niccolò Niccoli and Poggio. Rio has remarked the preference which Ghiberti gives to Greek art over Roman art. "What strikes us before all," says he, "is his exclusive passion for Greek sculpture. He keeps a disdainful silence as to the monuments of imperial Rome which he had seen, and makes not the slightest allusion to the collection of statues which was then in the garden of the Medici." Ghiberti describes with much enthusiasm three fine statues which were discovered in his time in Rome, near the church of San Celso. In the doors of the Baptistery of Florence we find some figures which have a purely Greek character. Still, the author of these famous doors belongs to the Middle Ages, and the imitation of antiquity is reduced merely to some details. The style is, on the whole, profoundly Christian.

Alberti was the richest organization of the first Renaissance, the true precursor of Leonardo da Vinci. He was an artist and a humanist; he wrote comedies in Latin; he studied science; he wrote the famous 'De re ædificatoria'; he was fascinated by the monuments of antiquity. I have spoken lately of the temple which he built in Rimini for the Malatestas. He wrote also a treatise on painting; he tried to revive the Greco-Roman world. His friend Rossellino inspired himself with the same principles; he copied in the Palazzo Piccolomini at Pienza and in the first Palazzo Ruccellai the masterpiece of Alberti, which is in Florence.

We come now to the masters who were opposed to the invasion of antique forms and formulas. Lucas della Robbia was the chief of a dynasty which was in opposition to the new ideas; he was purely realistic and Christian; he was a mystic. Masaccio seems to have never even glanced at a Greek or a Roman statue; he was a mere naturalist. So was Panicale da Massolino; so were Paolo Uccello, Andrea del Castagno, Piero della Francesca. The pious Fra Angelico had a true Christian spirit; still, like Donatello, he was capable of understanding the past. His frescoes of the chapel of the Vatican, representing the lives of Saint Stephen and Saint Lawrence, show us "the painter *par excellence* of Christianity sacrificing on the altar of the Greek and of the Roman genius." The thought is Christian; the forms, the composition, the types are influenced by the old models.

M. Muntz not only gives us a profound analysis of the work of the precursors; he enters into minute details about the great collectors and archæologists of their time, Niccolò Niccoli, Ambrosius of Camaldoli, Leonardo Bruni, Carlo Marsuppini, Poggio, and, above all, the Medicis. He describes the court of Cosmo de' Medici and of his children, and explains the great influence of Lorenzo il Magnifico. This family of the Medicis will always be remembered in the history of art. If other sovereigns in Italy can rival them in their sacrifices, there will always be in the efforts of the Medicis a trait which will seduce the historian—I mean the familiarity which was established between them and the artists. They were really the friends of the men whom they protected. Their taste was delicate and severe; their collections became a treasure for the world; their inventories are among the most precious documents on art. Their library was magnificent. The Renaissance never showed a more brilliant organization than Lorenzo de' Medici. He seduced his age by his courtesy, his intellect, his generosity; his mind was universal. He was the first founder of a school of fine arts.

He was a passionate admirer of antiquity, of its philosophy, of its art. He worshipped Plato as well as Praxiteles. He was for a quarter of a century the great arbiter in matters of art. His authority was felt in all Europe. He chose architects, painters, sculptors for all the sovereigns. The artists loved to present to him their choicest works; they knew that they would be repaid a hundredfold. He was so generous that finally he embarrassed his finances. M. Muntz has been able, by using various documents, some of which are inedited, to give us a complete account of the various collections of Lorenzo.

From the time of Lorenzo dates the thorough triumph of antiquity; the antique formulas and types are adopted by all the worshippers of progress. They not only introduce some antique details into Christian subjects—Verocchio, Pallajuolo, Botticelli, Domenico Ghirlandajo, Filippino Lippi delight in some subject taken from the Greeks or from the Romans. Science begins to take the place of inspiration. The old world, as it is represented by these artists of the fifteenth century, is defective; they have not the quiet gravity, the calm simplicity of the precursors; their buildings are too complex, their draperies too much agitated. Giulano da San Gallo, the favorite architect of Lorenzo, has too much erudition and not enough simplicity and majesty. Domenico Ghirlandajo, Filippino Lippi, and Botticelli mark the transition between the precursors and the Renaissance proper; the work of Botticelli is a true mythology. Still, at times, the old Christian simplicity gets the upper hand. It is difficult to understand how the same mind could conceive some "Holy Families" full of angelic innocence, and the "Birth of Venus" or the "Calumny of Apelles" of the Uffizi.

I shall have something more to say on the men who were the enemies of the Renaissance, and who struggled against the return toward the forms and ideas of the pagan world.

Correspondence.

THE *NATION* AND THE CHINESE QUESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The attitude of religious and political fanatics toward the Chinese question has neither surprised nor wounded the people of the Pacific Coast. But we had reason to expect that such a journal as the *Nation* would treat the subject with some degree of fairness, neither employing the arguments of demagogues nor neglecting the commonest courtesies of debate. To stigmatize the entire population of half a dozen States and Territories as hoodlums, tramps, and vagabonds is doubtless the easiest way to answer their demands, but your history has given us the right to expect something better from you.

But, dropping the question of courtesy, do you really think that the exclusion of an undesirable and dangerous class of immigrants offers any parallel to the enslavement of a class, perhaps equally undesirable, but already firmly rooted among us? Do you think that if, two hundred years ago, some Atlantic California had arisen to prevent the importation of negroes, our subsequent history would have been any less happy than it has been? You speak of the deep "faith of the American people . . . in the power of their institutions to withstand even the vice and ignorance of foreigners." The belief that America was a country under the special protection of Providence, and raised above the dangers of ordinary nations, was prevalent enough thirty or forty years ago, but I had thought that among educated men of our day it was nearly extinct. Observers of our political condition are not blind to the perils of an ignorant and degraded proletariat, and I have read the *Nation* to very little purpose if I am mistaken in thinking that it shares their fears. Do you, then, welcome the precipitation upon us of twenty or thirty thousand possible voters every year, not one of whom will ever have the first glimmering conception of the duties of American citizenship? You seem to fear that the enfranchisement of the negroes may be justified only on grounds of expediency. I confess that expediency, in a broad and high sense, is the only standard of right that I can conceive; and by that standard both the negro and the Chinese question should be judged.

I cannot close without referring to a little matter of detail. You say that "according to the best authorities," the number of Chinese in the country has "sensibly decreased since 1870." Do you rank the United States Census among "the best authorities"? And if so, do you think that in calling an increase of over 67 per cent. between 1870 and 1880 a "sensible decrease" you have displayed your accustomed candor?

S. E. M.

University of California, Berkeley,
March 26, 1882.

[Our history not only gives our correspondent the right to expect better things of us than the stigmatization of "the entire population of half a dozen States as hoodlums, tramps, and vagabonds," but gives us the right to expect of him that he shall not put in our mouths wild and ridiculous assertions which we never made. We have not been guilty of such stigmatization, and we refuse to "drop the question of courtesy"; we uphold it until our correspondent retracts and apologizes.

Coming to his questions, we do not think "the exclusion of an undesirable class of immigrants offers a parallel to the enslavement of a class perhaps equally undesirable, but already firmly rooted among us." We have never made any such parallel, and know nothing about it. Our parallel was between the conduct of the Republican party in forcing the Southern whites to admit the negroes to a share in the government, when they were in a condition of ignorance and debasement from which the Chinese issued thousands of years ago, in spite of the solemn protests of six millions of the white population of ten States, and the conduct of this same party in offering to allow the one million white population of half a dozen Pacific States and Territories to exclude, not from the franchise only, but from all residence and industry on American soil, the poor men of another much more civilized race, no matter what their character. This is our parallel, and the more our correspondent meditates on it the worse he will feel. As to "the deep faith of the American people in the power of their institutions to withstand the vice and ignorance of foreigners," we think that, if it has not as yet gone too far, there is danger that it may do so. What is the remedy? Clearly to legislate against vicious and ignorant foreigners. Nothing of the kind is proposed, however, by our Pacific State friends. On the contrary, they are crazy for legislation against a most peaceable, industrious, intelligent, and skilful class of foreigners, and actually use in the American Congress the very virtues of these foreigners as an argument for their exclusion. Moreover, these foreigners are the only ones who come to us who do not seek to take part in our Government, and thus bring their ignorance into play for our political confusion.

As to the numbers of the Chinese, we shall display our accustomed candor by saying that we have fallen into an error through comparing the population in 1880 with the best estimates of 1876. Between 1870 and 1880 we acknowledge there has been an increase from 63,254 to 105,613, or 66.73 per cent. But the Chinese are, after all, only a little over 100,000 among 50,000,000, and, if they go on at the same rate, will at the end of the century number about 300,000 in a nation of 100,000,000. There is not enough danger in this, on the very worst view, to warrant our total reversal of our policy with regard to immigration, and the revival of legal discrimination of the most odious kind directed against race and color. The probabilities are that in the meantime white immigrants will do much to close the gap into which the Chinese are now entering on the Pacific Coast.—Ed. Nation.]

AGNOSTIC CHURCHES IN GERMANY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your article on "Agnostic Worship," in the *Nation* of Feb. 23, you imply that no attempts are being made in Germany, France, and Italy to build up religious organizations upon a non-theological basis. As to France and Italy, I am unable to speak; but the following facts will show that your implication is wrong in regard to Germany.

In June, 1859, there was formed at Gotha a *Bund freireligiöser Gemeinden Deutschlands*, and at the close of the year 1880 the number of free religious societies and clubs belonging to this *Bund* was 136, and there were, besides, several newly-formed societies and clubs which had not yet joined the national organization. There are at present about twenty active free-religious speakers, some of whom do service for several societies. The facts here given are to be found in the *Freireligiöser Kalender* for 1882, published at Gotha.

There is one of these *freireligiöse Gemeinden* in Berlin having a membership of over eight hundred names. This society has a settled speaker, Herr Schäfer, who addresses it every Sunday morning in "a hall." The speaker offers no prayer and reads from no book. Congregational singing before and after the discourse is the only exercise. Connected with the society is a *Religionsschule*, which is attended by 148 children. To the religious instruction of these children the speaker of the society devotes four hours a week. The children are instructed in the mythology and history and principles of the great historical religions, and Christianity is made no exception, but is treated in exactly the same way as the other religions. Belief in a personal God who can hear and answer prayer, in a divine Saviour, and in miracles, is classed among the superstitions. The children are furthermore taught they have a religion of their own, different from Christianity and the other great religions—a religion based upon ethical and rational principle, and one which has to do with the present life.

This school and society are a fair type of others in other cities, and represent a movement which is gradually assuming considerable proportions. It thus appears that Germany must be added to those nations in which an attempt is being made to build up a religious organization which is both non-theological and non-Christian.

S. B. W.

Berlin, March 21, 1882.

THE MASON CRAZE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Sporadic cases of this surprising perturbation of judgment or obliquity of mental vision, which seems to have been almost epidemic at the West, have not failed to show themselves even in the latitude of Boston, though most of the legal fraternity agree with the *Nation* in regarding the Judge-Advocate's recent decision as bordering upon the bouffe. An impossibility of success is held to imply an equal impossibility of attempt, so that Mason might have clapped his piece against Guiteau's ear and pulled the trigger without committing an assault with intent to kill, if it afterward appeared that he had accidentally reversed his cartridge in loading, so that it could not explode.

But there are those who, while recognizing the absurdity of this doctrine, have yet signed the petition for Mason's pardon as a protest against the unseemly indulgences granted to Guiteau. It does seem surprising that, in view of our nation's yet recent experiences, so many should still remain in apparent ignorance of the essential difference between an army and a mob. Had the officer in command chosen to make an example of such mutinous conduct on the spot, by cutting down or shooting Sergeant Mason the instant that he turned his piece against the prisoner whom he was detailed to protect, such an act would have been abundantly justifiable; for Mason was a non-commissioned officer, and his conduct a direct incitement to mutiny, calling for stern and instant repression. Those who would condone such offences, or resort to strained technicalities to prevent their punishment, seem to labor under an incomprehensible inability to understand their true nature. They fail to see that the crime is one against the whole community, which for the protection of civil rights looks to the Army to support the law—by no means merely against the one detested wretch for whom the gallows waits. S. M. Q.

Boston, April 4, 1882.

THE WORKING OF THE ELECTIVE SYSTEM AT HARVARD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The discussion of the elective system of college work in your columns has shown what results may be supposed, on *à-priori* grounds, to attend such a system. Unhappily, though naturally enough, the products of this method do not coincide throughout with facts. It would be interesting to know what the actual results appear to be, as seen from the inside of the college which has been selected by your correspondents as typical of the elective creed. It would, however, be a delicate task for an instructor at Harvard to take up the matter in print. I venture to hope that an ex-instructor of the same college may render this service—not, indeed, with entire delicacy, but with an indelicacy that admits of pardon.

The common objection to the Harvard system is stated in a letter published in your issue of February 16. The writer is speaking of the time when all studies now required shall become elective, and puts the case thus:

> "What will Harvard's degree mean? Not that the graduate has been trained in the methods of classical, scientific, and metaphysical thought, and introduced to history, political science, and all the more important branches of study. It will mean simply that he has pursued for four years the studies most agreeable to his yet unformed taste—those which are easiest to him, or which look toward his profession. There is an immense pressure in our age, and in every age, for superficial education—something to give reputation and polish at the least expense of time and effort."

Though the passage refers to the future, it expresses a view of the present which is held by many. In opposition to this view, I wish to show (1) that, instead of aiming at a saving of time, Harvard has considerably raised the average age of graduation of her students within a brief term of years; (2) that the foundation of required work on which the "elective" system is constructed is a substantial one; (3) that the results which the elective system has brought about, working in connection with its natural ally, the "honor" system (non-existent in your letters), are such as the system of required work has never produced, at least at Harvard. To this end I shall describe the present state of things as briefly as the case will admit, and shall then allow myself an expression of opinion about the future.

It will be observed that this letter confines itself to the system as it exists at Harvard, and neither alludes to other colleges and universities which, avowedly or not, are in sympathy with Harvard, nor takes up the question whether the elective system would be a proper one to introduce next year throughout the country.

The Harvard of to-day is a complex institution, and its system should be judged, not with reference to one detail alone, but as a working unit. Harvard College is really more than a college: it is a college plus a body of preparatory schools. Harvard has the good fortune to be fed by sources which are quick to respond to any advance in her requirements, whether in methods or in quantity. There is of course nothing as yet in this country that corresponds to the relation existing between the German universities and the *Gymnasien;* but some faint approach to such a state of things is already to be seen in the relation of Harvard to her feeders. Secured by this large source of supply, she has steadily raised her demands and freely rejected ill-prepared candidates. The result is, that she is able to-day to exact a high quality of preparatory work, and that—a very important factor in her system—she is dealing with a maturer class of students than formerly. Statistics for the older classes are incomplete, and statistics at the best are treacherous, unless extending over a considerable term of years; for the fluctuation from year to year is great. But there is sufficient evidence that the average age of graduation is rising. As nearly as the figures at my command will show, the average age in the '60s was 21 years 9 months. The mean average of the last four classes, which is accurately known, was 22 years 4.7 months, or nearly 8 months higher than in the '60s (the class of 1881 reached the remarkable average of 22 years 11.7 months). Or, to put the same thing in another way, at least the larger part of the final year at Harvard is practically a pure addition to her course as it was taken by many men who are still young.

It should be noted that this higher grade of preparation is as marked in respect of quality as in respect of quantity. The examinations for admission are of a kind to exact of the candidate a certain amount of power to work in absolute isolation from all helps. This is most conspicuously to be seen in the test of translation "at sight," which forms an important part of the examinations in languages.

Of the young men selected in this way, the most worthless are weeded out during the first year, under a very watchful process which rests finally upon the test of frequent examinations. The actual depletion of the Freshman class through direct dropping at Christmas-time and in June, and voluntary surrender under fear of dropping, is about ten per cent. The same process is repeated in the following years, though naturally on a less striking scale.

At the beginning of the Sophomore year, the student—whose work, with the exception of training in the writing of English, is to be henceforth of his own choosing—has laid the following foundation: he has passed a somewhat severe admission-examination, after having had the training of some school which is in sympathy with the methods of the college, or after some other training of a kind to enable him to maintain himself side by side with the graduates of such schools; and the sum-total of his general preparation for the more special work of the last three years has covered the following range: Greek, Latin, mathematics, French and German (an elementary knowledge of one of the two is required for admission), and the elements of physics and chemistry. Furthermore, during the whole of this general preparation the aim of the work, so far as lies within the power of the college, has been not merely to make the student acquainted with certain subjects, but to prepare him to develop the power of self-direction.

From this time on, with the single limitation that the student (in the words of the Catalogue) "must satisfy his instructors that he is qualified by his previous training to pursue the courses which he selects," "all the courses given in the college are open to him in making his choice; but he is strongly recommended to make his choice with great care, under the best advice, and in such a manner that his elective courses, from first to last, may form a rationally-connected whole." The advice available to him will come mainly from his parents or from his instructors. In the case under discussion, the great majority of the parents concerned are educated, and are capable of guiding the choice of their sons with more or less intelligence. As regards the advice of instructors (if it is safe to judge from the experience of one of the youngest of them), it is asked and given to a considerable extent, and it will be asked more and more as the intercourse between student and instructor becomes more and more natural. However this may be, whether affected by parents and instructors or not, the choice of the student, though absolute in theory, in practice is largely guided by a certain distinct provision which is at once check and stimulus. This provision (which has not made its appearance in your columns) is the most striking feature of the new system. It is to this, working within the lines of the elective system, that the remarkable record of the last few classes owes its existence. The theory of this feature requires a statement: It is the aim of the college, from the very beginning of the Freshman year, so to train its students that at the end of their course they shall be capable of taking a piece of work into their own hands and prosecuting it successfully, or, in homely language, to teach men to go, instead of being led. Go they must, from the moment they carry home their parchment on commencement morning. Very few of them will find an intellectual mentor ready to take them in hand when their alma mater turns them out of the college nursery. It is the belief of the college—and just here is the key-note of her whole system—that that young man is best trained, for whatsoever occupation in life, who, in addition to a general preparation of reasonable breadth, has acquired also the power of self-directed and self-watchful thought—who, in a word, possesses, on however low a plane of absolute attainment, that trained habit of mind which enables a man to think continuously and accurately; and that a college graduate who lacks this mental habit may have a good deal of information, but is not an educated man.

In consequence of this idea, the system is so arranged as to induce students to concentrate their work in the last three years, and to aim at excellence of scholarship and the acquirement

of the power of self-guidance through advanced study in some group of logically-related members—as, for instance, in the classics, in mathematics, in some combination of the natural sciences. Examinations existing only to this end are held twice in the college course, the first set toward the end of the second year (for second-year honors, so called), the second set toward the end of the Senior year (for final honors, so called). As a condition for presenting himself for one of these sets of examinations, a student (1) must have attained a specified standing in the regular work of the preceding year or years in the department concerned—by which arrangement the spirit of the system is made to reach even the Freshman year; (2) must have devoted to his honor-group a specified proportion of his elective work; (3) must have done, with no help from his instructors beyond an indication of methods and of advisable books, a very considerable amount of specified outside work. (The fact that the student has in this work no instructor and no guide but himself is of the utmost importance.) This done, he presents himself for the examinations, which cover the ground of his outside work, and also test him thoroughly by presenting fresh work to be done upon the spot without help. They are of a high character, and represent that grade of scholarship which can fairly be expected of the student at the stage of the college course to which they correspond.

To meet the case of men who are willing to concentrate their work in part, but not sufficiently to become candidates for honors, the college offers what is called "honorable mention at graduation" to such as attain a high specified standing, in a specified number of hours, in one or more of certain studies.

The result of this double system is that it is fast becoming "bad form" to graduate without the one or the other of these two distinctions. And it may well be believed that it is not only the general sentiment of the students upon which the college can rely in this respect. Not many fathers or mothers who see in the yearly Catalogue the record of honors reprinted from the previous commencement programme will fail to throw their influence in the same direction.

The statistics of the last year, as seen in the Catalogue, are as follows: Second-year honors were won by 26 men (of whom 8 obtained them with the highest distinction) out of a class of 217 men; final honors were won by 28 men (of whom 7 obtained them with the highest distinction) out of a graduating class of 182 men; honorable mention was won by 108 men of the same class, of which number 36 received it in two or more subjects.

Unfortunately, however, no statistics can exhibit the true difference between the scholarship of the college under its present system and its scholarship under the old. We reach here a matter of opinion, hard for any one to judge of who has not known the college intimately under both systems. I beg to offer my own opinion, which is this: that the best men of my own time (*quorum pace dixerim*) were far inferior on the day of graduation, both in working power and in actual attainment, to the best men of the present day. The spirit of the best of us was the schoolboy spirit; the spirit of the best of the graduates of the last few years is the scholarly spirit.

Hardly less important is the influence of these better men that seek honors upon their poorer fellows—say of the 108 honorable-mention men in the last class upon the 74 who did not seek, or at least did not win, distinction at graduation. It is the natural result of the honor and honorable-mention system that the numerical advantage in nearly every class-room lies with the ambitious students who have chosen the subject in question because they distinctly desire that which it has to give. These men set the standard for the class. They are critical, exacting, impatient of any waste of time. They furnish a powerful stimulus and a powerful support for the instructor, and the result is that he can, and does, demand higher work of the whole body of students under him — candidates for honors, candidates for honorable mention, and dullards and shirks that have still survived the weeding-out process—than is possible under the system of prescribed courses. And the result is that, while the best men under the present system are better than the best under the old, the worst men are at the same time less bad than the worst under the old.

As regards the other side of college life, the conduct of the students, the effects of the present régime have been as admirable as in regard to scholarship. Under the more natural relation existing between student and instructor, due in part to the attitude deliberately assumed by the faculty, and in part to the increased interest of the students in the work of the university, and under the constantly-increasing influence of that best of all indirect moral agencies—intellectual interests and a conscious purpose—a standard of student-honor has already grown up which does not differ very appreciably from that of the world at large. With the schoolboy spirit of work is disappearing the schoolboy spirit of conduct. Wherever a firm authority is needed, it is still exercised; but it is rarely needed. It is with difficulty that one who has lodged and lived in the midst of Harvard students within the last few years can believe in the reality of the things which he himself saw as student and as proctor under the old régime. Indeed, one sometimes becomes apprehensive that the sense of humor may be dying out at Harvard, and it is with something like a feeling of relief that one reads of such a bit of mischief as that recent one (conducted, it seems, in a perfectly orderly manner) whereby some sixty students made public confession of their conversion, for a single evening, to Mr. Oscar Wilde's gospel of dress.

The spirit of conduct and the spirit of scholarship in the Harvard of to-day—to put into a single phrase the purport of this over-long letter—were well expressed by Mr. James Russell Lowell in my own time, when he began a course of lectures to undergraduates with words that stirred our boyish hearts: "Gentlemen and fellow-students." It was, in honest truth, only a prophecy then; it is fast becoming a reality now.

So much as regards the present at Harvard. As regards the future, there is no reasonable ground for fear of precipitate action. Those who have watched the process of change know it to have been a cautious and gradual one. No step has been taken until the right to take it has been earned. It is more than probable that all the work of the college will become elective when the preparatory schools shall have been brought up to such a standard as to perform, both in quantity and in quality, the work now done in the Freshman year in the college. It is perfectly conceivable that this generation may not live to see that time; but in the face of the astonishing rise in the standard of admission, especially in quality, within the last twenty years, it would be bold to make any confident assertion to this effect.

The problems of university education in America will probably remain for some time in an unsettled state. Their final settlement will turn upon the settlement of the simple question, What is education? If the answer now given by Harvard is false, then her methods are false, and will in time give way; if her answer is sound, then her methods are sound. For the high grade of working power which she is aiming more and more to produce in her students can be attained only by persistent and partly self-directed effort within the limits of a group of subjects of which the student can grasp the relations in something like the spirit of a specialist. But this method requires concentration of work, and that concentration is possible only under the elective system.

Respectfully yours, W. G. Hale.

Ithaca, N. Y., March 31, 1882.

Notes.

James R. Osgood & Co. are to publish the authorized edition of the works of the late President Garfield, now being carefully prepared and edited by President Hinsdale, of Hiram College. It will make two octavo volumes, and will probably leave the press toward the close of the year.

'Rousseau,' by Henry Graham, will form the seventeenth volume of Mrs. Oliphant's "Foreign Classics for English Readers," of which J. B. Lippincott & Co. are the American publishers.

Wm. Chambers's 'Story of a Busy Life,' and 'Toward the Sunrise,' a book of travel, by Hugh Johnston, are among this month's issues of R. Worthington.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have nearly ready 'Thomas à Kempis and the Brothers of Common Life,' by the Rev. S. Kettlewell, in two volumes 8vo.

A. D. F. Randolph & Co. publish immediately 'Saunterings in Europe,' by Charles Wood.

Simultaneously with the completion of part 4 of Skeat's 'Etymological Dictionary of the English Language,' Macmillan & Co. announce that they have arranged with Oxford University for a cheap edition, specially made for the American market, and unabridged. It is almost ready.

Mr. Samuel Hollyer, 27 Warren Street, New York, invites subscriptions to a line and stipple engraving representing the late Henry W. Longfellow in his library. The prospectus indicates less familiarity with the pen than (we may assume) with the graver on the artist's part.

Longfellow's 'Hyperion,' on which, apparently, the copyright has lapsed, has been published in paper covers by the John W. Lovell Company, of this city, in good clear type, and at a very moderate price.

'Bay-Path' and 'Arthur Bonnicastle' are the two latest volumes in the Messrs. Scribner's uniform, handy, and tasteful reprint of the late Dr. Holland's works.

Professor Newcomb's 'Popular Astronomy' has undergone a fourth revision, and, as now published by the Messrs. Harper, contains new matter relating to the great telescopes completed within the past three years, the recent development in cometary astronomy, and the approaching transit of Venus on December 6. These changes are not relegated to an appendix, but take their proper places in the body of the work, thus implying a further periodical revision, which a standard work of this character deserves.

A catalogue which combines antiquarian interest and legal utility has just been published by R. D. Cooke, 73 Cortlandt Street—namely, 'Old Streets, Roads, Lanes, Piers, and Wharves of New York,' by John J. Post, of the New York Bar. The arrangement is simple and lucid, the streets being enumerated alphabetically, first by their former and then by their existing names, with parallel identifications in each case. A third part of this thin volume shows the various street extensions and widenings, or *vice versa*. The labor of such a compilation merits

a full reward. As a sample of Mr. Post's scrupulous minuteness, we quote the ancient synonyms for that part of Nassau Street which lies between Wall and John Streets: "The Pie-woman's Street. The street that leads to the pie-woman's. Street that leads to the pie-woman's. Pie-woman's Lane. Pie-woman's Street."

Mr. H. P. Hubbard's 'Newspaper and Bank Directory of the World' (New Haven) does not differ very much intrinsically from similar undertakings, so far as the American portion is concerned. This fills volume i., which is distinguished from its companion by a greater abundance of illustrations, and these, it must be admitted, very curious. There is a large number of reduced facsimiles of newspapers, old and new, of all nations; views of newspaper offices (pretty ugly, as a rule); and photographs of editors, with abundance of information about the history of printing and of presses. Then there are maps of the United States and of the several States, and physical and statistical accounts of each in the fashion of a gazetteer. The same scheme is pursued with vol. ii., which alone contains the list of banks and bankers and information pertinent thereto. Many of the general articles are in French, German, and Spanish, as well as in English. On the whole, the enterprise bears the marks of great energy, method, and intelligence. Two statements in this 'Directory' are worth remarking: that nearly one-third of our American weeklies are "patent insides" (or "outsides," or "auxiliaries," or "coöperatives"); and that 31,411 of the total 34,274 journals of the entire globe are published between 30° and 60° north latitude.

Ginn, Heath & Co., of Boston, publish a sheet of cardboard, with test-types, for the use of teachers in ascertaining the existence of near-sight among scholars. The type is clear and suitable. All such aids in popularizing a most important branch of hygiene ought to be welcomed.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have published, at the instance of the State Charities Aid Association, a little work, on 'First Aid to the Injured,' which appropriately bears on its cover the Geneva red cross. It is designed as a manual for classes now being extensively formed for instruction in this "first aid."

Mr. H. Courthope Bowen's 'Shakspere Reading Book' (Cassell) has the usual defects of abridgments, expurgatory and other, of the poet. Still, the editor's views on the *quality* of reading in public schools are eminently sound, and too little appreciated in this country, as he says they are in England. The book will well serve his end; and of course, without cutting, this use of Shakspere becomes impracticable.

Among recent classical text-books we may mention, as on our table, Madvig's edition of Cicero's 'De Finibus' (Harper's), a nice thing for the pocket; and the Clarendon Press Livy, books v.–vii. (Macmillan), a little larger than the foregoing, and well supplied with English notes. The text is Madvig's.

Electricity fills a large space—some eighty pages—in M. Louis Figuier's 'L'Année Scientifique' for 1881, which promptly reaches us (New York: Christern). The frontispiece, indeed, pictures the late International Exposition of Electricity, and a special section is allotted to it. America, of course, comes prominently upon the scene here, as in the section on public hygiene, because of the trichinosis scare. The planting of American vines is still noted as one of the defences against the phylloxera. Littré leads the Necrology, and a definition of him by a niece of Lamartine —"C'est un saint qui ne croit pas en Dieu"—is fitly quoted. Dr. I. I. Hayes and Prof. J. C. Watson are the only American men of science whose deaths are here recorded.

A new 'Constitutional History of England,' by Professor Gneist, is announced to be shortly forthcoming.

Aid is still needed for the American Archæological Institute's Assos Expedition, which resumed work on March 1, with the added assistance of a young Danish architect of distinction. The results thus far fully justify the prudent outlay. Contributions may be sent to Prof. C. E. Norton, at Cambridge, Mass.

—D. Lothrop & Co., Boston, have recently published a book by Wm. F. Bainbridge, under the title 'Around-the-World Tour of Christian Missions: a Universal Survey.' What claim this title has to accuracy may be stated in a moment. The author made his somewhat leisurely circumnavigation in 1879–80, starting from Providence, R. I., and following for the most part the beaten tracks. He visited Japan and China, and a few Protestant missionary stations in the East Indies and Syria, returning to Europe by the Suez Canal. How many stations he actually saw it is not easy to make out from this wordy narrative; it may have been one in fifty of those which would be included in a "universal survey of Christian missions." Mr. Bainbridge does not even give a description of those he professes to describe. Thus there is a chapter on the "Sandwich Islands, Alaska, and Siberia"; turning to which, we find the author on board of a steamer in the mid-Pacific Ocean, and reflecting that "in this vast solitude it is a little comforting to think that only a thousand miles away are the Sandwich Islands." We do not learn whether a reciprocal sense of "comfort" was felt in Honolulu. This was his nearest acquaintance with the group; except for a rambling and inaccurate mention of the Hawaiian mission, his "survey" goes no further. The book is worthless, except for a list of missions given in an appendix. Mrs. W. F. Bainbridge's companion volume, of 'Round the World Letters,' reproduced from the journals to which they were written, has a certain sprightliness of style. It does not pretend to be a "universal survey" of anything, and it is at least free from cant.

—Mr. Alexander Johnston's little handbook called a 'History of American Politics' (Henry Holt & Co.) passes to a second edition with its seventh thousand copies, and offers a sum total of forty additional pages. The quite new matter consists of a very useful appendix of nine pages, exhibiting the Cabinet officers of the several Administrations, with their dates of appointment; and, besides many minor revisions, the period since Johnson's Administration has been especially worked over, the whole ending with the accession of President Arthur. Of this manual we need not repeat our praise: it is at once a bird's-eye view and an index, and deserves to find its way into every school of the higher grade, where the special knowledge of the teacher will have scope for indefinite expansion concerning any topic, character, or period. It is, perhaps, in strictness rather to be called a diary or an annual than a history, for its plan does not permit the exposition of political development upon this, that, or the other line. The significant event is noted in its proper place, but we miss its antecedents, and its consequences are not always apparent as such. The anti-slavery movement is a good instance of this. Precisely this defect is overcome in the ingenious and admirable 'Handbook of English Political History,' edited by Mr. Dyke Acland and Professor Ransome, and lately published in London by the Messrs. Rivington. First we have, on the right-hand page, the course, year by year and month by month, of political occurrences, with not infrequent references to the left-hand page for details —of a bill, of a ministry, of a pedigree, of a treaty, etc.—which would have encumbered the diary. Often a good deal of blank space is left for the student's own notes, and the right-hand third of the same page is devoted to contemporaneous events in foreign countries. This is all capitally executed, and, let us add, in very handsome typography. But now follows a series of "Summaries," arbitrarily chosen, of course, but with just knowledge and proportion, and which show chronologically the growth of the powers of Parliament, the drift of matters ecclesiastical, the significant dates and deeds in Welsh, Scottish, and Irish affairs, the steps toward Union, the French and American wars, the struggle for the Corn Laws, the romance of India, the march of Reform, and the like. This synthetic complement of the first part leaves nothing to be desired in the idea of a political manual, and we would counsel Mr. Johnston and his publishers to profit by so excellent an example. We should almost be prepared to recommend imitation also of the arrangement of the first portion, even if it involved the entire resetting of the "History."

—In Mr. Cutter's report to the proprietors of the Boston *Athenæum*, on the completion of his herculean catalogue, he recites a number of laughable errors detected in the work after he came to it. One was the mistaking of *ganz* (Deutschland) for Ghent—"French *Gand*," it was explained. A different sort of mistake was the failure to enter "G. W. Dasent's 'Tales from the North,' which is a translation of Asbjörnsen and Moe's 'Norske Folkeeventyr,' under Asbjörnsen. While Mr. Cutter was exposing this shortcoming, the *Athenæum* was printing a controversy which indirectly exculpated the cataloguer at the expense of the translator—Sir George Dasent had studiously omitted to mention Asbjörnsen as the author whom he was reproducing. Such is the complaint of Mr. H. L. Brækstad, who brought out at Christmas time (through Sampson Low) a translation not only of the 'Folke Eventyr,' but also of the second series, the 'Huldre Eventyr.' Copies of 'Round the Yule Log,' as the book is called, reached this country somewhat past the time for seasonable notice, but we cannot regard it as too late to recommend the pretty volume to all parents, for their children's sake and for their own. The translation is more racy than Sir George Dasent's, as we recall the latter, and it has, what was altogether lacking there, the personal element of the story-teller—the setting of adventure, incident, landscape, weather, which gives an inexpressible charm to Asbjörnsen's tales. Add to this that the illustrations are Norse and not English, and capital in their way. Mr. E. W. Gosse furnishes a brief introduction, and there are portraits of both Asbjörnsen and Moe.

—We are at a loss what to say of another child's book, bearing the same London imprint, which has been lying beside 'Round the Yule Log' on our table. The Norse trolls and witches offer sufficient to alarm and repel the mind of a sensitive child, even when Asbjörnsen represents and reports them; but Mr. Bram Stoker's 'Under the Sunset' has terrors which cannot so easily be shaken off. The first part is an allegory of Paradise Lost, in which the entrance of sin takes the form of a pestilence, and the youthful reader is led along by such cheerful running-titles as "The Scoffer Stricken," "The Ice-cold Hand," "Warning of Danger," "The Procession of the Dead Past," etc., and stimulated by occasional sentences like this: "Lonely nights—black want, cold, hunger, and pain; and through all these darkening shadows the swift moving shadow of the Mother's flying feet." The story of David and Goliath is served up anew, with a nightmare etching of the giant's overthrow. The book ends

with some illusory attempts at humor, still more or less combined with moral allegory, for which the author of 'Alice in Wonderland' may be, but ought not to be, held responsible. To say that no child should be encouraged to read 'Under the Sunset' is not the same as passing judgment on its readability; but that is a secondary matter. The illustrations on copper are striking if gloomy, and in some degree vindicate the author's imaginativeness.

—The circular reading-room of the British Museum, with its superintendent's desk in the centre, from which he has a clear view of the whole room (like the warder in Bentham's Panopticon), the great catalogue circling round this central post of observation, and the lines of readers' desks radiating from that to the walls, where 20,000 selected volumes are arranged at their unrestricted disposal, is at once so simple and convenient that it has excited great and deserved admiration in England. It is one of the features of the metropolis of which Londoners are proud, although it was designed by a foreigner. Its simplicity, far from detracting from the credit of the design, is seen to be like that of Columbus's egg—the simple plan that comes to the man that thoroughly understands his subject, and to him only. It has been always understood that it was made from Mr. Panizzi's drawing; and that there might be no mistake about it, the architect wrote to Mr. Panizzi in 1858: "I feel no hesitation in stating that the idea of a circular reading-room with surrounding library, and with divisions formed wholly of bookcases, was perfectly original and entirely your own." Mr. Panizzi evidently agreed with him—at least he never contradicted Mr. Smirke. And yet there is in existence a copy, *presented to Panizzi by the author* in 1836, of a 'Mémoire,' by M. Delessert, in which a circular library is proposed so like Panizzi's that the ground plan might easily be mistaken for that of the Museum reading-room. There is this difference, that in M. Delessert's plan the space occupied at the Museum by the catalogues is devoted to readers, and the Museum's radiating readers' desks are, in Delessert's plan, radiating book-shelves. Panizzi's modification would easily occur to any one who wanted more room for readers than was afforded in Delessert's arrangement, especially if he had Delessert's plan before him. On the other hand, the coincidence may be merely the result of an impression received, forgotten, and, after lying dormant for twenty years, revived when circumstances made it useful. Or finally, it may be one of those common cases in which two minds, working on the same problem, arrive at the same result. Panizzi had no need to appropriate the credit of other people's ideas.

—An essay by Dr. Brinton, which has just appeared in a pamphlet, treats of 'The Names of the Gods in the Kiché Myths.' These myths are recorded in the Kiché book called 'Popol Vuh,' the most substantial remnant of aboriginal literature which has come down to us from the pre-Columbian time. Concerning this book Mr. Bandelier wrote, in his paper on the "Sources for Aboriginal History of Spanish America," "We do not hesitate to say that American aboriginal history has no document or source whatever which is more valuable than the three last parts of the 'Popol Vuh'; but we are equally convinced that a closer study of the Indian language in which it is composed is absolutely needed. A new translation of it should be undertaken." A careful study, if not a new translation, of this unique document seems to have been undertaken by Dr. Brinton, who seeks to "analyze the proper names of the divinities" which appear in the pages of the 'Popol Vuh'. His special facilities for this task, in addition to his familiarity with the mythological field, consist in certain manuscript vocabularies and grammars of the Kiché and related languages, which are in his possession or at his service. The essay, we are glad to say, is an honest and thorough piece of work, indicating a considerable advance upon anything thus far produced in the Central American field. Dr. Brinton complains, doubtless with good reason, of the "extreme paucity of material for studying the Kiché," and says that, with the exception of a brief vocabulary of the principal roots by Ximenez, "no dictionary is available"—which may be either a momentary oversight, or an utter discrediting by implication of Brasseur's 'Grammar of the Quiché Language,' which contains a vocabulary of eighty octavo pages. Mr. Bandelier, in the valuable essay above referred to, expresses strong suspicions concerning the aboriginal origin of certain portions of the 'Popol Vuh,' especially of the cosmogony embodied in the first part, where he finds traces not only of the Mosaic traditions, but of the "Logos" doctrine of the Gospel of St. John, and says: "Whatever signification may be attached to the Logos, its conception as an acting individuality, a personal spiritual being, is certainly not Indian." From this view Dr. Brinton emphatically dissents, expressing the conviction that "such an opinion will pass away when the original is accurately translated." Nevertheless, the 'Popol Vuh,' in the only form in which we know it, originated after the Discovery, and was reduced to writing by some one who had come under missionary teaching. It is only to be expected, therefore, that traces of Christian thought should appear in it; how much of this element there is in it can be decided only after the document becomes thoroughly familiar to us.

—On another point, which is attracting more and more attention, Dr. Brinton's essay will enable his readers to come to more enlightened conclusions—namely, the place of the Central American peoples (and the Mexican) in the line of human culture. A tribe whose religious beliefs were as crude, and their practices as gross, as those of the Kichés seem to have been, can hardly be regarded as having attained to the conditions of civilization. The late Lewis H. Morgan endeavored, in various works of his, to make people see that the name "civilization" was a misnomer as applied to any of the American tribes or "nations." The more carefully the aboriginal status of these tribes is studied, the more evident it becomes that Morgan was right; and now that he is gone, it is interesting to note the gradual but sure spread of his thoroughly rational views. The temptation to extravagance is greater in the Central American field than anywhere else; but Dr. Brinton speaks with a caution quite in contrast with the old-fashioned random talk. While Dr. Le Plongeon and M. Charnay fairly revel in the conceptions they have formed of a rich and grand civilization once occupying the Central American region, Dr. Brinton simply speaks of the Kichés and Mayas as the race "which approached the nearest to a civilized condition." This is the phraseology of the opening line of his pamphlet; but on page 27 he speaks of them as "these secluded and semi-barbarous tribes." By "semi-barbarous" he means, of course, semi-civilized; but such designations are very unsatisfactory. Would it not be a great gain if some such nomenclature as Morgan suggested in his 'Ancient Society' could be generally adopted, so that the status of barbarism, in which all the American races were included, might be distinguished from savagery on the one side and from civilization on the other?

—A number of well-known lawyers of this city have united in an appeal to the friends of Harvard University, and especially of the Harvard Law School, for the purpose of raising a fund to add to the endowment of the Law School library. A fund of $40,000 has already been secured, but from $30,000 to $40,000 more is needed. Those who know what an important part the Law School at Cambridge is playing in the elevation of the standards of professional education, will be surprised to learn that of all the Cambridge schools it has the poorest endowment. The total endowment is a little over forty-eight thousand dollars ($48,070 63); apart from the income of this fund the school lives upon its earnings. On the other hand, the Scientific School fund is set down at nearly eight hundred thousand dollars ($765,519 71); the Divinity School fund at over three hundred thousand ($310,833 90); and the Medical School fund (deducting their building fund of over $160,000) at nearly a hundred and nineteen thousand ($118,619 18). It may be added that vigorous efforts are now being made for the increase of the medical endowment. On the other hand, the expenses of the Law School have greatly increased. There are now five professors and an instructor, where there were formerly only two and afterward three professors; and the professors, instead of being paid two or three thousand dollars, have now the not excessive salary of forty-five hundred dollars. On the other hand, instead of admitting to its degree any person who chooses to attend for eighteen months, the School now requires a three years' course of study, a thorough examination for the degree, another thorough examination in order to pass from one year to another, and, in the case of all who have not had the discipline indicated by a college degree, an examination for admission. The average expenses of the library for books and binding during the last ten years have been $3,289 26. In this period an undesirable economy has been practised, and much that was needed has been left unbought. A fund of $60,000 would hardly supply what has thus been paid; it is very desirable that it should be larger. It is hoped that New York will add to the $40,000 already provided enough to put the library of the School on an independent footing. The appeal is signed by Dorman B. Eaton, William G. Choate, James C. Carter, Joseph H. Choate, and other well-known members of the bar.

—The regular musical season is approaching its close. Already the Symphony Society has given its last concert, and other societies will soon follow its example. Dr. Damrosch had chosen an ambitious and attractive programme—Beethoven's great "Leonore" overture, and Berlioz's dramatic symphony "Romeo and Juliet." Beethoven's popular overture, which is really a perfect drama in a nutshell, is always welcome, and its presence on this occasion enabled the audience to estimate the value of Berlioz's proud boast to Fétis that he "took up music where Beethoven had left it." Perhaps also it was intended by the juxtaposition of these two works to suggest that Berlioz got his hint for the invisible chorus behind the scene in the third division of the symphony from the thrilling trumpet call in Beethoven's overture. Nevertheless it would have been better had the overture been omitted. The symphony is very long in itself when given without cuts, and a concert should never extend beyond two hours. In performing it the orchestra had the assistance of the Oratorio Society, and Miss Lena Little, Mr. Toedt, and Mr. Remmertz as soloists. Mr. Remmertz has not sung so well on any previous occasion this season, his voice displaying, especially in the air in

the last division, a sonorous strength and vigor suggestive of Herr Betz of Berlin. The other soloists also did well, and the chorus and orchestra executed their tasks with an appearance of ease and confidence, and a display of enthusiasm, that showed most of the good points in the work in a clear and favorable light. The most serious criticism applies to the limited chorus in the first division, which in the brief unaccompanied passages so completely lost the pitch that the reëntrance of the instruments produced a jarring discord. The audience vigorously applauded the leading numbers, especially the "Mab, bright elf of Dreamland," for tenor solo and small chorus, which had to be repeated, although, like the Queen Mab scherzo for orchestra alone, it is rather an empty and uninteresting piece of music. The same may be said of the famous adagio, which begins beautifully, but ends in a dreary waste of sound. The whole symphony, truth to tell, leaves a depressing and monotonous feeling in the listener, the only two numbers which display true inspiration being the grand final chorus and the concert and feast at Capulet's house, in which latter the vigorous pulsation of the rhythm and the combination of motives produce a stirring and almost delirious effect.

—Berlioz, who, during his lifetime, could only get his works performed by undertaking concerts of his own, alludes in many of his letters to the sensation created by selections from his "Romeo and Juliet." Thus he writes to his friend Ferrand from London in 1840, that the symphony was again the cause of many tears, "passions inconcevables," and brilliant conversions. The enthusiasm culminated in an Englishman's buying the bâton with which Berlioz had conducted, for five pounds. Three months later, at a concert in the same city, the meaningless phrase assigned to the trombones in the Introduction was interrupted at its third repetition by salvos of applause! It was, forsooth, a novelty, and received tribute as such. The three principal objections to "Romeo and Juliet" can be briefly summed up in a few sentences. The first relates to a personal matter. The tender and pathetic character of Shakspere's play was not so well calculated to arouse Berlioz's creative powers as those subjects in which a bizarre, colossal, volcanic, stupendous tone prevails. The second is an æsthetic and formal objection. A programme prefixed to a symphonic poem is of advantage in so far as it indicates the emotions which inspired the composer to write his work. But a "dramatic symphony," in which choral recitatives and choruses alternate with solo pieces and instrumental numbers in an endeavor to give color to a dramatic subject, errs in so far as it compels the hearer to endeavor to harmonize the details of the music with the details of the plot and action, without giving him the advantage he has in an opera of beholding with his eyes the pictorial scenes which the ear fails to detect in the music. The general formal objection to the oratorio is simply exaggerated in such a "symphony," based on a dramatic subject. The third objection is purely musical. Berlioz was so great a master of instrumental coloring that, as we may say, he covered his canvas with tints before he bethought him of his figures. In other words, he too frequently lacked ideas. Composing was hard work for him. Had he but united Schubert's incessant flow of ideas with his own marvellous instinct for fine instrumental combinations, he would have been the greatest of modern orchestral composers.

THE ENGLISH CONSTITUTION FROM 1760 TO 1860.

The Constitutional History of England from 1760 to 1860. By Charles Duke Yonge, M.A., Regius Professor of Modern History, Queen's College, Belfast. London: Marcus Ward & Co.; New York: Harper & Bros. 1882.

"A LETTER," writes Mr. Yonge, "of the Prince Consort examines the principle of ministerial responsibility with so remarkable a clearness of perception and distinctness of explanation that we may be excused for quoting it at length: 'The notion that the responsibility of his advisers impairs the monarch's dignity and importance, is a complete mistake. Here we have no law of ministerial responsibility, for the simple reason that we have no written Constitution; but this responsibility flows as a logical necessity from the dignity of the Crown and of the sovereign.'"

Much ignorance of English life is pardonable in a prince and a German; but an English professor of history who endorses with his approval the natural mistakes of a royal and foreign pedant cannot hope to escape censure. Now, the sentences selected by Mr. Yonge for special commendation are as curious a specimen of the mode in which words may conceal facts as can be found in all literature. The "notion" which is denounced as a "complete mistake" is a simple truth. The responsibility of Ministers, not to the Crown, but to Parliament, is and must be a diminution in the power, and therefore in the importance, of the throne. Such responsibility has been, and always must be, hateful to despotic or autocratic monarchs. Hence Prince Bismarck, and men like him, will not for a moment tolerate it. Even the Prince Consort might, one would have thought, have reflected that the very reason why constitutional or democratic revolutionists insist upon ministerial responsibility is their desire to limit royal authority. Responsibility will always in the long run go hand in hand with power. This results not from any legal fiction, but from the laws of human nature. To fancy that a monarch can be powerful while his Ministers are responsible to the nation, is as absurd as to think that a man can be master in his own house while somebody else pays and controls his servants.

The professor who instructs his students that the importance of the Crown is not diminished by the Parliamentary responsibility of Ministers, shows that he is a slave to words, and that he lacks the quality—of being able to distinguish fact from fiction—which is the most essential of all qualities in a person who undertakes to narrate and to explain the development of that mass of laws, conventions, practices, habits, and sentiments which passes under the misleading title of the English Constitution. For the marked characteristic of constitutional history during the century covered by Mr. Yonge's work, is this: the Constitution of England underwent a radical and essential change, amounting to something like transformation into a new system of government, while the forms of the Constitution underwent scarcely any alteration whatever. Hence it is a matter of the utmost importance, and at the same time of the utmost difficulty, to distinguish with the most careful discrimination forms and realities. To do this requires much knowledge and still more insight; for in all English institutions names and things, shadow and substance, are divided from each other by no sharp and clearly-drawn line. What was reality yesterday may be little more than form to-day. We all know, for example, that the Queen's actual power falls infinitely short of her theoretical authority. Every one understands that the will and the intentions of Mr. Gladstone are of far more importance than the wishes of Queen Victoria; but no one out of the Cabinet, and few perhaps within it, can tell with certainty where the actual and still less where the possible authority of the Crown begins or ends. The child who dreams that the Queen sits crowned upon her throne, and rules over the British Empire in the same sense in which Louis XIV. governed France, is a little more—and perhaps only a little more—astray from the truth than the Radical who fancies that the will or the caprice of the sovereign goes for nothing in the government of England.

A writer, therefore, on constitutional history is certain to be a blind leader of the blind, unless he be gifted with what may be termed a sense of realities. This endowment is a rare one. Mr. Yonge assuredly does not possess it. Of the outward and, so to speak, visible facts of his subject he knows as much as may be gained from the pages of Sir Thomas May, to whom he owes a debt which, as far as we have observed, he never acknowledges; but of the spirit, the real nature, the life of the Constitution he knows nothing. A page of Bagehot's 'English Constitution,' a chapter of F. D. Maurice's far too little known essay on the 'Representation and Education of the People,' will teach intelligent readers far more that is worth knowing than a hundred such works as Prof. Yonge's dreary manual. Yet the subject with which he deals might, in spite of its difficulties, have evoked, one would have thought, some remarks worth making and remembering. For Mr. Yonge's account of constitutional changes, though dull, flat, and commonplace enough as a narrative, is not altogether profitless or unsuggestive reading. The mere enumeration in chronological order of the patent alterations in the Constitution of England must suggest to many intelligent readers reflections which seem never to have occurred to their teacher. Any one, in short, who will try to look through words and forms to things and realities, may, from Prof. Yonge's book and from ordinary knowledge of English literature and of modern England, draw some more or less important inferences as to the essential differences between the Georgian Constitution of 1760 and the Victorian Constitution of 1860.

It is, in the first place, absolutely certain, let princes, pedants, or professors say what they like, that the importance of the Crown was far greater in the middle of the eighteenth than in the middle of the nineteenth century. The will of George III. went for much more in all political matters, whether great or small, than does, or at any time did, the will of his granddaughter. The King, when quite young, and without either prestige or experience, drove the most popular statesman of the age from power. At a later period he kept in power by his own will a Minister who had the support neither of popularity nor of success. If the accession of Pitt not only to office but to authority was in one sense the defeat of George's efforts to establish his own personal government, it was also the rout of the King's foes. Pitt himself was, as all the world knows, hampered at every turn by the King's wishes and (what was always the same thing) the King's prejudices. George's liability to madness rather increased than lessened his influence. With that strange cunning which is often combined with mental unsoundness, the monarch drew no small advantage from the threat that he might at any moment go mad. Ministers who suggested Catholic Emancipation were held by all persons of good feeling to be heartless brutes, prepared to risk the chance of driving the sovereign into a lunatic asylum. Nor did the royal influence really depend on the character of the monarch. People may have revered the "good old King," but Tories and Whigs alike supposed that the whole policy of the nation might be at once changed by the accession

to power of the bad young Prince. No one can assert that the expectation was groundless. George III.'s two sons were each of them real powers in English politics. That Catholic Emancipation was delayed till 1829, that the Reform Bill was carried in 1832, was due in great part to the character of George IV. and of his brother. If the one had been a little wiser, O'Connell might never have become the liberator of his countrymen; if the other had been a trifle more obstinate, a revolutionary movement might have swept away both the House of Lords and the throne. No one can believe that the Queen, whatever may have been her secret influence (and future memoirs will probably show that it has not been inconsiderable), has played in English politics anything like the part played by her grandfather or her uncles.

In such matters, unnoticed trifles are even more instructive than the greater political transactions which excite general attention. Take, for example, the change which almost imperceptibly has come over the exercise of the right of pardon. Of all the prerogatives of the Crown, none would seem to be more personal to the monarch. There was undoubtedly a time, and that not a very distant time, when the sovereign really could determine whether a criminal should or should not go to the gallows. The story of Effie Deans's pardon is a fiction, but it is a fiction true to fact. The scene painted by Scott might well have taken place at any time during the reign of George II. or of George III. The King sent the Perreaus to the gallows; the King (greatly to his credit) insisted that Dr. Dodd should meet with his deserved punishment. The King might, had he chosen, have pardoned any of these forgers, and great pressure was put upon him to pardon the clerical culprit. All this is now changed. No act of Parliament has restricted the royal prerogative, but a modern Effie Deans would not seek or obtain an interview with the Queen. She would have recourse not to Her Majesty, but to the Home Secretary. The prerogative of pardon has, in short, passed from the Crown to the Cabinet. In this case it may well be doubted whether a constitutional change is also a constitutional improvement; but however this may be, the change is as certain as it is remarkable. A sovereign who has ceased to have the right to pardon may retain dignity, but has certainly lost importance.

The mode, in the second place, by which the royal power has been diminished has been the increasing development given to the system of Cabinet government. The Cabinet, as Bagehot has established, is in reality the mainspring of the machinery of the English Constitution. A body not known to the law, and which is in fact a committee virtually elected—or rather selected—by the Houses of Parliament, and mainly by the House of Commons, from among their number, has become the real English Executive. As the result of a series of something like accidents, this body has in reality, though not in name, the means of appealing from any decision of the Houses of Parliament to the nation. Whoever wishes to determine where it is that supreme power in fact resides, under the complicated and misleading forms of the Constitution, must try to ascertain who are the persons who can in the last resort appoint the Cabinet. Under the Georgian Constitution, the appointment lay in effect partly with the King, partly with the two Houses of Parliament. The Crown's choice was no doubt limited: there were moments when the Crown had no choice at all. But, speaking generally, George III. and his sons could exert very great influence over the constitution of the Ministry; they could often exert decisive influence on the answer to the vital question, who should be Premier. They could, at lowest, all but veto the admission of certain persons to the precincts of the Cabinet. It was no mere form by which Ministers were treated as the King's Ministry. When Lord Eldon constantly writes and talks of George III. as "my old master," when George terms Eldon "my" Lord Chancellor, the words used have a real meaning. Before 1860 a great change had come over the working of the Constitution: every one knew and felt that in substance the Cabinet was chosen by Parliament. Oddly enough, it was the Conservatives of the day who first made this apparent. That Lord Melbourne retained office, owing to the favor of the Queen, longer than he could otherwise have done, is certain; but the result of the contest between Peel and the Whigs was decisive. No Premier will ever again rely on royal influence to keep him in power when he has virtually if not in name lost the support of Parliament. Authors such as Professor Yonge may still write as though it were an act of impertinence or impropriety for a party to force on the Crown the choice of a particular Premier. Every Englishman not blinded by formulas knows that the true impropriety would be for the Crown to refuse the Premiership to the real head of a Parliamentary majority. The question as to the choice of Ministers, which in truth still remains undecided, is not, What are the respective powers of Crown and Parliament? but whether it is in reality to be Parliament or the constituencies who appoint the Premier. Could any House of Commons have refused two years ago to support Mr. Gladstone's claim to be Prime Minister?

For, in the third place, the formal and mechanical changes in the Constitution and its working between 1760 and 1860, not to speak of the immense alterations which have been introduced since the last date, were clearly little else than the signs of a radical alteration in the relation between Parliament and the nation. During the whole reign of George III. the received doctrine of Whigs, even more distinctly than of Tories, was the sovereignty of Parliament. The electors, who formed a very limited part of the nation, had the right of electing members, but the members of the House of Commons were not, according to the orthodox Whig creed, in any sense the representatives of their constituents: they were a portion, and the most important portion, of the sovereign power. The policy of Fox at every stage of his political career, the language of Burke, the conduct of the House of Commons, both in expelling Wilkes and in supporting the war with the colonists of America, can be understood only by students who keep in mind the prevalence of the belief in Parliamentary supremacy. Chatham differed from all the statesmen of his time by realizing the fact that the nation was the ultimate authority in national affairs, and the policy of Chatham was at bottom almost as opposed to the theories of the regular Whig leaders as to the prejudices of the King. Every Englishman of sense now feels, almost without the necessity for reflection, that the absolute sovereignty of Parliament as opposed to the will of the nation is as obsolete a dogma as the belief in the divine right of kings. The general faith in Parliamentary sovereignty was, it should be noticed, greatly shaken long before the passing of the Reform Act. The career of men such as Brougham and O'Connell marks the growth of that kind of popular agitation which aimed at controlling the action of Parliament by the force of public opinion. The repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, Catholic Emancipation, the Reform Act itself, were carried by an appeal to forces scarcely represented in Parliament.

Changes of political belief are almost always the results of changed circumstances. In the earlier years of George III.'s reign Parliament was supreme, because the aristocracy and that portion of the mercantile classes which were represented in Parliament really contained in themselves the strength and power of the nation. Nothing, as Maurice has with great acuteness pointed out, shows more strikingly how great was the social revolution which took place in England within a period of about fifty years, than the difference between Pitt's scheme of Parliamentary reform and the Reform Act actually carried by Lord Grey. Pitt's proposals aimed at increasing the influence of the counties. The independent landowners were in his day the sound part of the Constitution. They, it was thought, might be trusted to resist both the encroachments of the Crown and the growth of corruption. The aim and effect of Lord Grey's Act were to give predominant influence to the large towns and to the trading and mercantile classes. The contrast between the two policies affords no just ground for censuring either Pitt or Grey. Each statesman tried to legislate, as every practical politician must legislate, with a view to the circumstances of his time. That each of them adopted a different method of reform shows that each had an eye for existing facts. In 1782 the landowners were still the predominant power in English politics; in 1832 the growth of manufactures, the prodigious extension of trade, the rise of the great northern towns, had changed the balance of power. The need of the time was to recognize the predominance of the mercantile and trading interests. The pacific revolution which the Whig statesmen carried out under the name of the Reform Act was neither more nor less than the transference of ultimate authority in the state from the aristocracy and the landowners to the traders and the middle classes. The Georgian Constitution as it existed from 1760 to the death of George IV. was an aristocratic system of government, in which the power of the nobility was restrained by the authority of the Crown and the growing power of the middle classes. The Constitution as it existed from the time of the first Reform Act till 1868 was, in the main, a system of middle-class government, in which the predominant power of the middle classes was restrained on the one hand by the influence of the aristocracy, and on the other by the growing power of the democracy as represented by the artisans of the large towns.

THE PRIVATE CORRESPONDENCE OF BERLIOZ.

Hector Berlioz: Lettres Intimes. Avec une préface par Charles Gounod. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern. 1882.

Few composers have left their admirers such abundant material for estimating their character, aims, and convictions as Berlioz. To his 'Mémoires,' which were published during his lifetime (with some necessary omissions), was added, three years ago, a volume of 'Correspondance Inédite,' containing a large number of his letters to his son and his friends, among whom Liszt, Bülow, Glinka, Legouvé, Fétis, Hiller, Horace Vernet, and Schumann may be named. And now the same publisher has issued a new collection containing 141 letters to one of his most devoted friends, Humbert Ferrand, dating from 1825 to 1867. The preface, by Charles Gounod, is mostly concerned with a discussion of the well-worn theme of the relations between genius, fatherland, and popularity. One sentence deserves citation: "Happiness does not lie in the absence of suffering any more than genius lies in the absence of defects." Gounod was personally acquainted with Berlioz, who

was fifteen years older than himself, and he tells how he used to hurry from his lessons with Halévy at the Conservatoire to the concert hall, to enjoy "this strange, impassioned, convulsive music, which opened to my vision horizons so new and so full of color." One day he attended a rehearsal of "Romeo and Juliet" before it had appeared in print. A few days later he went to see Berlioz, and played on his piano the passage "Jurez tous" from the finale. "Where the devil did you learn that?" asked Berlioz. "At one of your rehearsals," was the answer; and Berlioz could hardly believe his ears.

That Berlioz's character was as "strange, impassioned, and convulsive" as his music, is proved on every page of this correspondence. "With Berlioz," says Gounod, "all impressions, all sensations take on an extreme form: he does not know joy or sadness except in a state of delirium; as he says himself, he is a 'volcano.'" "How unhappily I am organized!" says Berlioz in one of these letters—"a true barometer: now high, now low, according to the variations, brilliant or sombre, of my consuming thoughts." In another place he says that his life is a romance which greatly interests him: "one day at ease, calm, poetic, dreamy; another day nervous, bored, a mangy dog, grumbling, vicious as a thousand devils, disgusted with life, and ready to put an end to it," were it not for his friends, for music, and *curiosity*. A person of such a disposition absolutely needs a friend to whom he can confide his joys and sorrows; and the fact that Ferrand was such a friend lends the principal charm to these letters, of which evidently not one was written with the faintest idea of the possibility of its ever being published. They are all concerned with Berlioz himself, the ego being only occasionally displaced by the name of his wife, his son, or some famous artist or manager with whom he came in contact, and only in so far as he did come in contact with him.

As Ferrand supplied the poems to some of Berlioz's compositions, there was all the less reason in speaking of them for reserving his inmost convictions, since he could allude to them as "our works." In a letter dated January, 1867, two years before his death, he makes the interesting statement that if all his compositions were doomed to be burned except one, he would select the "Messe des Morts" for preservation. He actually did burn some of his works—an overture to "Rob Roy," a *messe solennelle*, and three or four inferior numbers in the opera "Francs Juges." "But," he adds, "when I tell you that this score has all the qualities which give life to works of art, you can believe me, and I am sure that you do believe me. 'Benvenuto' is such a score." The overture "Francs Juges," at its first performance, produced "a stupendous and terrible effect, difficult to describe." Forgetting that it was by himself, he felt inclined to exclaim, "How monstrous, colossal, horrible!" At the first performance of "Romeo and Juliet" at Baden, he tells us that the *adagio* was the cause of many tears, and that nothing enchants him more than to arouse such an emotion by means of music alone. The great agitation into which his own music plunged him, sometimes prevented him from conducting with the necessary composure, and he mentions a case where his constitutional neuralgic pains did him a good service by neutralizing this emotion and enabling him to conduct better than usual. That he was rated as a good conductor, and not only of his own music, is known from various sources, and is indirectly evidenced by the account he gives on page 226 of a quarrel he had with a Ministre d'État because he (Berlioz) would not conduct the performances of Gluck's "Alceste" at the Opéra. He knew that certain passages had been altered and transposed to suit the voice of Mme. Viardot, and he would rather risk the refusal of his beloved "Trojens" at the Opéra than assist in producing in a mutilated form a work of Gluck's, whom he worshipped hardly less than Beethoven and Shakspere.

In this matter, indeed, he was more conscientious than in his capacity as critic, in which the position of the papers for which he wrote often compelled him to deal gently with works he would have rather torn to pieces. Before he obtained his post as regular critic of the *Journal des Débats* he "worked like a nigger" for several less prominent papers—as many as four at a time—and in 1834 he complains of having to write "d——d feuilleton articles for a hundred sous apiece." His neuralgic pains were sometimes so severe that he had to devote three or four days to a single article. It is characteristic that some of the first articles he mentions were attacks on Italian music. The editor found that he was "a little hard (*un peu dur*) on the Italian school." Bellini he alludes to in one of the letters as a "petit polisson," and Cherubini as an "illustre vieillard." Of Rossini he says on page 40: "I had an offer to be introduced to him, but I did not accept, as you can well imagine. I do not love this Figaro, or rather I hate him more every day. His absurd jokes on Weber in the foyer of the German theatre exasperated me; I regretted not to have been present at the conversation to box his ears." Curiously enough, he was on good terms with Spontini, whose operas he greatly admired, and with that king of old fogies, Fétis, who wrote, in the *Revue Musicale*, "two superb articles" on Berlioz, and who said to a person who remarked that Berlioz had the devil in his body, "Faith, if he has the devil in his body, he has a god in his head." The devil, it will be noticed, plays a great rôle in Berlioz's correspondence.

Allusions are made in several of the letters (July, 1861, and October, 1867) to offers he had received to go to America, or, as he says in the first letter, "les États-*Désunis*." In the second instance, he was offered, for six months in New York, a hundred thousand francs. He refused, because, he says, his desire for money was not great enough to overcome his antipathy to this grand nation and its utilitarian habits. It should be stated that Berlioz was, unlike Beethoven, a monarchist, or imperialist. He seldom alludes to political matters, and begs his friend to avoid them also; but in a letter dated January 2, 1855, he says: "Je n'oublierai jamais que notre empereur nous a délivrés de la sale et stupide république! Tous les hommes civilisés doivent s'en souvenir. Il a le malheur d'être un barbare en fait d'art; mais quoi! c'est un barbare sauveur—et Néron était un artiste."

In view of Adelina Patti's recent departure from this country, one more short extract will be of interest. Berlioz heard her in 1864 in "Martha," "that insipid (*plat*) opera [which] is played in all languages, in all theatres of the world." He calls her the "ravissante petite Patti," and adds that he sent her word that he pardoned her for having made him listen to such platitudes, but that he could do no more than that. "Fortunately there is in this opera the delicious Irish air, 'The Last Rose of Summer,' which she sings with a poetic simplicity that would almost suffice, with its sweet perfume, to disinfect the rest of the score." This was almost twenty years ago, and Mme. Patti still sings the same delicious Irish melody and the same platitudes.

SCIO AND CREDO.

Die Entstehung der physichen und geistigen Welt aus dem Aether. Von Jos. Schlesinger, Ord. Prof. der Geometrie an der k.k. Hochschule für Bodencultur in Wien. 1882. Pp. 97.

Die Religion des Gewissens als Zukunftsideal. Von Dr. Alex. Wernicke. Berlin, 1880. Pp. 127.

Geist und Stoff. Erörterungen und Betrachtungen über die Souveränität der Materie. Von J. Ludewig. Iserlohn, 1881. Pp. 244.

The Philosophy of Self-Consciousness; containing an Analysis of Reason and the Rationale of Love. By P. F. Fitzgerald. London: Trübner & Co. 1882. Pp. 196.

Evenings with the Skeptics; or, Free Discussions on Free-Thinkers. By John Owen, Rector of East Anstey, Devon. London: Longmans; New York: J. W. Bouton. 1881. 2 vols. Pp. 464 and 516.

The Creed of Science, Religious, Moral, and Social. By Wm. Graham, A.M. London: Kegan Paul & Co. 1881. Pp. 412.

Some thirty-five years ago half a dozen young German students and teachers of science, who used to meet for discussion in a select *Kneipe*, had all concluded that the ultimate explanation of the universe must be mechanical. All knew that, from many considerations, obvious enough in Germany, such views must at least long remain esoteric; indeed, so strongly were university influences opposed to such opinions that, after the little band was scattered among the various universities, where each member has since become eminent, they were not even made subjects of correspondence. When individuals met in later years these views were always referred to, and great satisfaction, and indeed for a time enthusiasm, was felt that all, save Lotze alone, had remained true to the faith in mechanism. "But of late years," said the venerable professor who narrated the incident to the writer, "nearly all of us have come to see that there must be something else, while the Social-Democrats have made us feel that something else is needed for social order." The reaction against materialism is no doubt widespread and general. But the reaction against extreme idealism and liberal Christianity is at the very least no less so. As "straws," let us glance at a few of the latest and ablest books, chosen purely at random from a vast body of similar literature.

The uncritical etherism of Spiller, elaborated in several volumes, which regarded the cosmos as a kinetic organization of ether, attracted little attention. In 1878 B. Trost attempted a quasi-scientific application of the hypothesis to light; the next year E. Reich attempted to apply it to anthropology and psychology; and at last Prof. Schlesinger urges that the soul must at least be regarded as a mass of accumulated force, and that to assume that it can vanish without trace at death, as materialism implies, is contrary to the law of the persistence of force. As opposed to the ponderable body, the imponderable, ethereal soul-organization gathers in more force than it expends. Atoms may be constituted of homogeneous *œtoms*, and may be really æther cells of peculiar constitution. Death is only the separation of the ponderable from the imponderable soul. The latter is the conscious ego, and is immortal. This culmination of etherism is very far indeed from being science, but it shows one psychological drift, and suggests a possibility.

Dr. Wernicke argues that the foundation for the religion of the future was laid by Kant. The voice of conscience is the voice of the immanent God, calling on us to destroy the transcendental idols of himself which men have made.

The consummation to which the protestant principle must look forward is a vital but confessionless religion, and a subjective but most real deity, of whom the moral law is the only revelation. Unlike Schopenhauer's will, all the echoes of the vast and mysterious past from which we sprang are heard, and the aggregate or resultant impulses are felt in conscience. The great task of religious teachers is how to formulate rightly its vague and often inarticulate promptings, although, so far as the central doctrine of love for our fellow-men is concerned, little advance can yet be made beyond what Jesus did.

J. Ludewig reviews the current theories of nebulæ atoms, spontaneous generation, language, the senses and brain, etc., to show that it is not needful to explain the world without transcendental reference, but that, on the contrary, there is ample room in the boundless fields left untenanted by agnosticism for a purposive and independent power above physical nature and outside the brain. But room is not proof, and the chief element of the latter is psychological, and is found in the impulse toward perfection and in the instinctive and irrepressible belief in something above matter, which, however, cannot be fully defined or proved by the intellect. At certain stages of development belief in a future life is also indispensable to good morals. Genesis is a poetic fiction, but is yet almost startlingly in accord with geology. The miracles, and very likely future punishment, must be given up; but the conception of God as a father, of the sanctity and dignity of labor, of universal fraternity, are the essentials of Christianity, are not in conflict with science, and are neither agnostic nor dogmatic, but are a social and personal need.

According to Mr. Fitzgerald, God is involved in our self-consciousness; otherwise his existence must be for us unnecessary and contingent. Scepticism is thus due to want of a clear conception of what the typical process of thought really is. Language cannot tell us, for it originates in metaphors of sense, and thought many assume to be radically different. Indeed, despite Hegel's dictum that philosophic self-consciousness is the chief end not only of man, but of the universe, there is nothing we know so little about directly as thought. To attain this notion of generic thought, or of a normal as opposed to an isolated ego, induction must be applied to a wide range of literature and history. By this "method of quotation" the author is led to the three "discoveries" or "novelties" which constitute his book: (1) The substance of reason is being. Our power of realizing the necessary inferences involved in the facts of feeling, thought, and will measures the quantum of our being. Confidence in reason is "faith in the intrinsic power of reason" as the basis of ideation. (2) Imperfection is a cause not of pain, but of the chief joy of life, for it makes love possible, which is the key to duty to both God and man, and is essentially correlative. Love is in no sense self-sacrifice, but self-realization. Only divine love can raise marriage above the plane of selfishness *à deux*, with its sense of depressed vitality and loneliness, and make men feel "strong, beautiful, and free." (3) Morality is action according to our rational nature, revealed in introspection as "social and divine self-love," and is measured by the amount of happiness which comes from realization of the ideals of feeling, thought, and will.

Mr. Owen's very able and interesting discussion of scepticism, from Xenophanes to Agrippa, is an attempt to introduce a psychological basis into the history of philosophy. Etymologically, the sceptic is not a denier, but only an inquirer or searcher: he is analytic, dynamic, suspensive, has inaugurated every advance, is never opposed to Christianity, but always to undue ecclesiastical development; suspects all finalities and infallibility, and derides only the presumption and self-complacency of dogmatists. He is, in short, the true philosopher, who loves the truth for its own sake, does not teach it as an hierophant watching over and doling out sacred and esoteric lore with needless pedantic technicalities, but in a way to quicken truthful and ingenuous expression. Scepticism is as diverse as belief, and seems germane to the "storm-and-stress" period of life. The lower races and minds never feel the impulse to analyze the stock of ready-made ideas and habits; but the better the mind the more uncertainty, and the fuller of embarrassment and contradiction does the universe appear. If a man loves freedom, desires to live in his own philosophical house rather than in one planned by another, and takes the first momentous step toward incredulity of his creed (which is held to the more tenaciously the narrower it is), he begins a task the completion of which is one of the greatest labors of man. Between the feeling that he knows nothing (the most disquieting of insights) and the conviction that he *can* know nothing (the most satisfying philosophic *ataraxy*) a life of struggle and study may well be spent. In this broad spirit the essays and conversations between persons representing typical standpoints are carried on in a way which suggests Plato, Berkeley, and Mallock by turns, and in a style so agreeable that few who begin the volumes will leave them unfinished.

The ablest and most original book on our list is Mr. Graham's. Respecting the nebular hypothesis, such fundamental contradictions are found that it is concluded that at present "we know nothing for certain" respecting the origin of the earth or the heavenly bodies. As to the origin of life, it could not have been from another planet by aerolite transportation, nor by creative fiat from nothing conceivable by us. Nor can all matter be regarded as "in a certain sense alive," as Haeckel says. Despite the failures of observers, spontaneous generation must be regarded as probable, and even Shakspere may have been "potential in a fiery cloud." Personality and consciousness in the Deity are surrendered as implying limitation and anthropomorphism, but a vigorous stand is made for purpose as opposed to chance in the universe. God is ultimate reality, and cannot be represented in consciousness any more than the latter can be in terms of plant function. In choosing between personality and consciousness and the countless possible modes of being which are higher and inaccessible to our faculties, we must choose the latter for both deity and our own future life. The old conception of the soul as simple, indivisible, and entirely dissimilar to the body must be abandoned. Memory does end with death, but annihilation is unknown in nature, and we cannot escape something at least as important and significant as continued consciousness, if that must be abandoned. We can now do little, if anything whatever, to benefit our chances of the best in the hereafter. Ethics, the culmination of all human science, is yet to be written. The moralists of the past had an imperfect knowledge of man. Human life could not be run a day on existing ethical systems. Yet from the joint report of the several sciences now since Darwinism (as important an advance in our knowledge of man's true place in nature as was made three hundred years ago respecting the position of the earth among the heavenly bodies), it may be inferred what we can know and hope, and should, and perhaps can, do. The only error in this view of man, it is said, is that it leaves no place for great men who have enlarged human nature by revealing new fields of thought, finding a new language for the soul in art, wrought out many ways of moral salvation, and made our culture and civilization.

In our brief space only very inadequate characterization can of course be made. Each of the writers cited is intelligent, thoughtful, and well read, to say the least; approaches his theme from a different direction, and appears to cast an independent vote. Each surrenders much dogma that many still think essential, but each makes concessions which most scientific men are far more willing to grant now than they were ten years ago. Each pleads for more, not less religion, and for a more, not less critical and radical science. All, too, plead for the third and higher monism above the old antithesis of idealism and materialism, refer to psychological proofs as final, and to moral needs as imperative and regulative, urge the need of some kind of purpose at the bottom of the universe, and hold belief to be as great a psychic and a greater moral necessity than knowledge. None of these volumes, save the first and least suggestive, is the work of a specialist, and the candid reader feels no special bias. May we not therefore infer (so far as our method of random selection shows anything at all on so small a basis), that the true and often postulated unity between science and religion, when it emerges, is not to be a sorry syncretism nor a compromise, as we are often told by those whose profession it is to lecture upon this subject, but a union, vital and quickening to both alike, the vague and general character of which those who are open to the influences which are now so rapidly recasting our near intellectual future can already dimly discern?

GENERAL GORDON'S DIARY.

A War Diary of Events in the War of the Great Rebellion, 1863–1865. By George H. Gordon, late Colonel 2d Mass. Infantry, Brigadier-General, etc. Boston: Jas. R. Osgood & Co. Crown 8vo, pp. 437.

General Gordon's book purports to be the substance of a diary kept by him during the latter half of the late war, and is part of a series of books intended to cover the writer's experience in the whole of the great struggle. The volume has the merit, which all transcripts of actual experience and observation in such a time must have, of preserving for us authentic descriptions of scenes and narratives of events with the fulness of detail which cannot otherwise be secured. General Gordon's service, after the battle of Antietam in September, 1862, was not of a very exciting character. The occupation of the Virginia Peninsula and Norfolk during the campaigns of Chancellorsville and Gettysburg, some months' service upon the Sea Islands, near Charleston, a brief and insignificant campaign in Florida, a few weeks' service in the lower Mississippi Valley and on Mobile Bay, and a return to administrative duties at Norfolk during the closing months of the war, make up the sum of his duties and labors, of which the story is told in these pages.

The narrative has an interest of its own which is due to the fact that it deals with out-of-the-way places and scenes, and with phases of experience somewhat different from the life of a soldier in important campaigns. The author was brought into constant contact with the women and the old men of the Southern States, whose homes were within the advancing lines of our armies. He had to deal with the freedmen, whose new-found liberty was a thing its possessors did not know how to use. The trade in cotton, under permits from the Government, with all its frauds and demoralization, came more or less under his eye and his jurisdic-

tion, and finally it fell to his lot to investigate the illicit and contraband trade with the enemy through the lines at Norfolk, which was the scandal of Butler's administration of the Department of the James.

Here is no lack of interesting historical matter, and we should be grateful that such a record has been preserved. If we could have chosen, we would have omitted some rather turgid comments on the situation from time to time, for they diminish the strength of the picture. In the long conversations with rebellious men and women, the General often figures in the rôle of a prolix lecturer on the duty of loyalty and the enormity of the rebellion, and must have been sadly tedious to the unwilling listeners. With all our sympathy with his sentiments, we could have spared most of the iteration without finding the volume less attractive. But we have hardly the right to be choosers, and these blemishes only diminish our thankfulness; they do not overbalance the merits of the book.

In another respect, however, the volume calls for severer criticism. More than a hundred pages are devoted to the operations of General Gillmore in the Coast Department of South Carolina, and from beginning to end this part of the diary is full of contemptuous sneering at the commanding officer. It was so manifestly written under the influence of a rooted personal ill-will as to lose most of the effect it would otherwise have as a hostile criticism of Gillmore's operations before Charleston, by one of his subordinates. Had the author given us a clear, military examination of Gillmore's plans and operations, pointing out their defects and showing what ought to have been done in order to accomplish the purposes for which an army was sent to the Sea Islands, we should at least have been instructed by intelligent criticism made by a military man on the spot. What we have is not military criticism; it is the daily expression of petulant dislike which carps so constantly as to provoke reaction in the reader's mind in favor of the object of it. Perhaps General Gillmore ought to have foreseen that when the pounding of his hundred-pound shot and shell had beaten the walls of Sumter into a sloping earthwork, the fort would be as strong as ever. It is easy to sneer at such ignorance after the fact; but that very bombardment was an important step in the education of the whole world regarding the problem of attack and defence of fortifications. We already knew something of the resisting power of earthen parapets, but we did not know that casemated structures of two or three tiers could be transformed into earthworks while the garrison held the fort, and saved themselves from great loss, by repairs with sand-bags which kept pace with the demolition of the masonry.

Gillmore is jeered at again because the Confederates evacuated Forts Wagner and Gregg when the sap had nearly reached the ditch of Wagner. Since it was the object of the siege operations to gain possession of those forts as commanding points upon the Bay of Charleston, it would seem to be matter of congratulation that this was done without the cost of a bloody assault. To have carried Wagner would not necessarily, or even probably, have captured the garrison, which could have retired to Fort Gregg, and from there have retired again by water. Still, again, the unfortunate affair of General Seymour at Olustee, in Florida, is laid at Gillmore's door, though he was at Hilton Head. If anything is plain, it is that the causes of that misfortune were on the field of battle, not at department headquarters. Yet Seymour is praised as a brave and skilful officer, while Gillmore, though far away, is saddled with the blame.

It may be that the author's implied judgment of Gillmore is just; but the point now made is that the book before us gives no means of forming a judgment. It is an expression of depreciatory opinions, without a summing up of facts supporting them. This is usually called abuse, not criticism, and a military writer should hold himself bound to give intelligible proofs of bad generalship, and not ask his readers to accept his condemnation of a commander because he reiterates his own dislike or ill-will. The publication of a diary after the death of the writer may be proper when the same publication by the writer himself may not be. In the one case we read with the understanding that we must take opinions recorded at the moment with many grains of allowance; but when a writer prints his own diary he is bound to omit personal disparagement, unless he accompanies it with such fuller marshalling of facts and argument as shall make it evident that he is trying to rise to the level of historical judgment. It is to be regretted that General Gordon does not seem to have appreciated this distinction. Had his book contained a little less or a little more, it would be worthier a place in the permanent historical memoirs of the time. Its descriptions are usually lively, often quite vivid, and its abundant stores of incident and anecdote make it easy and entertaining reading.

The Fables of La Fontaine. Translated from the French by Elizur Wright. A new edition, with notes, by J. W. M. Gibbs. London: George Bell & Sons. 1882.

La Fontaine and Other French Fabulists. By the Rev. W. Lucas Collins, A.M. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

Some weeks ago we reviewed a work by Mr. Elizur Wright (the Life of Myron Holley), composed in his seventy-seventh year, and now we receive from across the water, as an addition to Bohn's Standard Library, his earliest literary performance, first published in his thirty-seventh year. Mr. Wright's complete version of the Fables of La Fontaine appeared in 1841 in an elegant form, thanks to a generous body of subscribers, and was followed by a cheap and popular impression, now rarely to be met with, which ran out in a sixth and expurgated edition. It cannot be said, therefore, that in this case the prophet was without honor in his own country, yet no American publisher has thought it worth while to revive what still remains, as Mr. Gibbs says, the best English version of the French classic, even when compared with the late Mr. Thornbury's, made to accompany Doré's illustrations. The present editor has not only given Mr. Wright's work a beautiful typographical dress, restoring the full text, but has prefixed an interesting account of Mr. Wright himself, including some of the latter's original fables, which establish his title to be a translator in the same vein, and has added judicious explanatory foot notes. We will only remark further on this head that, but for our absurd protective system, the translator's countrymen might now enjoy, at a low price, the fruits of the well-deserved honor thus bestowed upon him abroad.

Singularly enough, the Rev. Lucas Collins makes not the remotest allusion to attempts to place La Fontaine before English readers. His agreeable little book—one of Mrs. Oliphant's "Foreign Classics" series—is interspersed with metrical translations, both from La Fontaine and from the other fabulists treated of. They are possibly, though quoted, his own composition, and at all events exhibit the poetic facility which usually attends a certain degree of cultivation. They would be called more elegant than Mr. Wright's, but they cannot have cost one-half the labor, and much of their smoothness they owe to liberties with the French which Mr. Wright seldom allows himself. In general, they lack the terseness and pungency which are the reward of successful adherence to the model; and if, once in a while, the Englishman hits the mark better than the American, he oftener misses when he does not purposely avoid it. Take, for instance, the energetic verse in the "Animaux malades de la peste":

"Ils ne mouraient pas tous, mais tous étaient frappés."

Mr. Wright straightforwardly renders it thus:

"They died not all, but all were sick";

while Mr. Collins gives this sapless equivalent:

"Death day by day to some, sore pains to all."

Still, there is some profit to be derived from contrasting the versions which are common to these two volumes, though Mr. Collins is far from such verbal felicities as Mr. Wright's "Rat-United-States" (*peuple rat*), and the like. And if forty years have not done much to increase the number of La Fontaine's English translators, neither have they greatly enlarged the material for his biography. There is very little in Mr. Collins's sketch which is not to be found in Mr. Wright's.

Paris Herself Again in 1878-79. By George Augustus Sala. 350 illustrations. Sixth edition. London: Vizetelly & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1882. 12mo, pp. xviii.-539.

Mr. Sala spent four months in Paris during the latest Universal Exhibition, and wrote for the *Daily Telegraph* the letters which, profusely illustrated by Cham, Bertall, Lalanne, and other French artists, form the substance of this lively book. We all know Mr. Sala's style—the rapid, inconsequent, and yet entertaining way in which his thoughts may be said to tumble over each other. We have all been amused by his manner in treating light subjects, and distracted by it when he attempts to write seriously, as in his extraordinary essay on "The Genius of Charles Lamb," prefixed to a part of the Moxon 12mo edition, but soon replaced by a paper from another hand. Fortunate, by the way, is the possessor of that curious essay. Its title is "On the Genius of Charles Lamb"; but while it contains something upon nearly every other topic in literature, there is nothing in it about the genius of Lamb. These and other of Mr. Sala's literary peccadilloes have had their reproof in certain quarters, as we learn from his own very frank confessions in the preface to the second edition of the present work, which seems to have been accepted as a sort of propitiation:

"The *Times*, which was good enough to review a book of mine called 'A Journey Due North,' published twenty years ago, but which subsequently sank into stony silence concerning my writings, gave a graceful notice to 'Paris Herself Again.' So did the *Athenæum*. . . . The *Saturday Review* went out of its way, so it seemed to me, to be appreciative and complimentary. What has become of my enemies? . . . It is a matter of great joy to me to find from the welcome this book has received, not only from the public, but from the reviewers, that at least I have not been making enemies since my last work was published."

There is reason for this book's success in its fitness of style to the subject. The surface of Paris—the Paris of the boulevard, restaurant, and theatre, the shows of the great Exhibition—these are the natural topics of the rambling newspaper-letter, and Mr. Sala is an accomplished and very rambling newspaper-letter-writer. Of all writers he is the one who can best whip up the froth of an egg. But, if there is little enough substance in his writing, it is excellent in its way: one feels that this book is to be read purely and wholly for amusement, and without the slightest thought of edifica-

tion. The chapter on "Dinner-Time in Paris" will illustrate this studied superficiality; by a negative description of Mr. Sala's style, it may be called the least Carlylese of any conceivable writing upon French topics. But all styles have their function, and Mr. Sala deserves credit for having plied his "trade as a journalist," as he calls it, to such amusing purpose as the present, as also do the collaborating artists whose work has been utilized for this book. Mr. Sala has now described three Paris exhibitions, and, considering his age, there is a reasonable prospect of his describing for us a fourth "Universal Exposition" from the *flâneur's* point of view.

A Lady's Cruise in a French Man-of-War. By C. F. Gordon Cumming. 2 vols. 8vo. Map and illustrations. Edinburgh: Blackwood. 1882.

THE readers of 'At Home in Fiji' will remember that at the close of Miss Gordon Cumming's two years' residence in Fiji, the *Seignelay*, carrying the Roman Catholic Bishop of Samoa on a pastoral tour through his diocese, touched at the islands. A cordial invitation to join this missionary party was accepted, and these volumes are an account of the cruise, together with a five months' stay in Tahiti. Naturally much space is devoted to the French and English missionary establishments on the various islands visited, but there are also many graphic descriptions of scenery, and lively details of the life of the people. Much attention has been paid to the antiquities of the less-known places, both as preserved in the superstitions of the islanders and in the remains of the rock temples and tombs. Some of these latter are peculiarly interesting. The tombs of the old kings of Tonga "are formed of gigantic blocks of volcanic rock, said to have been brought to these flat isles from the Wallis group. They are laid in three courses of straight lines, like cyclopean walls, and lie at intervals through the bush." How and by what race these stones were transported some hundreds of miles across the sea is, we believe, still a mystery. The author gives a sketch of a huge trilithon on the same island, 15 feet high by 18 feet long and 12 feet wide, remarkable also from the fact that "the two supporting pillars are cut out at the top to secure the transverse capstone, which is hewn." Still more wonderful are the stone images on Easter Island, some of which "are 27 feet long, and measure 8 feet across the breast. . . . The statues are literally lying about in hundreds, and the very rocks on the sea-beach are carved into strange forms—tortoises or human faces."

The Samoans, at the time of Miss Gordon Cumming's visit (September, 1877), were engaged in an internecine war, chiefly the result of the intrigues of the notorious Colonel Steinberger and his faction. They have almost universally embraced Christianity, and their strict observance of Sunday is as noticeable as in Fiji. On this day "the belligerents, by common consent, abstain from fighting, and allow teachers and missionaries to pass freely in and out of their camps, holding religious services in which all join." Notwithstanding this, the custom of head-hunting, during war at least, seems to exist here, though in a somewhat different form from that once prevailing in Borneo. From Samoa the *Seignelay* proceeded to Tahiti. The inhabitants of this group of islands were found to be mourning, with a sincerity which cannot be doubted, the very recent death of their good Queen Pomare, who had reigned over them for more than forty years. The universal sorrow was shown by the wearing of black flowing robes, without flowers, and by the cutting off of the hair of the women. This cloud upon the light-hearted gayety for which the people of these beautiful islands are world-renowned, was partially lifted during the ceremonies attendant on the succession of Pomare V., the eldest son of the late Queen, to the throne. Miss Gordon Cumming accompanied the royal party in a tour of the principal islands to receive the homage of the chiefs and people of the various districts. The description of this "royal progress" is the most entertaining part of her book. Everywhere native feasts were spread, in the groves or in hastily-built arbors of vast extent, remarkable chiefly for the profusion of flowers and the exquisite taste shown in arranging them. The greatest attraction, however, proved to be the *himènes*, or choruses. These are somewhat of the nature of glees, the words being sung by a single voice.

"After one clause of solo, other voices strike in—here, there, everywhere—in harmonious chorus. It seems as if one section devoted themselves to pouring forth a rippling torrent of ra, ra, ra-ra-ra! while others burst into a flood of la, la, la-la-la! Some confine their care to sound a deep, booming bass, somewhat suggestive (to my appreciative Highland ear) of our own bagpipes. Here and there high falsetto notes strike in, varied from verse to verse, and then the choruses of la and ra come bubbling in liquid melody; while the voices of the principal singers now join in unison, now diverge as widely as it is possible for them to do, but all combine together to produce the quaintest, most melodious rippling glee that ever was heard."

The description of life in the Society Islands, where the cruise ended, is full of interest, but we have not space to dwell further upon this nor upon the scenery, unsurpassed in its loveliness. Notwithstanding some rather dull chapters, which have a faint suspicion of padding, we can heartily recommend this new book of travels, though its interest is hardly equal to that of its predecessor.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Brehm's Thierleben. Parts 1-21. Birds. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Browne, L. Narratives of State Trials in the Nineteenth Century. In two vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Church, Ella Rodman. Money-Making for Ladies. New York: Harper & Brothers.
Coan, T. Life in Hawaii: an Autobiographic Sketch of Missionary Life and Labors, 1835-1881. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1 50.
Collier, John. A Primer of Art. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 30 cents.
Daily Steps Upward: a Scripture-Text and Selection of Poetry for Every Day in the Year. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Ellwanger, H. B. The Rose: a Treatise on its Cultivation, History, etc. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $1 25.
Figuier, L. L'Année Scientifique et Industrielle. 1881. New York: F. W. Christern.
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Total Marine Premiums		$5,627,021 57
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Losses paid during the same period	$1,775,882 80	
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 20, 1882.

The Week.

THE New York banks gained $4,144,500 in surplus reserve during the last week. The domestic money market was very easy, as were also all the foreign money markets; no gold was shipped, and foreign exchange closed below the rates at which gold can be exported without loss. It is estimated that during the week American railroad securities to the value of $5,000,000 were shipped to Europe; the exports of merchandise continue to decrease, while the merchandise imports are increasing. At the Stock Exchange the notable features were the buoyancy of the market for the 4 and 4½ per cent. bonds of the Government, and the depression in the market for railroad stocks. United States 4 per cents were bought up to 121¼ and the 4½s to 116¼—these being the highest prices ever paid for them. It was said that Mr. W. H. Vanderbilt was selling railroad stocks and buying United States bonds, but this seems improbable. Many of the national banks hold as security for their note circulation the extended 6s and 5s, which are subject to early redemption; some of these banks have been buying the 4s and 4½s, but rather than pay the present high prices for them it is likely that many will give up the business of issuing notes. The depression in the market for railroad stocks was freshly started by renewed sales for the account of Vanderbilt and Gould, who were quickly fol lowed in selling by the entire bearish fraternity of the "Street." Prices fell 1@8 points during the week, and the leading stocks sold at the lowest figures of the year. Railroad earnings, according to the published reports, show a gain in most cases over last year, despite the admitted fact that the tonnage derived from the leading staples of the country is very small. The outlook for the crops up to this time is good; there is promise of unprecedentedly large immigration, and mercantile business is fairly satisfactory. The labor troubles, however, cannot be said to have decreased during the week.

The new Chinese Bill has passed the House by a heavy majority, the period of suspension being restricted to ten years and the registration and passport provisions being left out, to meet the President's objections. It probably will have but little actual effect in keeping down the number of Chinese in this country. Those who want to come will come in from Mexico and the British territory, and when once here there will be no means of expelling them. But they probably will not come in great numbers from any quarter, and as the white population on the Pacific Coast grows the Chinese scare will seem more and more absurd, and by the end of the ten years people will be ashamed of it, as they are of so many bygone scares about the negroes. It seems a pity that the bill, after giving so much trouble, should not be likely to help one side more than the other in the next Presidential election, but it looks now as if neither had got any special advantage out of it for that region. It certainly leaves the Republican party worse off on the Atlantic Coast, for it makes sad havoc of certain ideas about the equality of men and the might of the National Government which did good service during the reconstruction period.

The President has decided, on the opinion of the Attorney-General, that he has no power under the law to do what he has been asked to do—nominate General Fitz-John Porter to the Senate for restoration to his old rank in the Army. We have no doubt that this decision is legally sound. The proper redress for whatever wrong General Fitz-John Porter has suffered can only be provided by legislation. The President can pardon him, but all that a pardon would do for him would be to relieve him from the incapacity under which he labors for holding office under the United States. It ought not to be supposed, however, that this decision of the President in any way affirms or even touches the findings of the court-martial. This is disingenuously assumed by some writers, to whom Fitz-John Porter's guilt is not, and never has been, a matter to be reasoned about. They believe in it as men believe in articles of religious faith, and always talk of the court-martial as if it was in some sense an inspired tribunal. The fact is that its decision has received a most thorough sifting by competent authority, and has been morally reversed; and anybody who goes on writing and talking, as many do, as if the Advisory Board had not passed upon the case, lays himself open to the suspicion either of great unscrupulousness or of great mental obtuseness. The court-martial was not an inspired body; it sat under as unfavorable conditions for the discovery of truth as ever attended any similar inquiry, and like hundreds of other courts-martial it did a wrong for which there ought to be some redress.

The tariff is generally considered a dry subject for popular discussion, and we may, therefore, regard the large, intelligent, and uncommonly attentive audience at the tariff-reform meeting on Friday night as an indication of a reviving interest in the tariff question. Mr. Vance highly entertained his hearers by his humorous treatment of the subject in its general aspects, while Professor Sumner very effectively struck at the principal stock-in-trade of protectionist demagogy—the pretence that protection is mainly benefiting "American labor"—by an excellent presentation of the real relations between the tariff and wages. What the speeches lacked in the specific discussion of the points now at issue in Congress was amply supplied by the resolutions. They point out the heavy burdens imposed upon the people by the protective system; the immediate duty of the Government to reduce taxation, which reduction should be mainly effected in those duties on imports which injure manufactures by enhancing the cost of raw material, oppress agriculture, and destroy our carrying trade and our foreign commerce generally; and the necessity of doing this without waiting for the report of a commission. The resolutions further demand an immediate reduction of the enormous and most hurtful duty on steel; they express approval of the proposition made by Mr. Hewitt in the House of Representatives, frequently mentioned in these columns; they demand relief for American shipping by the abolition of tonnage taxes, consular fees, and other needless burdens, and the adoption of the policy of "free ships" for the foreign trade; they recognize the difficulties surrounding revenue reform, and deprecate violent changes, while insisting that measures that can be safely taken should no longer be delayed. And finally Mr. David A. Wells and Mr. J. S. Moore are "requested to prepare a practical scheme for a revision of the tariff, based upon the customs receipts of 1881, which shall simplify and reduce the present rates of duties, and place on the free list all raw materials required for manufactures, so as to yield an ample revenue and to inflict no injury on American industries."

The Republican papers of Massachusetts are almost unanimous in disapproving the appointment of Mr. Worthington to the Boston Collectorship, but, the first shock being over, they discuss it rather philosophically. While most of them expect Messrs. Hoar and Dawes to oppose the confirmation of the appointment, they do not want the Senators to do so on the ground of Senatorial courtesy, but on the ground of the unfitness of the man appointed—he being a known reviler of the principles upon which the civil service should be conducted, and which have time and again been affirmed by the Republican party of Massachusetts. This is unquestionably the correct position. It is quite probable that Mr. Worthington will be confirmed in spite of all this, and that the Republicans of Massachusetts will take that very calmly too. The appointment is deplorable so far as it appears in the nature of a reactionary blow against the practical reform of the service, while well calculated to intensify the desire for reform among the people. The Stalwart leaders of Massachusetts, Messrs. Boutwell and Bowman, conspicuous for want of following, have persuaded the President to do a thing which cannot fail to injure him in public estimation, without any compensating political advantage. If this appointment was made with a view to political control locally, or as part of a system with a view to the control of the party at large, disappointment is inevitable.

Senator Mahone's plan for turning the Repudiation party of Virginia into an Administration party is not working smoothly. The first step proposed was the division of the State into districts in such a way that of ten Representatives eight should be chosen by the Anti-Bourbon-Readjuster-Administration combination. A bill for this purpose, however, was on Thursday defeated in the Legislature. The

next election will be held on the present district-basis, which will give the Democrats a better chance than they would have had under the bill, and the additional member will be elected by the State at large. This is largely the work of ex-Auditor Massey, who from an ardent friend of Mahone has recently been changed into a violent enemy, and who is said to have resolved either to be the tenth Representative himself or to turn the office over to the Democrats. But although a personal quarrel is the immediate cause of the defeat of the Readjuster leader, Massey had the support of two debt-paying Republicans, and the event has a broad significance. Senator Mahone has secured the Federal patronage in consideration of which he was to turn his repudiators into sound Administration men. Now that it is shown that he cannot deliver the goods for which he has been paid, it remains to be seen whether he can count on a continuance of Federal favors. So one-sided a bargain as this scarcely recommends itself to astute politicians, and an equivalent in some form will probably be exacted.

Mr. Craig, the City Marshal of St. Joseph, Mo., where Jesse James was killed, is in this city looking after a criminal, and has been interviewed about the robber's death. His view as to the probable and desirable outcome of the affair is somewhat peculiar, and we think open to criticism. He says that James's popularity in Ray, Clay, Jackson, and Johnson Counties was so great that it would not have surprised him if the story he heard on his way here of the Governor's assassination had been true. He gave it as his opinion that the Governor ought now to pardon the Ford boys, who slew James, and they in turn ought to be shot by their friends, and "the whole business wiped out." This seems to us a somewhat hasty utterance. Marshal Craig must know that the killing of the Ford boys by their friends would not end the matter in this way. In the James district of Missouri every man has two sets of friends, one who kill him and another who kill his killers. Consequently, if the Ford boys are killed, those who kill them will have to be killed, and consequently "the business" will not be wiped out. The simplest settlement would be to have the Ford boys kill each other, and if this can be arranged, we think it will do more for real estate in the counties above named than anything yet suggested. We were much touched by Mr. Craig's information that Mrs. James sent her little boy Charles Edward to the Presbyterian Sunday-school every Sunday, but we have been pained to learn that the reason the Fords killed Jesse was that they could not have arrested him, unarmed though he was, owing to the desperate defence which this lady would probably have made, with a double-barrelled shotgun, two pairs of pistols, and a Winchester rifle, which were "lying round the house." It seems to us that with such a mamma little Charles Edward needs Sunday-school more than once a week.

Everybody will be pleased to hear that Mr. James died poor after an active and much-respected career. Of course we do not mean to say that his career was much respected by everybody. Nobody's career is. The best and purest men have their carpers, cavillers, and detractors. What we mean to say is that Mr. James had the esteem and respect of a very large portion of his immediate neighbors, who are, after all, the best judges of a man's life. It is estimated that the proceeds of his robberies amounted to $263,778, an enormous business for one whose plant consisted of one or two horses and a knife and a pair of pistols, and now and then a rifle. If he had been the grasping, unscrupulous person which many have described him as being, a considerable portion of this would now be found among his assets. But so delicate has he been in meeting the claims of his partners, and so liberally has he provided for his little family, that his widow, we are informed, had only $200 in cash at the time of his death, besides the very plain furniture and pictures of his hired house. One of the most touching incidents of his murder was, indeed, the fact that he was standing on a chair engaged in dusting one of these pictures—the work of an American artist, by the way—when he was shot.

It is now proposed in Missouri to raise a testimonial for his widow, and it has already reached the sum of $300. The sheriff of the county will doubtless be glad to take charge of any contributions sent to him for her benefit. The total sum needed is not large. She is not a woman to be dependent on her friends, and has already received the offer of a handsome salary from a travelling circus for the summer months, which she will doubtless accept. She has one claim on the community which she urges with much force, and that is, that her late husband would not only have left off robbing and have lived quietly, but would "have been an honor to his country," if the police had let him alone; but they kept following him about, and thus interfered not only with his comfort, but with his usefulness. Mrs. James, however, has seen enough of life to know that nothing is more unfruitful as well as more painful than reflection on what might have been. We greatly fear that his assassination will cause more trouble in the beautiful region where he was known and loved. The *Daily Democrat* of Sedalia, Mo., has a very strong article on the manner of his death, in which it speaks with great severity of the unwillingness of some people in that section to have Mr. James keep a permanent residence among them. "It was his country," it says; "the graves of his kindred were there. He refused to be banished from his birthright, and when he was hunted he turned savagely about and hunted his hunters. Would to God he were alive to-day to make a righteous butchery of a few more of them." We have, however, no doubt that any butchery which may be called for in that locality will be done, in spite of Mr. James's untimely end, and our Sedalia contemporary must not take the matter too much to heart.

Speaker Keifer removed one Congressional stenographer, Mr. Hayes, "for cause," according to law, but declined to say what the cause was, and keeps it to this hour buried in his own breast. The new man, Mr. Dawson, would have been an excellent appointment but for his inability to report; an embarrassing fact which came out at the Shipherd investigation. Thereupon the Speaker began to remove for cause again, and everybody expected that he would remove Dawson for the greatest cause of all; but, instead of this, he removed Hayes's former colleague, Devine, also, like Hayes, an excellent reporter. The alleged cause here is that Devine had fomented discontent with Hayes's removal, and had shammed sickness in order to make the strain on Dawson all the more severe, and bring out his incompetency in a more startling manner In Devine's place the Speaker has appointed one Tyson, who is said to be a competent reporter, but then the Speaker evidently considers ability to report only a small part of a reporter's business, and consequently may any day remove Tyson for cause. Tyson was once Mr. Robeson's private secretary, and this was perhaps the cause of his appointment, and curiously enough would also be a capital cause for his dismissal. The necessity of producing cause has always hitherto been a serious impediment in the way of removal, and has been supposed to be a protection to efficiency; but this is because it has been supposed necessary to reveal what the cause was. Speaker Keifer's plan of keeping the cause secret, however, gets rid of all this, and would enable him to remove a man because the moon was at the full, or because he himself had been up late the previous night. The question of most interest to the public, however, is, What will be the effect of all this on the corps of Congressional reporters, which has hitherto been perhaps the most efficient in the world?

Shipherd testified before the committee on Thursday that he was told by Mr. Hurlbert, the editor of the *World*, that he (Hurlbert) had had in his possession one of Mr. Blaine's despatches to the other Hurlbut, of Peru, in which was written in pencil, as a marginal annotation, the words "Go it, Steve," meaning thereby that Steve was not to regard the text of the despatches, but was to do things which they apparently forbade his doing in or about the Peruvian complication. Now comes Mr. Hurlbert, of the *World*, and says that Shipherd is a "voluble impostor," and that he (Mr. Hurlbert) never informed him that "he had had in his possession a despatch sent, or intended to be sent," by Mr. Blaine to Steve. It will be observed that he does not deny that he ever saw the marginal annotation on a despatch, and many will be disposed to believe, therefore, that Mr. Hurlbert's testimony does not contradict Shipherd's. But it appears to us that it does, and that a conflict of veracity has therefore arisen and is now pending. All conflicts of veracity are painful and perplexing to the bystanders, but this one will be peculiarly so, owing to the prominent position before the public occupied by the two actors in it.

Mr. John F. Slater, of Norwich, Conn., has given two valuable hints to men who like himself are so fortunate as to be rich. One relates to the wisdom of themselves distributing money which they wish to set apart for benevolent uses. There is a double reason for

taking this course. They will enjoy the pleasure of seeing the results of their liberality, and they will make sure that the money will go where they intend it to go. If they leave it to be distributed after their death they cannot be perfectly sure that it will not be wasted in lawyers' fees or wholly diverted by a successful will contest. Mr. Slater resolved to avoid this contingency, or the fear of it, by acting as his own executor to the extent of a million of dollars. The other hint relates to the object of such contemporaneous benevolence. There are few ways in which the expenditure of money would do more good than in the education of the colored people of the South. Although a class is named in Mr. Slater's gift, its results are confined to no class. The freedmen, of course, ought to be educated for their own sake. The other people of the country owe them a peculiar obligation in this respect in view of their sudden and enforced elevation to a plane of rights and duties for which their previous state had not fitted them. But in educating the freedmen and making them good and intelligent citizens a service is done at the same time for the white people of the South, for the Southern States, for the whole Union.

The Lamson case, tragic as it is, is fast being surrounded by an atmosphere of comedy. Lamson and his friends made no proffer of any plea of insanity on the trial, and made no mention of any peculiar theory held by him as to the medical properties of aconitine. After he was condemned to death, however, they went to work to collect in America proofs both of insanity and of odd notions about this particular poison, and put our Government in motion to obtain a respite, which was granted. The affidavits, however, were produced in such numbers, and opened up so many new fields of investigation, that it was found impossible to get them all to London before the day of execution, and Secretary Frelinghuysen accordingly telegraphed a synopsis of their contents, so that Mr. Lowell might ask for a further reprieve. It appears that it is now discovered that, besides having had much insanity in his family, and holding strange views about aconitine, Dr. Lamson was much addicted to the use of opium. There cannot be any doubt that if he were respited till next December, the supply of affidavits would not diminish in the smallest degree, and that if evidence of this sort was all that was needed to postpone the execution, the day for it would never come. It is difficult to see how Mr. Frelinghuysen can expect a civilized government to disregard the solemn findings of its own courts, in deference to hasty depositions, forwarded from remote parts of the world, of persons about whom nothing is known to the prosecution, and whom it cannot cross-examine.

Captain Howgate, who some months since was discovered to have embezzled large sums of money from the Government while in charge of the Signal Service, was unable to procure bail, and therefore had to go to jail. The severity of his confinement was mitigated by his being allowed from time to time to go home in the custody of an officer and see his family. The practice of letting prisoners confined for financial irregularities out on "leave" of this kind is said to have become very common of late years. The court sends an officer with the prisoner to prevent his escape, and on Thursday Judge Wylie granted an application of this kind made by Captain Howgate, who wanted to see his daughter, lately returned from Vassar College, and "to look over certain papers." The "oldest and most trustworthy of the court bailiffs" was sent with him. In some way, however, the bailiff "lost sight of" Captain Howgate for a moment, and when he "turned around," Captain Howgate was gone. The young lady from Vassar said that her father had "stepped out," and kindly asked the bailiff to sit down. This he declined to do, and insisted on searching the house, but, strange to say, could find no trace of Captain Howgate. There was just the same difficulty in finding Tweed when he ran away. In such cases the hard thing to explain is why the prisoner should be put to so much trouble to furnish bail. He generally cannot do it, and has to go to jail, but as he is then allowed "leave" of this sort, why would it not be simpler to let him go at large at once on his promise to reappear when wanted?

Senator Voorhees made a terrible speech in the Senate on Friday on the "dungeon" question, the galleries being filled with Irish Land Leaguers. He handled Mr. Lowell very roughly, and suggested the impeachment of Mr. Blaine for failure to go to war about MacSweeny. His voice shook, it is said, with emotion, and his frame trembled, showing that his indignation is genuine, and not, as many suppose, simulated, and must be ascribed to morbid nervous conditions rather than to ambition. He was, however, speaking under great disadvantages, for there was no way permissible under the rules of the Senate in which he could come up to the standard of excitement fixed by the Land Leaguers as becoming in an American legislator in the matter of dungeons. Mr. Robinson was in the gallery, and talk of war, as war is now conducted, must have seemed to him very milk-and-water stuff. He wants to carry it on after the manner of the ancients, with total destruction of cities, slaughter of the males and children and old women, and captivity of the young women. That is what Mr. Lowell ought to have threatened, and what Mr. Voorhees ought to have called for. Seriously speaking, the enjoyment the Irish get from speeches like Voorhees's is one of the most melancholy features in their case. It is calculated to make them seem in the eyes of all the successful nations of the earth an irrational people, incapable of self-government, and devoid of the nobler human pride. To a people capable of achieving their independence against England a speech like Mr. Voorhees's in their behalf would be insulting, as betraying a very low estimate of their intelligence.

No man in the Tory party in England had a higher reputation for ability than Lord Salisbury when he took office under Disraeli, and he kept it, down to the Turco-Russian war. How rapidly he got rid of this reputation during the following two years is now matter of history. Unluckily, while losing it, he managed by divers small indiscretions to lose also his character for strict veracity, which is one of the greatest misfortunes that can befall a public man in England, unless he is able, like Disraeli, to laugh off his falsehoods and evasions. Few people supposed, however, when after Beaconsfield's death Salisbury was put in charge of the party in the Lords, that he would lead it in a mood of such permanent exasperation. He talks about Gladstone in a way which hitherto has been considered very unbecoming, and which is fully as gross and insolent as the language which Biggar, the most foul-mouthed of the Irish members, uses toward the Premier in the Commons. A man, however, often talks foolishly without acting indiscreetly, and an occasional volley of abuse in the Lords would not hurt the Conservative leader if he were shrewd and prudent in action. But the Tory Peers have committed blunder on blunder under his orders. The rejection of the first Land Bill staying evictions, last fall, undoubtedly had the effect of making the second and great one more sweeping in its provisions, when it came, than it would otherwise have been, and made the Liberals more tenacious about passing it in its original shape.

The Act once passed, there was but one alternative for the Peers, and that was to let it alone, or work for its success. But they did neither. They began to denounce it for doing injustice to the landlords from the first month, and then committed the folly of appointing a committee to inquire into its working almost as soon as it had begun to work, with the avowed object of discovering whether the landlords could not be saved from it. This led to a snub from the Commons by which the committee was discredited, and the Lords humiliated, and the Tories placed once more in the position of implacable enemies of the tenants. Lord Salisbury, however, has not stopped here. His last move has all the air of that of a man in a passion. He is reported to be preparing for another extraordinary blunder, by proposing that, if the closure is passed, the Lords should assume that debate is not free in the House of Commons, and that therefore the sense of the country cannot be ascertained from its debates, so that they will be justified in forcing the Liberal Minister to find out the opinion of the country by dissolution, by resisting the passage of any leading measure which they dislike, no matter by how large a majority it may be carried in the Commons. Such a programme as this could only succeed by being kept secret. If it is once known the Lords are blocking legislation because they do not approve of changes made by the House of Commons in their own rules, of course the country would passionately support the Minister in bringing them to reason by making new Peers. It is, therefore, within the bounds of possibility that Lord Salisbury, in trying to force the Liberals to dissolve, might bring on his party in the upper House another great humiliation—that of having to surrender in order to avoid being flooded with new men.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

A COMMITTEE representing the National Land League Association waited upon the President on Friday afternoon, and submitted a resolution offered by Mr. Boyle O'Reilly and adopted by the Convention, regarding the imprisonment of American citizens, and asking the recall of Minister Lowell. The President said he would give the matter his early attention. There have been many rumors during the week, to the effect that Mr. Lowell would be recalled; and Secretary Lincoln and Mr. Bancroft Davis have been mentioned as likely to succeed him.

The President has informed General Fitz-John Porter, in answer to his petition for relief from the sentence of the court-martial, that it is beyond his power to do anything in the case. This action is based on an opinion by Attorney-General Brewster, which received the unanimous concurrence of the Cabinet. Mr. Brewster says that he agrees with the conclusion reached by President Hayes's Cabinet, and with the opinion of the Supreme Court, "that where the sentence of a legally constituted court-martial, in a case within its jurisdiction, has been approved by the reviewing authority, and carried into execution, it cannot afterward, under the present state of the law, be revised and set aside."

The President sent two messages to Congress on Tuesday, one asking that some action be taken in regard to the invitation extended to all the independent countries of North and South America, to participate in a general congress at Washington, "for the purpose of considering and discussing the methods of preventing war between the nations of America," and the other recommending an appropriation of $2,020,000 for restoring the Mississippi River levees instead of $1,010,000, which was the amount recommended by the Mississippi River Commission for that purpose.

A mass-meeting of from 6,000 to 8,000 workmen, representing all trades, was held in Philadelphia on Saturday evening, to express indignation at President Arthur's veto of the anti-Chinese Immigration Bill.

On Wednesday the House Committee on Education and Labor, by a strict party vote, agreed to report to the House a new bill to suspend Chinese immigration. This bill fixes the period during which immigration shall be suspended at ten years, and for the passport system contained in the vetoed bill a certificate system is substituted. There are also other minor modifications, and it is thought that it is now in a form consonant with the spirit of the treaty, and one which would secure for it united Republican support. It was passed by the House on Monday by a vote of 201 to 37.

A caucus of the Republican members of the House of Representatives was held in Washington on Friday evening to take measures regarding the future order of business in the House. Mr. Robeson presided. Speeches were made by the friends of several public measures which they regard as of primary importance. In regard to the question of the extension of National-Bank charters, the general sentiment of the caucus seemed to be that the Republicans could not afford to allow this Congress to adjourn without passing a bill providing for such extension. After an "animated but harmonious" discussion, it was finally decided that the order in which the different measures should be considered should be left to a committee of seven to be appointed by Mr. Robeson.

An effort was made in the House on Monday to have a day set for the consideration of the bill to amend the National Banking Law and to provide for the extension of the National-Bank charters. The resolution required a two-thirds vote, but received only 148, while 89 Democrats and Greenbackers voted against it.

Speaker Keifer has removed another House stenographer, Andrew Devine, who is said to have taken the part of the removed stenographer, Mr. Hayes, and has appointed J. C. W. Tyson, formerly Mr. Robeson's secretary, in his place. Both these removals have caused unfavorable comment in Washington.

The Senate passed the bill known as the "Omnibus Claim Bill" on Friday. It contained 1,359 claims of individuals which have been properly examined and approved, and which amount in the aggregate to about $291,148.

The Shipherd investigation, before the House Committee on Foreign Affairs, has become very interesting during the week. On Thursday, under Mr. Belmont's examination, Shipherd testified that up to the 3d of December, 1881, he believed that Mr. Blaine "intended in absolute good faith to coöperate with me, as he always intimated, suggested, implied, and declared that he would," but that it was his opinion that the aim and object of the Secretary in so doing was "purely political." The witness gave an account of a conversation he had had with Mr. Blaine, in which he told Mr. Blaine that he (Shipherd) had been defending General Hurlbut, and asserting, "in season and out of season, that he has done just what you told him." This seemed to please Mr. Blaine, who said, "Gentlemen, there are various ways to give diplomatic instructions. We not only write on the lines, but a trained diplomat will read between the lines, and sometimes he will read on the margin." Soon after this Shipherd had a conversation with General Hurlbut's brother, Mr. William Henry Hurlbert, the editor of the New York *World*. The latter "complained most bitterly that Secretary Blaine had ruined General Hurlbut by leading him to do exactly what Mr. Blaine wanted done, but then publicly disavowed the responsibility for it." Mr. Shipherd then related Mr. Blaine's above-mentioned remarks on diplomacy, at which Mr. Hurlbert "was surprised, and a startled look came into his face as he said: 'Did Blaine say that? Then I have him. I have in my possession a despatch on the margin of which, in Mr. Blaine's handwriting, is written, 'Go it, Stephen.'" After this, Mr. Shipherd said he "thought he saw how Secretary Blaine could deem it proper to lead a Minister, to lead such a man as myself, on a certain line up to a certain point, and then drop him." On Friday Shipherd was very closely pressed by Mr. Belmont, but refused to answer a number of pertinent questions, which caused Mr. Belmont on Saturday to refuse to question him any further. On the same day the chairman of the committee submitted a request from Mr. Blaine to be allowed to be heard. On Tuesday the examination was continued, but Shipherd again refused to answer pertinent questions, and evaded everything calculated to throw any further light on the matter.

Ex-Senator Dorsey appeared in court at Washington on Tuesday, and pleaded not guilty to the indictment which the Grand Jury found against him in the Star-route cases, and the order for the forfeiture of his bail was set aside. The counsel for the Dorsey party then moved for a bill of particulars, asserting that they had a right to know what affidavits, letters, or petitions, alleged to have been fraudulent, were referred to in the indictment. This is an attempt to make the Government disclose its case to the defence before trial.

The jury in the South Carolina election cases have rendered their verdict. The accused were the Managers of Election in the Acton Precinct, Richland County, and the jury found that they had hindered and obstructed the Supervisor of Elections in the performance of his duty by refusing to allow him to see whether the ballot-box was empty before the voting began, but did not find the managers guilty of stuffing the ballot-box with tissue ballots. The verdict was signed on Saturday, but on Monday two of the white jurors informed the court that they had signed "under a misapprehension, and under stress of bodily pain"; but the Court ruled that this avowal, coming after the rendering of the verdict, was too late. The defence, however, have taken advantage of this point to move for a new trial, and thus delay sentence.

Ex-Governor Jewell, Chairman of the Republican National Committee, called a meeting of the Committee, which was held in Washington on Saturday. A resolution calling a meeting of the Committee for the fourth Wednesday of January, 1883, was adopted, and the subject of the party interests in the Southern States was then talked over. All the members of the Committee present were unanimous in expressing the opinion that, wherever possible, a union should be effected in the Southern States with such liberal elements in those States as indicate progress in the direction of a liberal national sentiment and broader national ideas.

The North Carolina State Republican Executive Committee has decided to call a State Convention to meet on the 14th of June. The Committee has adopted a resolution favoring an alliance with the Liberal movement in the State.

The Congressional Reapportionment Bill recently passed by the Virginia House of Delegates, the effect of which would have been to give the Readjusters eight out of the ten Congressional Districts of the State, has been defeated in the State Senate by a vote of nineteen to sixteen. Four Readjusters voted with the Democrats against the bill.

The Connecticut House of Representatives has passed by a two-thirds vote a proposed constitutional amendment absolutely prohibiting the manufacture and sale of alcoholic liquors within the State except for medicinal purposes. The measure now has to go over to the next Legislature and pass both Houses by a two-thirds vote before being submitted to the people.

Mr. John F. Slater, a wealthy manufacturer of Norwich, Connecticut, has given one million dollars for the education of colored people in the South. The fund is to be put into the hands of a board of trustees, of which, among others, ex-President Hayes and Chief-Justice Waite are to be members.

Bishop Paine, of the African Methodist Episcopal Church, having been prevented from riding in one of the cars of a railroad train in Florida on account of his color, a deputation of the church, accompanied by Mr. Frederick Douglass, called upon Attorney-General Brewster on Wednesday and made a complaint against the United States Attorney for the Northern District of Florida for failure to enforce the Civil Rights Act. It was represented that all applications to the District Attorney for legal redress had proved of no avail. Mr. Brewster promised that the matter should be investigated.

A mass-meeting was held by the New York Free-Trade Club in Chickering Hall on Friday evening for the purpose of discussing the necessity of reform in the present tariff. A large audience was present, and addresses were delivered by Mr. Everett P. Wheeler, the President of the Club; Senator Vance, of North Carolina; and Professor Sumner, of Yale College.

Mr. Wayne MacVeagh delivered an address at the annual meeting of the Civil-Service Reform Association in Philadelphia on Thursday, in the course of which he said that his party had left him in a predicament, as it seemed to have but three great principles—namely, "The Spoils System, the Boss System, and Repudiation in Virginia," to all three of which he was opposed.

The War Department is informed that arrangements have been made for supplying the suffering Arrapahoe and Cheyenne Indians until Congress makes proper provision for their maintenance, and that there is no apprehension of further trouble.

Captain Howgate, who has been confined in the Washington jail under charges of misap-

propriating money belonging to the Government while Disbursing Officer in the Signal Service, escaped from the custody of the officer having him in charge on Thursday.

Twenty-four wagon loads of furniture and other household articles from the White House were sold at public auction on Friday. This is the first sale of cast-off articles since President Buchanan's Administration. About $6,000 were realized.

The operatives in the Pacific Mills at Lawrence, Mass., having refused to resume work unless their demands were complied with, the directors have decided that the mills shall not be started for about six months, which time will be occupied in making repairs and introducing new machinery. This course will leave about 3,000 operatives idle, and considerable privation and suffering seem likely to follow.

It was announced on Saturday that the well-known New York dry-goods firm of A. T. Stewart & Co. had determined to discontinue their dry-goods and manufacturing business.

The Board of Overseers of Harvard University passed on Wednesday, by a vote of 12 to 11, a resolution "that in the opinion of this board it is not advisable for the University to give any assurance or hold out any encouragement that it will undertake the medical education of women in the Medical School of Harvard University."

News has been received from eastern Siberia, by way of Irkutsk, that the United States ship *Rodgers*, which sailed from San Francisco last summer in search of the *Jeannette* and missing whalers, has been burned and sunk. Lieutenant Berry, with the officers and crew, thirty-six in number, is at Tiapka, near Cape Serdze. The despatch containing this information was sent forward by Mr. W. H. Gilder, the New York *Herald* correspondent who accompanied the expedition.

FOREIGN.

An enthusiastic Conservative banquet was held in Liverpool on Wednesday, at which 600 persons were present. The Marquis of Salisbury presided, and Sir Stafford Northcote, the Duke of Abercorn, and many other leading Tories were present. The Marquis of Salisbury dwelt on the gravity of the situation in Ireland, and severely reviewed the Government's policy and the Land Act. He deprecated pandering to agitation, and advocated Mr. William Henry Smith's proposal to increase the powers of the Commissioners so as to enable Irish tenants to become owners of their lands.

The official list of suspects detained in prison on April 1 places the number at 511, of whom twenty-eight are reasonably suspected of murder as principals and seven as accessories. The Catholic clergy of the diocese of Cashel and Emly have passed resolutions pledging themselves to exert all their influence to prevent outrages, demanding the cessation of coercion and eviction of tenants for arrears of rents, and also pledging themselves to coöperate with the people's representatives with the object of securing an amendment to the Land Act. Mr. O'Donnell, Member of Parliament for Dungarvan, has published a long letter in the London *Times* in which he maintains that the question of arrears is the one question to which all men responsible for the government of Ireland ought to turn their special attention. He says if the arrears difficulty be solved, every difficulty will be solved; but if not, then "farewell to the hope of peace, progress, and contentment."

The American suspects now in prison have been offered their liberty on the condition of their leaving the country, but they have refused the offer. Mr. Lowell, acting under instructions from Washington, has demanded their trial or release, but in the House of Commons on Monday evening, Sir Charles Dilke, Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs, said it was true that the American suspects had been offered conditional liberty, but he knew nothing of Mr. Lowell, the American Minister, having demanded their immediate trial or release.

Five hundred and thirty-one cases of agrarian outrages were reported to the Chief of the Irish Constabulary during the month of March. Two hundred and thirty-seven of the outrages were committed in Munster, 124 in Leinster, 122 in Connaught, and 48 in Ulster.

It is stated on good authority that the expense of administering the Land Act has thus far cost the Government £90,000, while the reductions of rent made by the Land Commissioners it is estimated reach £30,000.

Mr. Gladstone, replying to a letter from Mr. Henry Broadhurst, Liberal member of Parliament, who wrote to inquire concerning the truth of the rumor that the Government was prepared to consider an amendment making a two-thirds majority necessary to close debate, said: "We have surrounded the closing power with strong safeguards, and we propose that when it has to be applied it shall be by a simple majority. This proposal we will to the best of our ability press upon the House."

A respite has been granted to Dr. Lamson until April 28, but the prisoner has been also informed that no further respite will be granted him, and that no evidence which has thus far been submitted to the Secretary of State, either from England or the United States, affords any justification for advising any interference with the sentence of the law.

An explosion has occurred in the Black Horse Colliery at Sunderland, England. Four bodies have been recovered, but fourteen persons are still missing.

The Lord Mayor of London has published a letter asking for subscriptions to raise a fund of £6,000 or £7,000, to despatch to Canada a party of 200 families of the unemployed poor of London; and at a meeting held in London on Thursday, at which Cardinal Manning, the Baroness Burdett-Coutts, and others were present, it was unanimously resolved to form a committee to aid in the work.

A despatch from St. Petersburg states that the Governor of Podolia reports that anti-Jewish riots occurred at Balta on the 11th inst. He immediately proceeded thither with troops, and succeeded in suppressing the disturbances after some hours, but they were renewed during the night. Order was reëstablished on the 12th by reinforcements of troops. At Letitshev on the 12th inst. the houses of the Jews were attacked. Mr. Oliphant, the representative of the committee to aid Russian Jews, arrived at Lemberg in Galicia on Friday, and had an interview with the Governor, after which he went to Brody to make arrangements for the emigration of 12,000 Jews to America.

A despatch to the London *Times* from Odessa, dated Sunday, says that the Jews are flocking to that city from Balta and its vicinity. All their houses are said to have been wrecked and their property destroyed. Two hundred Jewish refugees passed through Lemberg on Sunday on their way to America, and two hundred more were expected to arrive there on Monday.

Five thousand Jews were recently expelled from Moscow, and during the Easter holidays the streets of Odessa were patrolled by troops. Seven hundred persons, mostly without passports, have been arrested in the neighborhood of Odessa within the last few days.

The Minister of the Imperial Household at St. Petersburg has issued a private circular announcing that the coronation of the Czar will take place in August, and that by Imperial command all dignitaries of the Empire must attend the ceremonies at Moscow. The festivities will last a fortnight, and it is estimated that the expenses will amount to 10,000,000 rubles. The celebration when the last Czar was crowned lasted a month and cost 18,000,000 rubles.

It is reported that eighty workmen who were employed on the Cathedral of the Assumption, at Moscow, in which the ceremony of the coronation of the Czar is to take place, were recently arrested in consequence of the discovery of a mine under the building.

A despatch from Constantinople says that the Russian Ambassador to Turkey recently announced that he intended to go on a furlough for several months, and adds that this is generally regarded as a warning to the Porte that Russia's patience is nearly exhausted by the indemnity negotiations. The Porte has stopped all press despatches in reference to the incident. The Sultan has since been making efforts at conciliation.

Leave of absence for an indefinite period has been granted to Field Marshal Count von Moltke. This is regarded as a positive indication of the present pacific aspect of affairs in Europe.

It is said that a tacit amnesty will be granted to such of the insurgents in Herzegovina as return to their homes and labor quietly on their lands.

At the opening of the Austrian Delegations on Saturday the President expressed the hope that the last remnants of disorder would shortly be suppressed in the occupied provinces in preparation for the time when they are to be incorporated in the empire. A bill for a credit of 24,000,000 florins for defraying military expenses was referred to the Budget Committee, with instructions to report upon it as soon as possible.

A deputation of the corporation of Barcelona had an interview with King Alfonso on Wednesday, and protested against the adoption of the proposed treaty with France. King Alfonso assured the deputation of the interest he felt in the welfare of Catalan industry, and promised to inform the Cabinet of their demands. He added that he was, above all things, a constitutional monarch. The Spanish Government has decided not to make approval of the treaty a question of confidence in the Ministry, but will allow the Ministerial deputation to vote according to their opinions. It is also stated that Señor Comacho, Minister of Finance, will not resign until the treaty with France and the bill for the conversion of the debt are adopted. In the debate on the treaty in the Chamber of Deputies, on Friday, Señor Lambrus, member from Catalonia, demanded protection for all branches of Spanish industry, adding that without protection the industries could not exist. On Monday, the amendment that the treaty with France be terminable at a year's notice, was rejected by a vote of 202 to 65, but the protectionists are said to be confident that they can defeat the adoption of the treaty and obstruct other portions of the free-trade policy of the Liberals.

The French imports for the first quarter of the present year show an increase in value of 182,000,000 francs over the same period in 1881. The increase is principally in raw materials. The exports during the same period increased, principally in manufactures, 119,000,000 francs.

A despatch from Paris states that 5,000 employees, representing every trade connected with the manufacture of iron, have struck against the proposal of the masters to deduct forty centimes on every hundred francs of wages, to be applied to the payment of insurance premiums of the men against accidents.

The correspondent of the London *Post* at Paris says that M. de Freycinet is much annoyed on account of the bad impression which the appointment of M. Roustan as Minister to Washington has produced. Persons interested in the Panama Canal scheme have warned the French Government that the American Government fears M. Roustan will follow on the Panama Canal question a policy of intrigue similar to that followed by him in Tunis. The correspondent of the *Post* at Berlin says that the appointment of Herbert Bismarck as Minister to Washington is probable.

TUESDAY, April 18, 1882.

WHAT IS OUR PRESENT SYSTEM OF APPOINTMENT?

THE plan of filling vacancies in the subordinate branches of the public service by competitive examination in the initial stages and promotion in the higher ones, has been met by the friends of the present system with two arguments. One is, that you cannot ascertain a man's fitness by an examination, inasmuch as moral qualities, the possession of which is ascertainable only by experience and personal knowledge, form the larger part of his equipment. The other is, that in looking for the right sort of men the President must have assistance, and that better assistance he cannot have than the Senators of his own party, and that in recommending candidates Senators cannot do better than recommend persons whom they have tried and found able and useful in the political arena. Now this system is intelligible and logical. It is the spoils system, under which the public offices are divided for short terms among the party workers, under Senatorial supervision, but with a certain attention to capacity. As this system is described in Stalwart speeches and articles, anybody, whether he likes it or not, can understand it. It is said to be the American system *par excellence*, by which, without any extra cost to the country, a class capable of running the party machinery is provided without creating a bureaucracy or an oligarchy.

Curiously enough, however, the friends of the system, though they defend it on paper, seem never to put it into operation, so that we are driven to ask whether they really believe in it. General Grant professed after the first year to believe in it, or at all events to see no proper substitute for it, and yet he never carried it out. He filled places more than once, not only in opposition to the wishes of the Senators of the State, but in opposition to the wishes of the bulk of the party, as in the Simmons case in Massachusetts. General Garfield announced in his letter of acceptance and in his inaugural that he would defer to Senatorial advice, and that he thought officers should hold during their term without disturbance, but he removed Mr. Merritt in the middle of his term against the protests of the New York Senators. Mr. Arthur, too, is of opinion that appointments should be made under Senatorial advice, and that the tenure should be stable. But he has in Massachusetts just disregarded the wishes both of the Senators and the party by the appointment of Mr. Worthington, and has shown that he does not think the tenure should be stable by the removal of Mr. Beard without cause. At this moment in Pennsylvania he has removed a Collector of Internal Revenue, with whom no fault is found, to make way, on the demand of Senator Cameron, for one to whom the other Pennsylvania Senator, Mr. Mitchell, is violently opposed, and with the full knowledge that the change is likely to widen the serious breach which has already shown itself in the Republican party in that State, and give great dissatisfaction to a section of the party all over the country which had a large majority in the last National Convention. So here we have not only the Senatorial right to share in the patronage, but also the value of the officeholder to the party, totally disregarded.

If the system of the reformers is not the best one, or not the one best adapted to American society, it is at least quite certain that some system is imperatively called for. If the spoils system is the best, let us have it; but do not let us go on pretending to administer the spoils system, and in reality administering no system at all. The spoils system really seems to exist only on paper. In practice the offices are used, not to oblige the Senators nor to build up the party, but to exasperate the Senators and split the party. They are distributed, not under the theory that they are the spoils of the party, but the private plunder of individuals, and are divided with a sort of Asiatic caprice. It is time now that the friends of the spoils system should stop writing magazine articles about it, and give us a pure specimen of it, in actual operation, or else make way for something else. The party could not, on their own showing, be in a worse plight under any system than it is now. Half the "practical men" hate the other half, and think they are ruining the organization. In Massachusetts, apparently no Republican thinks well of the appointment of Mr. Worthington but Mr. Worthington himself, and in Pennsylvania, although Senator Cameron thinks the President is acting splendidly, Senator Mitchell says that if he keeps on in his present course, the Republican party in the State will be driven out of power. It is sometimes said tauntingly of the reformers that if they wish to accomplish anything they "must agree upon a plan"; but the sneer, coming from the engineers who manage the patronage in this State and in Massachusetts and Pennsylvania, has a truly comic sound.

THE DEADLOCK IN THE SPANISH CLAIMS COMMISSION.

THE rumor is said to be current at Washington that Mr. Frelinghuysen will, at an early day, reverse the decision made by Mr. Blaine with regard to the jurisdiction of the Spanish-American Claims Commission over the question of the citizenship of claimants. The difficulty arose in the case of one Buzzi, in which the Commission decided that the mere production of naturalization papers was not enough to entitle a claimant to a standing before the Commission, but that it had power to inquire within certain limits whether they were properly granted. Mr. Blaine thereupon announced that the Government could not submit the cases remaining unsettled "to the application of principles distinctly repudiated by the Agreement itself." These principles he stated to be:

"that the Commission has the right to go behind the certificate of naturalization to decide, not whether the court which issued it was of competent jurisdiction, nor whether it rightly administered that jurisdiction, nor whether a certificate of naturalization has been granted to the claimant, but whether it has been properly granted—in short, that the Commission is a court of appeal with the right to review the duly rendered judgment of a court of the United States."

This statement did not do much to make the position taken by the State Department very clear, because although it sounds as if we were taking "high ground" in defence of the rights of American citizens, when closely examined it turns out to consist mainly of a distinction without a difference. The idea suggested is that while the Commission cannot inquire whether a certificate has been "properly granted," it may inquire whether the court which issued it was of competent jurisdiction, whether the jurisdiction had been properly administered, and whether a certificate had been granted to the claimant. But these questions are all branches of the general question whether the certificate had been "properly granted."

On looking into the proceedings of the Commission itself, previous to Mr. Blaine's announcement, we find that questions of the right to American citizenship had frequently come up, and had been disposed of in a way which shows that the Commission had always regarded itself as having very broad powers of inquiry into the standing of claimants as American citizens. The Agreement under which the Commission sits was concluded in 1871 between Spain and the United States, through General Sickles, then American Minister at Madrid, and the Spanish Minister of State. It provided for a general arbitration of the claims of American citizens or their representatives for injuries to person or property by the Spanish authorities in Cuba since the beginning of the rising against Spain in that island. The Commission under the agreement consists of two arbitrators, who name an umpire to decide in case of disagreement. The agreement contains the following provisions on the subject of citizenship:

"No judgment of a Spanish tribunal, disallowing the affirmation of a party that he is a citizen of the United States, shall prevent the arbitrators from hearing a reclamation presented in behalf of said party by the United States Government; nevertheless, in any case heard by the arbitrators, the Spanish Government may traverse the allegation of American citizenship, and thereupon competent and sufficient proof thereof will be required. The Commission having recognized the quality of American citizens in the claimants, they will acquire the rights accorded to them by the present stipulations as such citizens."

These provisions were intended to guard against any sham claims, on the one hand, and any arbitrary interference with rightful claims on the other. The correspondence between the two Governments shows that there were believed to be cases in which Cuban courts had rendered decisions as to naturalized American claimants, originally Cubans, denying them any American status. It was accordingly provided that the tribunal could go behind such decisions. To offset this, it was agreed that Spain might traverse the American status of any claimant and put him to the proof of it.

Obviously, in requiring this proof, the Commission must be governed by some system and rules. In the case of naturalized citizens, where the papers are granted by a court of competent jurisdiction, and are regular on their face, it cannot insist that the whole case shall be gone into again; this would be really to hold sittings as a court of naturalization; on the other hand, if the naturalization was alleged to have been obtained by fraud, it could hardly pass the claim without an investigation of the charge. Several cases have already come before the Commission for adjudication, and it seems to have found little difficulty in disposing of them.

In the case of Delgado, a naturalized citizen, decided in 1879, the question mooted was whether the naturalization, regular on its face, was vitiated by the fact that the claimant, during his five years of residence in the United States, had been once or twice absent from the country. The arbitrators disagreed, and the umpire held that this was a purely legal question of the construction of our municipal law on the subject of the right to naturalization as affected by residence; that the decisions of our courts must be followed; that the claimant's status as an American citizen could not be reconsidered. The umpire at that time was M. Bartholdi. The umpire who succeeded him, Baron Blanc, sustained the position thus taken in a subsequent case, upon which the Spanish arbitrator filed a formal protest, taking the ground that the tribunal was not bound in any way by the decision of any American court, but that certificates of naturalization, though valid for every purpose within the United States, had no binding force before the tribunal.

The next case which arose was that of Portuondo, in which the question of residence again arose. This question had been passed upon by our courts in his favor, and the tribunal following them decided that it would not go behind the certificate. The decision, however, contains these significant words: "Such certificate not being proved or charged to have been procured by fraud or issued in violation of public law, treaties, or natural justice"—grounds of impeachment, the umpire significantly adds, upon which "any certificate of naturalization may be declared altogether void."

This brief review of the proceedings of the tribunal shows that it has followed hitherto the only course which an international court can take as to questions of the citizenship of claimants. Where the question involves the construction of the laws of the country granting the naturalization, it is bound to follow, just as any foreign court would follow, the local interpretation and adjudications. When, however, the local proceedings are fraudulent, or in conflict with some treaty or general principle of public law, the tribunal must inquire into the facts; otherwise there is no restriction upon the manufacture of utterly sham claims. The cases still to come before the Commission are believed to be based in many instances on naturalization papers obtained by fraud; and this fraud, which, it must be remembered, is a fraud upon our own courts and our own laws, we have, to say the least, no interest in sustaining. The withdrawal of our Government from the arbitration under such circumstances, would seem to be unjustifiable; and it must be said that there is something rather comical in the fact that the withdrawal of the late Secretary of State should have been accompanied by an explanation of his reasons which, in the light of the agreement and the proceedings of the tribunal, is unintelligible.

HERZEGOVINA.

For the third time within a year the Delegations of the Vienna Reichsrath and the Diet of Buda-Pesth have been assembled to discuss the common affairs of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, and vote supplies. The second meeting took place on the outbreak of the insurrection in Crivoscie and Herzegovina, the common Government demanding and obtaining 8,000,000 florins as an extra grant for its suppression. Last Saturday, after months of fighting with almost uninterrupted success, the Government asked for three times that sum, to enable it to complete the work of pacification. Crivoscie, the rebellious district near the southern extremity of Dalmatia—a province properly belonging to the Empire—has been almost completely reduced to submission; but Herzegovina, a semi-dependency, not trained to obedience, and provoked by excesses of a rule but recently and arbitrarily imposed upon it, is not yet subdued. At first there was only talk of brigandage, a chronic disease in those border lands of the Slav, the Turk, and the Albanian, which had to be cured by heroic means; later, however, the real nature of the evil had to be admitted, and the numerous bulletins issued by the commanders of the Imperial troops, while extolling the valor of the forces sent to suppress the disorders, acknowledged the existence of an insurrection. It is now alleged that the insurrection is in its last agony, and that the large fresh supply of money demanded is partly to cover expenses already incurred, and partly such as are needed for the erection of forts and block-houses destined to prevent future outbreaks.

Whether all this be really so may be doubted. The rising in Herzegovina is, perhaps, far from expiring, and the milder season now beginning may, by reopening paths inaccessible to regular forces through the summits, gorges, and forests of that sub-Alpine country, and restoring the cattle to the higher valleys and slopes, create opportunities for guerilla warfare such as the winter, with its cold, ice, and snow-drifts, did not afford. It must be acknowledged, however, that the revolt has within the last two months shown decided indications of decline and exhaustion; that it has from the beginning lacked the patriotic—or, say, fanatical—inspiration which marked the contest with the Turks in 1875–6; and that the Imperial army has in every respect been well handled. The clearing of the Zagorye highlands between the upper Narenta and the upper Drina, for a time the main seat of the insurrection, by a concentric movement from four points, was a creditable piece of strategy, and, considering the difficulties under which it was executed, it may deserve a good part of the praise so lavishly bestowed upon it. The capture of Ulok in the centre of Herzegovina, like that of Dragal in Crivoscie, was achieved with trifling loss, and the operations destined to drive isolated detachments of the insurgents across the Montenegrin frontier have in some instances been carried out with precision. That the Austro-Hungarian forces are overwhelmingly large need hardly be said.

The Austro-Hungarians owe, however, their success, as far as it goes, mainly to the circumstance that Bosnia, the other Turkish province which they "occupy and administer," by right of an article in the Berlin treaty of 1878, did not join in the rising of the Herzegovinians. The Bosniaks were, like the latter, subjected to military conscription by a decree infringing upon the reserved rights of the Sultan, acknowledged by Austria-Hungary in a treaty concluded in April, 1879, prior to the occupation of the Sanjak of Novi Bazar; but it was probably the influence of the very Moslem element to which those rights were sacred, that prevented a general revolt in the province. The Moslems had had their full share of fighting before and during the Austro-Hungarian invasion, and they were tired of it. The Porte, leaning for protection on Austria-Hungary's ally, Germany, gave no signal for revolt, and no prospect of independence under Mohammedan auspices lured the former masters of Bosnia to partake in a struggle the favorable issue of which would subject them to a Christian rule—native or Servian—incomparably more oppressive than that of Austria-Hungary. And it is probably the dread of a new conflict with their warlike Moslem neighbors, in addition to the contest with the forces of Austria-Hungary, which has kept the Christians of Bosnia quiet, while their brethren of Herzegovina—in which there are but few Moslems—have been fighting for freedom, for independence under a Slavic banner.

Another circumstance highly favorable to the Austro-Hungarians has been the disorganized condition of Russia's foreign diplomacy, caused by her worse internal disorganization. Neither Montenegro, nor Servia, nor Bulgaria has dared to aid the insurgents of Crivoscie and Herzegovina, openly or secretly, seeing no sign of encouragement on the part of the Czar. In 1875 volunteers from Montenegro and Servia flocked to Herzegovina and Bosnia in large numbers; those principalities being sure of Russia's protection. And when, in the following year, both Prince Nikita and Prince Milan declared war on the Sultan, thousands of Russian soldiers were allowed by Alexander II. to join their banners; when Servia succumbed, the Czar saved her by direct intervention. Nothing of the kind is now allowed or promised by Alexander III., the captive of Gatchina, who still dreads to add the dangers and cares of a foreign war to the terrible perplexities which oppress him at home. Yonin, the Czar's agent in Montenegro, who formerly plotted in Herzegovina, and was lately suspected of doing so again, has been called away from Tzetinye; and Hitrovo, the Russian agent in Bulgaria, has openly declared in Sophia that his master condemns secret interference in favor of the Herzegovinians. Nikita keeps up a military cordon on the borders of his principality, and disarms and interns the fugitive insurgents who cross his frontiers; and Milan is so delighted with the friendly readiness evinced by the courts of Vienna and Berlin, above all others, in acknowledging him as King, that he does his best to prevent his subjects from giving aid and comfort to the enemies of the Teuton and Magyar.

It may appear strange that it is chiefly the Magyars and Germans in Austria-Hungary who are anxious to change the occupation of Bosnia-Herzegovina into complete and permanent annexation to the Empire—they who, in 1878, most vehemently opposed the invasion of the Turkish provinces—while a large portion of the Czechs and Croats, who then favored the occupation, now warmly sympathize with the insurgents. The explanation of this new

change in the constantly shifting kaleidoscope of Austro-Hungarian public sentiment is, however, easy. The invasion in 1878 was a move against Turkey, with whom Magyars and Germans sympathized in her struggle against Russia, from dread of the latter—a move calculated, if carried out completely, to add to the strength of the Slavic element in the dual empire of the Hapsburgs. Now, since Turkey has no chance of recovering the two provinces, in which the Moslems have lost all their former administrative and social control, annexation means the destruction of the Slavic hopes of founding a South-Slavic power or union, embracing, in one form or another, Montenegro, Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Servia—possibly also Dalmatia and Croatia—and likely to follow the lead of Russia in a combined assault on Austria-Hungary. It is, therefore, not at all surprising to hear the President of the Cisleithan Delegation—a German—express, at its opening last Saturday, the hope of a speedy incorporation of the occupied provinces in the Empire. The Hungarian Delegation will vote the grant asked for unanimously, or almost unanimously; the Cisleithan will give a decided majority in favor of it, the Poles voting with the Germans. The new burden is not insignificant, considering the permanent deficits in the budget of the monarchy; but economic reasons are silenced by political considerations and passions, and the Government knows no way of retreating that would not be a confession of a bad defeat, before Russia and the rest of the Slavic world.

STEWART'S.

THE announcement that Stewart's is not any longer to be one of the "institutions" of New York has probably taken few people by surprise. Almost ever since Stewart's death, there has been spreading through the "shopping" public a feeling that while the name was still there, the life and soul had departed. It had ceased even before that time to be, as it had for so many long years been, the one great "dry-goods establishment" of the American Continent. In fact, the somewhat pessimistic class of observers known as "old New Yorkers" were rather fond of predicting that the business, when taken hold of by "ex-Judge" Hilton, would be speedily ruined. Stewart's had been built up by that untiring industry and devotion to details which explain the rise of most modern industrial fortunes. Stewart himself knew "dry goods" as Laplace and Herschel knew planets, or as Rothschild knew the names on the backs of bills of exchange. Judge Hilton had had no training or apprenticeship in the business; and on the bench, as the bench then was, had had an opportunity of obtaining a much clearer insight into the ways in which the profits of lucrative business might be wasted and dissipated than into the best method of retaining or increasing them.

The business of Stewart's has indeed, ever since it passed into Judge Hilton's hands, been conducted in a most surprising way. The original acquisition of a concern supposed to be worth some $20,000,000 from the widow of the deceased owner by turning over to her the sum of $1,000,000, which had come to him as a legacy from her husband, looked, to be sure, like a shrewd stroke of business; but what it really displayed was ability rather of a financial than a mercantile sort. The hunt for the body of the late proprietor, which began about the same time, though it was a commendable proof of the fidelity of his friend and successor, can hardly have had a good effect on the business, for it caused the public to dwell unnecessarily on the fact that the founder of the concern was dead and gone, and that the business was being carried on by new hands. What was needed was the establishment of a complete identity between the old and the new in the minds of the public; and yet here was a continual and most painfully notorious kind of advertisement that Stewart had not only wound up his own business, but that his very body had taken the form of assets in the hands of rascals whom a lawyer like Judge Hilton might call executors *de son tort*.

Explanations of the causes which have led to the downfall of Stewart's trench, as any one may see from the interviews published with his successor on the subject and the general newspaper discussion, on rather delicate ground. The only great moral cause assigned, so far as we have seen, is the loss of the Jew custom, owing to Judge Hilton's order excluding the race from his hotel at Saratoga. How far there is any foundation for this may be open to dispute. There are no statistics at hand with regard to it; and, in a great Jew city like New York, the Jews themselves could hardly be expected to resist the opportunity afforded by such a striking event as the disappearance of Stewart's to exaggerate their importance in the social economy of the city. The antagonism between Christian and Jew in New York can scarcely yet be said to have assumed the proportions of a serious social problem; and when an Episcopalian congregation, forced out of its church by a fire, goes, as happened the other day, to worship temporarily in a Jewish synagogue, it can hardly be said that the fires of the old feud burn very hotly. Whether they burn hotly enough to have made the Jews *en masse* desert Stewart's because Judge Hilton expressed a desire to have them refrain from coming *en masse* to Saratoga, may be doubted.

It is more interesting to speculate for the moment over the causes which made Stewart's once great than to ponder over the true explanation of its decline and ruin. It was in its day a mighty store, a store the name of which was known in every American household or cabin from Maine to California. The name had pleasanter and tenderer associations than clung to any other store in the world, for it suggested the influence of woman. Stewart was the first shopkeeper who perceived the position which the two sexes on this continent were destined to occupy with regard to dress. Fifty years ago his keen insight into dry goods taught him that in the bright future which was opening for the race in America, the money devoted to dress would be mainly devoted to the clothes of women; that toil and labor, hitherto so selfishly imposed upon them, would now be mainly assumed by men, whose monotonous and ill-dressed lives would be made happy by the spectacle of the gorgeous dresses and bonnets and trimmings displayed by their wives and daughters, not tamely at home, but in the streets, in horse-cars, omnibuses, excursion boats, railroad trains, and hotel corridors. Stewart's was built up by the purely feminine passion for "shopping," which usually means buying dry goods under some one of the many forms they assume. Men, as everybody knows, not only do not shop, but detest and loathe the very idea—a trait which women usually attribute to stupidity, but which really comes from a lack of interest in dress. Nowhere is this so much the case as in the United States. Nowhere do men so entirely regard clothes as merely a protection against the climate, or a covering for the body prescribed by considerations of propriety. Clergymen and moralists have often used the spectacle presented by the professional hotel wife, with her five dresses a day, to point a moral as to display and waste, but the optimist may certainly derive a feeling of contentment in thinking of the other side of the picture—the unselfish husband, released, for the first day of the week, from the toil which produces all this beauty and luxury, to enjoy in his quiet and inexpensive garb the sight of what he has worked for. The unrestricted right to "shop" was undoubtedly first seized and developed by American women, and it was out of the development of this right that Stewart's grew. Where were the tailors, or even "ready-made clothes" men who could vie with him? They never existed, for the male demand did not exist.

Considering that it was woman who produced Stewart's, there is something melancholy in the thought that she should have taken up with the old European aristocratic notion that there was something degrading about the occupation which, in the last resort, makes shopping possible. It would seem as if the beautiful creature who purchases dry goods on one side of a counter, ought to have, naturally, a sympathy with the correlated male employee who measures them for her on the other. But, on the contrary, American women have always cultivated an aristocratic contempt for such occupations; and the romance of dry goods has been left altogether to the male mind. No romance unsupported by woman, however, could be perfect, and consequently the romance of dry goods which the career of Stewart undoubtedly suggested wherever the fame of his store penetrated, was of a somewhat sordid kind. It merely suggested to the young and ambitious that huge sums of money might be made in America through the appetite of women for dress, fed as it was by the devotion and docility of the American husband and father.

Finally, much as we must all mourn the disappearance of Stewart's from the surface of New York life, as moralists our regret cannot but be tempered by a feeling that its importance as an "institution," like all things that came down to the great New York of to-day from the little provincial New York of the period before the war, was somewhat exaggerated. It was undoubtedly a great store in its day, but that one of the chief capitals of the world should regard a big dry-goods store as one of its most unassailable titles to respect and consideration—that when asked what it had to show among the other cities of the modern world, it should, in the place of monuments of art and science, buildings or galleries, have triumphantly pointed to a dry-goods store, and proudly told the stranger who wanted to see what New York really was to go to Stewart's—was after all a little melancholy. Twenty years ago the disappearance of Stewart's would have been regarded as an irreparable public calamity. In the great city which New York has grown to be, the wreck makes one less among the old provincial landmarks, and the moralist may awake with cheerful surprise to the fact that after all it was not Stewart's that made New York, but New York that made, and unmade, Stewart's.

THE POLITICAL OUTLOOK IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, March 28, 1882.

THE political outlook is dark and cloudy, and persons who are not alarmists may reasonably look with deep anxiety on the prospects of the country. But pessimism is never wisdom, and any one who attempts to make any forecast as to the probable course of affairs must be careful to take into account the bright sides of a dark picture.

There never was a period at which Great Britain (I of course omit Ireland) was more distinctly than at this moment a country at unity with itself. Take any year from the outbreak of the great French Revolution to (say) 1850, and you will find that there then existed in one part or other of this island, and often over large parts of the country, bitter discontent, such as in 1882 is all but unknown. Carlyle's 'Chartism'; 'Alton Locke,' 'Yeast'; Disraeli's 'Sibyl'; every volume of Hansard, I might almost say every newspaper published at any date during the sixty years I have mentioned, bears distinct witness to a condition of society utterly unknown to the present generation of Englishmen, and which, were it suddenly to reappear, would make us all believe that the country was on the brink of ruin. The simple fact is, that reformers and philanthropists did at any time between 1832 and 1848 think the outbreak of revolution a probability, if not a certainty. All this is changed. We have no large discontented class unless it be the body of landowners. Loyalty to the Queen is the fashion. Like other fashions, it may change, but it is symptomatic of the prevailing sentiment. The Chartists have vanished. Many of the points of the Charter have indeed been embodied in acts of Parliament. But if the feeling which produced Chartism had survived, it would have expressed itself in some new form; it would probably have turned into Republicanism. As it is, even Mr. Bradlaugh, if he be a Republican, apparently thinks atheism more likely to be popular than dogmatic Republicanism. Change of opinion is due to change of circumstances. Men were Chartists because they were wretched. Free-trade, Parliamentary reform, the amendment of the poor-laws, the legal recognition of trades' unions, and a host of minor improvements in the law, which are themselves the sign of social and material improvements, have not removed all misery, but they have dulled the edge of discontent. Whoever turns from the poor and looks at the state of the middle classes, will see a breaking down of mere class divisions, which assuredly contributes to national strength. The universities, which were, not thirty years ago, the monopoly of a class and the centres of Toryism in Church and State, are now the universities of the nation, and command as much popularity as any institution in the land. This fact is well worth the consideration of every person able to understand its significance.

The country, again, despite temporary depression of trade and agriculture, overflows with riches. If any one can live in London and believe that he is not in the midst of the wealthy capital of a wealthy nation, he either cannot use his eyes, or cannot understand the meaning of all that his eyes tell him. The condition of affairs, moreover, abroad, is in some respects reassuring. The triumph of Germany did not produce anything like the benefit to mankind which some Liberals, with more hopefulness than wisdom, looked for from the success of the policy of "blood and iron"; but the overthrow of the Empire, the foundation of the Republic, the unification of Italy and of Germany, did undoubtedly lead to some results at which all Englishmen rejoice—no less for the sake of England than of the world. The Empire might pretend to be "peace," but it was in reality a menace of war to Englishmen hardly less than to Germans. The general course of events has, in spite of all the despots of Europe and their ministers, favored the spread of freedom and of good government. One proof of this is decisive: the foreign refugee, who for half a century justly excited the sympathy of Englishmen, is a figure of the past. The next generation will find it difficult to realize the sentiments with which their fathers and grandfathers regarded men such as Mazzini, Espartero, Louis Blanc, or Kossuth. When refugees are rare in England, despots, we may be sure, are becoming rare on the Continent, and the good government of continental Europe, which means nothing less than the happiness of the millions who inhabit it, may detract from the prestige of English freedom, but certainly adds to English security.

The important thing, then, is to make clear the nature of the signs which lead rational persons to foresee perils and to dread future calamities. First. There is something startling and ominous in the bitterness which, among the upper classes at least, political controversy is day by day assuming. No one can go into society without meeting with gentlemen who, not otherwise wanting in good sense, regard Mr. Gladstone and Liberalism generally with intense hostility. The existence of this feeling is to a certain extent accounted for by personal traits of the Premier's character. To analyze the reasons why Mr. Gladstone rouses something like animosity in the minds not only of Conservatives but of many Liberals, would itself require an article of some length. But it may be taken as a fact that strong and widespread as is his popularity with masses of the people, the Prime Minister is hated by many educated persons with a kind of abhorrence hardly felt by any one (within the memory at least of persons now alive) to Palmerston or Russell, or to any leading statesman of recognized capacity and of admitted high character. Nor is hostility to the Premier the sole sign of party bitterness. The courtesies of debate are becoming matters of tradition. Things are said in the House of Commons which would not be uttered in any meeting of ordinary gentlemen. No Home Ruler would say at a dinner table that Mr. Forster visited Ireland during the famine to enjoy the sight of Irish misery. The newspapers are beginning to follow the lead of the House of Commons. To write, with more or less circumlocution, that an eminent statesman and his son are born liars, is thought not unfitting by editors who mean to write for gentlemen, and claim themselves to belong to the class whom they address. Thirty or forty years ago as great or greater license of abuse was prevalent. Language was used of O'Connell which the organs of Conservatism would to-day hardly apply to Mr. Parnell; and any one who studies the political satire of 'Ten Thousand a Year' may satisfy himself that the amenities of political conflict were at least as much neglected in 1832 as at this moment. But the true remark that the rancor of partisanship was as rampant fifty years ago as now, does not, after all, mitigate the serious character of the new development of party spirit. For our fathers used in every department of life much more violent language than is now permissible in the society of persons with claims to humanity and good breeding; and fifty years ago England was passing through the crisis of a revolution. The bitter political feeling of the present day is a serious matter in itself, and is a sign of serious dangers to the prosperity of the country.

Secondly. Parliament is for the first time in English history working badly. The constitutional machine is out of gear. A Minister of unbounded energy is at the head of a loyal majority. He was put in power that he might carry through a body of reforms. There is plenty of work to be done, and Mr. Gladstone is the man to do it. Yet somehow or other nothing gets done. We are drawing on toward Easter, and the session has produced no results. This may be the fault of the Ministry, it may be the fault of the Opposition, it may be the fault of the Home Rulers. But whoever be to blame, the fact is certain that things have come practically to a standstill. It is also obvious that the Opposition have no wish to put matters right. They object to the *clôture* and they propose nothing in its place. To put the matter shortly, Parliament, or rather the House of Commons, has of recent years become more and more the government of the country, and now Parliament cannot discharge its work.

Thirdly. The temporary collapse of Parliament occurs at a time when there is the strongest ground for desiring that the Government of England should be able to command and use the whole force of the nation. There may at any moment be trouble in Egypt, and trouble in Egypt means difficulties with France; weakness may involve the most serious danger. But there is no need of looking so far afield as Egypt. The state of Ireland, or rather the relation of Great Britain to Ireland, is enough to fill even a confirmed optimist with forebodings. This, however, is a matter on which, more than on any other, it is necessary to avoid exaggeration, and to see that, as the saying goes, "the saddle is put on the right horse." Bad as the condition of Ireland is, it has undoubtedly at different periods within this century been worse. In 1828 and 1829, from 1841 to 1845, and again in 1848, there was far more ground than at present to fear armed conflict which might amount to civil war. Armed conflict in Ireland might, moreover, have then involved foreign war. A slightly different turn of affairs in France might during 1848 have provided Irish nationalists with French allies. From perils of this kind England is now completely free. Your readers can tell far better than I what may be the amount of help which the leaders in an Irish rebellion could obtain from America. But my own conviction is that, whatever politicians may say to catch the Irish vote, there is not the remotest reason to suppose that under the present state of affairs the Union, or any large party in the Union, would give aid or sympathy to Irish revolutionists. To speak the whole truth, I doubt whether Irish grievances receive from the mass of Americans the attention or the sympathy which in my judgment they deserve.

The perils of the time are not Irish insurrection or foreign intervention. The dangers which fairly excite alarm arise from the difficulty experienced by Englishmen in dealing with the state of Ireland. Coercion is, as every one now sees, a temporary makeshift, not a permanent policy. To rule by means of Coercion Acts is like governing by means of a state of siege. The device is effective for the moment, but every month which it lasts increases the difficulty of returning to the orderly reign of regular law. I do full justice to the good intentions with which the policy of coercion was begun. I dare not even assert with confidence that the policy was, with all its fatal defects, one which could be avoided. All that I do assert, and this without hesitation, is that the policy of governing by means of arbitrary arrest cannot last. The problem before the Government is how to enforce law and to protect life in Ireland by just, by regular, and by legal means. I do not believe the problem to be without a solution, but one may say with certainty that no leading statesman has pointed out a satisfactory solution for the adoption of the nation. Meanwhile, the further and even more pressing problem is how to carry through the agrarian reforms enacted in the Land Act, and prevail on the English public to wait patiently for their result. That efficient administration may do a great deal to protect life and property in Ireland is, if the whole art of government is not a delusion, certain. That no device which the human intellect could devise or human energy carry out can provide an immediate or speedy cure for Irish misery, or for Irish discontent, is certain. Patience, and almost

infinite patience, is the virtue needed before all others by any statesman called upon to take part in the government of Ireland; and the vital question of the time is whether the English nation, or rather the majority of the English electors, can show a kind of self-restraint and patience not always found even among statesmen and philosophers.

Fourthly. The difficulties of England arise much less from accidents of the day than from some peculiar characteristics of English public life and popular sentiment. There exists a want of harmony between the constitution of the country and the spirit of the governing classes. The Conservatives, under the leadership of Mr. Disraeli, hurried on the advent of democratic rule. The Constitution is at bottom a democracy veiled under monarchical and aristocratic forms, just as, during the eighteenth century, it was an aristocracy concealed under monarchical and popular forms. The people, or in other words the electors, are in the last resort sovereign. Their will gave power to the Conservatives in 1874; it installed Mr. Gladstone in office two years ago. A distinct change in the sentiment of the constituencies would involve a change of government. Yet, though the electors reign and occasionally rule, they do not as yet govern. They do not even give the tone to the actual Government. The governing classes are aristocratic, wealthy, conservative; and it is, in the main, through members of these classes that the administration is, and as things stand must be, carried on in England. The gradual establishment of a more or less democratic Constitution has not led to the spread of anything like democratic sentiment through the main body of well-to-do Englishmen. Hence what I have termed a want of harmony between the theory and the working of the Constitution. The "sovereign people" (to use a foreign expression) is at once served and governed by men who, whatever their own views, belong to a society which is aristocratic and plutocratic. Hence perpetual incongruities. Constituencies of artisans are represented and wish to be represented by lords. Great landowners or their sons hold, or are supposed to hold, opinions leading to the subdivision of property. The political leaders of the people are almost of necessity men who do not share or avow the sentiments of the social world to which they belong. This was as true of Lord Beaconsfield as of Mr. Gladstone. It will, I suspect, for a long time be true of every premier destined to exercise influence among the electors.

Hence, in the main, the prevalence of the constant misunderstandings between "Society" and the "people." Mr. Gladstone's talent, energy, and high principle, are in reality doubted by no one. But the very features in his character which displease the governing classes captivate the constituencies. The series of lay sermons by which he won the Midlothian campaign would certainly have never raised him to power if office had still been really in the gift of the House of Commons. They exactly hit the taste of Scotch Presbyterians and English Dissenters, and these classes proved strong enough to turn the election. The exercise, again, of democratic power through aristocratic agents, which is the marked feature of the existing English Constitution, all but necessitates the unpopularity of the Government with the classes from which it is taken. Mr. Gladstone, Lord Hartington, even Mr. Bright, appear to wealthy Englishmen something like traitors to their class. Persons of conservative instincts, whatever be their party names, are annoyed and alarmed at the deference of the Government to popular sentiment. When, years ago, Mr. Lowe denounced the "flesh-and-blood" argument, he hit the point in Mr. Gladstone's character which will always offend a large body of educated Liberals. At the present moment, men whose taste has long been offended fancy that their property is in danger. American critics of the Land Act will easily understand why Mr. Gladstone's agrarian legislation excites at once the fears of landowners and the censure of strict economists. The dread of attacks on property is, I am inclined to believe, for reasons I may perhaps give in another letter, not much better than a panic. My present point, however, is simply to notice that the measures which offend the governing classes certainly do not offend the electors. The Duke of Argyll's onslaught on the principles of the Land Bill commanded a good deal of sympathy even among Liberal M. P.'s; but no one has ever alleged that the tenant farmers of England or of Scotland were stirred to wrath by the economical errors of the Land Act. I doubt whether the Duke's speeches were admired by his own tenants. Some American young gentlemen have, in a recent book of travels, expressed their surprise that Englishmen do not by "one manly stroke" establish institutions suited to a democracy. This is not so easy a matter as our youthful critics fancy; but they deserve some credit for hitting one weak point in the state of the country. There is a want of harmony between the form of our institutions and the spirit of English society.

There is, again, something curiously uncertain in the state of public opinion. A whole set of political dogmas have half lost their hold on popular belief, while new views and sentiments have hardly as yet obtained the consistency of firm opinions. Two examples will best show my meaning. Throughout the whole sphere of foreign policy, including in that term the treatment of subject races such as the Hindoos, public opinion is, so to speak, at sea. Englishmen still feel that the power of England must be maintained. They also feel (and in this too they feel rightly) that it is not for freemen to play the part of tyrants or aggressors. Hence a singular fluctuation from one extreme to the other. A fit of Jingoism is followed by a fit of humane sentimentalism, and wise men may fear that humanitarianism may at any moment be succeeded by reckless national self-assertion. What is needed is a general conviction that some settled line of action is in principle right; but this conviction certainly does not now exist. Throughout the whole of our recent dealing with Ireland may be seen just the same conflict of beliefs, each of which contains truth, but neither of which has been properly adjusted to the other. The law must be maintained; life and property must be made safe throughout the whole of the United Kingdom. These are truths past dispute. Irishmen are our fellow-citizens; they have as much claim to representation as any other class; they are the best judges of Irish interests; it is not for Great Britain to rule as a despot over Ireland; above all there must be no bloodshed—the scenes of 1798 cannot be reënacted, even under the most mitigated form, in 1882. These, too, are truths which no man of sense, of humanity, or of insight, can deny. The difficulty is, how to reconcile more or less inconsistent convictions. After the English fashion we are trying to reconcile them in a manner which men fancy to be practically sensible because it is known to be theoretically indefensible. The resource of civilization is arbitrary arrest tempered by discretionary humanity.

A. V. Dicey.

THE POSITION OF THE MONARCHY IN ENGLAND.

London, April 9, 1882.

The Queen has, as your readers probably know, a large family—four sons and five daughters. It is held to be the duty of the nation to provide a competent livelihood for each of them, and accordingly when each of the sons comes of age, and when each of the daughters marries, application is made to Parliament for a grant of money to support the independent establishment which the prince or princess has thenceforward to maintain. At first there was no thought of opposing these applications. But latterly they have awakened some displeasure, and have been resisted in the House of Commons by a section which, though numerically small, is resolute and is increasing. Each occasion has a certain interest and importance as allowing people to give vent to feelings of impatience with our present form of government and its expense—feelings whose existence close observers have long been aware of, but which it is the fashion to deny or ignore. To what extent those feelings prevail, or what is the force they exert, are questions much disputed and hard to answer confidently. They are, however, so significant as to redeem from triviality a discussion over a vote of so small a sum as £10,000 a year. That is the sum which the Government last week proposed should be given to Prince Leopold, the Queen's youngest son, in contemplation of his marriage, and in addition to the annual sum of £15,000 which he already enjoys. The vote was opposed in the House of Commons by Mr. Labouchere, the colleague of Mr. Bradlaugh in the representation of the ultra-Radical constituency of Northampton; by Mr. Broadhurst, one of the two workingmen who sit in Parliament; by Mr. Healy, known to you as an Irish Nationalist peculiarly virulent in the expression of his hatred to England; and by Mr. Storey, member for Sunderland. The two last-named members, by the tasteless language in which they dealt with the question, displeased their own side as well as the audience generally, and probably diminished the number of their supporters. Only forty-two were found to divide against the grant, but a good many of those who usually support the Government refrained from voting, making thereby a sort of silent protest against a proposal which they did not like to resist openly.

The minority might probably have been larger were it not that Prince Leopold is personally acceptable. He is a well-conducted young man, and with higher intellectual tastes and capacities than his brothers; and it was felt that it would seem unfair to refuse to him what had been granted to them. However, the numbers on such a division in the House of Commons are no trustworthy evidence of the strength of sentiment on the subject in the country. The House of Commons is composed (with very few exceptions) of persons belonging to the upper and upper middle class persons who are under the influence of the opinion of what is called Society, and who would find it disagreeable to outrage that opinion, even if they were not themselves, as they nearly all are, in sympathy with it. Besides, there are some persons of a speculative turn of mind who, while objecting to a monarchy in the abstract, do not care to raise a large question on what they would call the paltry issue of a grant of £10,000 to a prince. So that altogether the proportion which the forty-two members who voted against the grant bears to the total number of members of the House of Commons (at present 652) is not necessarily any measure of the strength or extent of the popular sentiment on the subject.

What, then, is the feeling in England regard-

ing the ancient monarchy? In attempting to describe it, I must admit that it is a matter about which the fairest and keenest observers differ, so that you must not take what is said for anything more than it professes to be, a conjecture based on considerable opportunities for observation.

One thing, however, is certain: our feelings toward the monarchy have quite changed within the last seventy years, even within the last thirty. Everything is now an open question in England, everything is matter for discussion, on which people may think and speak as they like, without fear, not merely of the law, but of any social ban. There is no longer that reverence for existing institutions simply because they are existing, no longer that belief in the British Constitution as the most admirable result of human wisdom and the special favor of Providence to Britain, which filled and controlled all but the boldest minds in the earlier part of this century. The Crown, the House of Lords, the Established Church, are now all put upon their defence, and required to give a reason for their continuance. Even that sentimental loyalty toward the person of the sovereign which we see, for instance, in such a man as Sir Walter Scott, has almost vanished, at least from among men, and, so far as it remains, remains only because the present sovereign is a woman. There will be none of it felt toward the Prince of Wales when he succeeds to the throne. In other words, those who value and stand by the monarchy now do so chiefly either from habit, the strongest of all reasons with most people; or from a prudent unwillingness to make a change unless they can be convinced that it will be an improvement; or from self-interest, from the belief that the monarchy is bound up with the existing aristocratic system of this country, whose maintenance they for their own personal satisfaction desire. The sceptical tendencies of our times, the example of France, the very fact that the present sovereign has lived in such retirement during the last twenty years, have undermined the old disposition to accept the monarchy as a natural and necessary part of the established order of things.

When one proceeds to inquire in which classes of the community the attachment to it is strongest, one is not surprised to find the motive of self-interest operating most powerfully in the richer people. They are at once the best pleased with the existing state of things, and the most sensitive to rumors of a change. They think that the rights of property are in danger, and look upon what they call "the democracy" with serious apprehension. They conceive that the landed aristocracy and the capitalists must now stand on the defensive, entrenching themselves behind those institutions which can best resist a revolutionary movement. The Crown appears to them to be such an institution: if it can hardly be called a stronghold, it is at least a rallying point. Its existence is totally opposed to those notions of equality which they dislike. The ancient forms and ceremonies of our court, however hollow the philosopher may think them, have a certain fascination for those who come near them, and whose ambition it is to obtain an office in connection with the court, or to be noticed by a member of the royal family. Besides, the homage paid to these "illustrious persons" appears to the nobility to be similar in nature, while of course greater in degree, to that which the Peers themselves expect from their dependants; they therefore relish it, and consider it legitimate. Although many of them see that if the throne were removed, the power and dignity of a great peer would at first be more conspicuous than it now is, they believe that the levelling process would go on to attack hereditary titles, perhaps even overgrown estates. Thus, taking all these grounds together, the nobility and the wealthy generally are all well affected to the Crown, and would stand by it if it were assailed.

When one comes to the so-called middle classes, the merchants of moderate fortune, the professional men, farmers, and shopkeepers, there is not so much difference of view as might have been expected. Among the richer members of the middle class there are many who seek to confound themselves with the upper; they imbibe its sentiments, imitate its habits, use and sometimes even exaggerate its language. This is especially the case in London, in Liverpool, and in what are called "county towns"—towns overshadowed by the territorial magnates of the neighborhood. And the middle class as a whole, being prosperous, is contented; it finds England a good country to live in and has little desire for sweeping changes. It is satisfied with the monarchy as (on the whole) it is with the rest of the Constitution. It has perhaps even more respect for the sovereign than the aristocracy have, just because it is further removed from personal intercourse with the sovereign's family, and is less mortified at the feeble maintenance of court festivities since Prince Albert's death. Setting great store by the domestic virtues, it values the present Queen for the rigid decorum which has marked her whole reign. On the other hand, our middle class is a practical and common-sense sort of class, which tries to look at things as they are. It has now come to think the Crown rather an ornamental than a substantial part of our system of government. It acquiesces willingly in it so long as it confines itself to ornamental functions, and gathers in crowds to applaud a prince when he comes down to Leeds or Glasgow to open an exhibition or lay the first stone of a science college. But there is only one part of it which has any positive interest in, or affection for, royalty. That part is the feminine part. To women of the upper-middle, as well as of the upper classes, whose interests are chiefly of the social order, the doings of the Queen and her family are a subject of great curiosity and sympathy. They buy photographs of them; they like to read how they were dressed at such and such a state ceremonial; they think it an honor to be presented at court. To them, as to the country clergy, the word republicanism has still a shocking sound, and seems near akin to atheism. Their influence, though one may call it sentimental, is not to be left out of sight in estimating the forces that make for and against the throne.

It remains to consider the working classes; and here the difficulty of discovering the truth is greatest, not only because they are less articulate than those above them in position, but also because they differ in different parts of the country. In some places—in the Lancashire towns, for instance—a good many are conservatives, and these of course profess ardent loyalty to the sovereign. In the rural districts they are only now beginning to have political opinions at all, for our agricultural laborers are, with few exceptions, still excluded from the Parliamentary franchise. But in most of the great centres of industry—in London, in the towns of Yorkshire, Durham, and southern Scotland, in Birmingham and the iron country—the more intelligent section of the workingmen, those who govern the votes of their companions, have become, if not actively hostile, yet distinctly averse to the monarchy. There can hardly be said to be a republican party. Candidates for Parliament are not yet asked if they will vote for the abolition of the throne, as they are asked to vote for the extinction of the House of Lords or the Established Church. But the notion has spread widely that a monarchy is a mere survival from the middle ages—a survival of little practical use; a survival which is injurious to the rights and interests of the people, not so much in itself as because it helps to maintain the whole aristocratic and plutocratic system of English government and society.

Of course the workingman does not put the question to himself in any definite formula of this kind; but this is what, in a vague kind of way, he is thinking. It is characteristic of England that the first practical expression he gives to his feelings is by complaining of the cost of royalty. Although all the sums paid out of the public treasury to the Queen and all her children and relatives are trifling when compared with the cost of the Army, for instance, or the Navy, they seem prodigious to an artisan who is accustomed to support his family on from five to seven dollars a week. He does not realize the countless artificial wants and forms of expenditure which social preëminence brings with it, and thinks it monstrous that Prince Leopold should receive from the taxes, to which he himself contributes, more money in each day than would keep a workman's family for a whole year. Together with the admiration which the English have for rank and wealth, there is among the bolder spirits of the working-class some murmuring at the luxury in which the great live, as compared with their own laborious lot. There is no advocacy of any violent interference with the rights of property; but why, they ask, should a useless court be pampered out of the earnings of the poor? Such notions have not yet spread very widely or obtained any great hold. They show no signs of becoming dangerous to the stability of the Constitution. They will hardly grow to importance until or unless the theoretical republicanism which exists among educated politicians allies itself with this practical impulse toward equality and economy which prevails among the masses. No one can say when that union may take place. If the next sovereign leads a life as correct and decorous as that of the present Queen has been, and is as careful, perhaps more careful, to avoid showing any political sympathies, the throne may stand unshaken for a long while to come. Its weakness is its strength. No one has any active interest in destroying it. Levellers are more hostile to the House of Lords and the landowning system than they are to it; some of them even value it as keeping the great nobles in a second place. Sensible men feel the advantage of having an office which has a certain permanence, which is removed from the storms of popular passion and the angry criticisms of party leaders. Scientific students of our Constitution, like the late Mr. Walter Bagehot, have insisted with great force and truth that the abolition of the Crown would involve a number of other changes which no one is prepared to work out.

On the whole, therefore, it may be concluded that, although republicanism will continue to grow in England as a matter of theory, the time is still distant when it will become a subject of practical discussion. But if any monarch should quit the attitude of prudent isolation from political struggles which the late and the present sovereign have generally observed; if any Minister should succeed (as Lord Beaconsfield sometimes seemed inclined to try) in committing the Crown to a support of his own schemes, and uniting its fortunes to those of his own party, it would soon be seen how vast have been the changes since the days when George the Third was able to baffle Chatham's wishes for concession to the American colonies, and Pitt's plans for the pacification of Ireland. The roots of the monarchy have shrunk and withered; a strong blast might bring the old tree to the ground. Fortunately for a country which has so many

other difficulties to meet, it is still the general wish to shelter it and prop it up as long as we can. Y.

THE PRECURSORS OF THE RENAISSANCE.—II.

PARIS, March 30, 1882.

WE have followed with M. Muntz the steps of the precursors of the Renaissance. It is very interesting to follow him also in the study of the reaction which took place against this great intellectual movement. This reaction is not very well known, and one of the chief actors in it was a man who remains still problematical—the famous Savonarola. All parties have claimed him in turn among their supporters—the partisans of theocracy, the champions of democracy. Italy, as soon as her unity was complete, raised a statue to him in Ferrara, which was his birthplace. In Germany you will find him, at Worms, at the foot of the Luther monument, as if he had been a precursor of the Reformation. Meanwhile the order to which Savonarola belonged asks for his canonization. Was he orthodox? was he a heretic? "Adhuc sub judice lis est."

M. Muntz treats this interesting subject from a new point of view; he studies Savonarola in his relations with the champions of the great artistic and intellectual movement of the Renaissance. When Savonarola arrived in Florence the Renaissance was in full bloom: sciences, letters, arts, everything had been renovated. Under these influences, it must be confessed that a certain sort of epicureanism had taken possession of Florence. The city of the Medicis had become almost a pagan city; still, the Christian influence was not destroyed. It was the time when Leonardo painted in Milan his famous "Cenacolo"; but the mixture of Christian and of mythological ideas was visible everywhere—in the works of Ghirlandajo, of Botticelli, of Pallajuolo, of Filippino Lippi; in the writings of Poliziano, of Pico della Mirandola, of Landino, of Pulci. Marsilio Ficino tried to reconcile the teachings of Plato with the dogmas of Christianity.

The triumph of the Renaissance had been completely pacific; its champions had suffered no persecution, had inflicted no persecution. The new ideas sprang out of the old Italian soil like flowers in the spring; the germs scattered by Rome and Greece came suddenly to life, and there is nothing so striking in the movement of the Renaissance as a certain sentiment of youth, of happiness, of comfort, of hope. The soul, unfettered and unchained, seems to plunge into a sea of infinite felicity. It must not be supposed, however, that the new doctrines could be received without some resistance. There are in all times stubborn defenders of tradition, guardians of the old foundations of society. The first voice heard was the voice of Father John of San Miniato. He dared to say that the study of the pagan poets was dangerous for youth, and the Chancellor Salutato Coluccio had to take up the defence of these old poets. Another monk, Giovanni Dominici, attacked the writers of antiquity in his 'Lucula Noctis'; he said that it was wrong to speak of the gods of mythology. Even Pius II., the refined Æneas Piccolomini, became afraid of this return of the old gods, and, tolerant as he was, he nevertheless reproached Sigismondo Malatesta for having converted the Christian Church of San Francesco in Rimini into a sort of pagan temple. He reproached him also, and not, it must be allowed, without reason, for having dared to inscribe on the monument of Isotta the inscription, "Divæ Isottæ sacrum."

The successor of Pius II. was Paul II.; he learned that some of the members of the Academy founded by Pomponius Lætus and by Platina had exchanged their Christian names for Roman names, and he blamed them publicly. Botticelli learned, to his cost, that he could not trifle with the Christian dogmas. One of his friends, Matteo Palmieri, in a poem called "The City of Life," had accepted the ideas of Origen, and admitted that some of the angels had remained neutral between God and Lucifer, and that they had become human beings. Botticelli wished to illustrate this idea on the walls of St. Peter the Greater. Rio describes his work in these terms: "It is impossible to look without some sort of bewilderment on these three parallel ranks of angels who witness the Assumption of the Virgin together with the patriarchs, the prophets, the apostles, the martyrs, with all the glories of the ancient and of the new Law. But neither this new profession of faith nor the beauty of the work could supply what was wanting in point of orthodoxy; by a measure very rare in the annals of painting, the picture was covered with a veil and interdicted." Botticelli's "Assumption" is now in Scotland, in the castle of the Duke of Hamilton.

Savonarola became the exponent of the reaction against neo-paganism; he looked with distrust and contempt upon the old civilizations of antiquity; he denounced the follies and the crimes of the Greeks and Romans. "In matters of faith," said Savonarola, "any old woman knows more than Plato." He did not positively proscribe all the ancient writers; he thought that Homer, Virgil, Cicero might be put in the hands of young men, as well as Saint Jerome and Saint Augustine, but only in the latter years of their education.

"Among the ancients," said he, "there were poets who despised what was ignoble, and who exalted the actions of generous men; they made a noble use of poetry, and I will not and ought not to condemn them. However, the best poets of paganism ought only to be studied after a solid catholic education. . . . I take it that Christians ought to be chiefly distinguished by their good conduct. It is better to have a less brilliant eloquence than to become, with much eloquence, unworthy of the name of Christ."

Savonarola denounced the imitators of antiquity, whom he accused of a want of originality: "O imitatores, servum pecus."

"There are," he said, "pretended poets, who, following the footsteps of the Greeks and Romans, keep the same metre, invoke the same gods, use only the words used by the ancients. We are not made on a different pattern from the men of old time; we have received from God similar faculties so as to give to things which vary every day variable names. But the poets I am speaking of have made themselves such slaves that they can only say what has been said before them, and they repeat it in exactly the same terms."

Savonarola paid more attention to literature than to art. M. Gruyer has with much patience collected the 'Words of Savonarola on Art,' but these extracts leave a very vague impression. Savonarola mentions no painter, no well-known picture; he is completely wrapped up in moral considerations—he sees in art only a form of theology. He accuses the new schools of the Renaissance of having reëstablished the worship of old and pagan forms and ideas, and he accuses it also of realism, which, in his eyes, is the opposite of mysticism.

The great artists, Botticelli, Verocchio, Pallajuolo, and their friends loved to paint the naked forms of humanity; Savonarola objects to their introduction in the churches. "The figures represented in churches are the books of children and of women. We ought not to have fewer scruples than the pagans. The Egyptians did not allow anything indecent. . . . Aristotle, who was a pagan, said in his 'Politics' that one ought not to paint immodest figures, on account of the children. . . . What shall I say to you, Christian painters, who represent such figures? I beseech those who have them in their houses to have them whitewashed and defaced." The sermons of Savonarola were followed by an *auto-da-fé*, by *bruciamenti* of works of art. Some of his admirers were artists, such as Bartolommeo della Porta and Lorenzo di Credi, who sacrificed on the Piazza della Signoria the beautiful drawings which they had made from the model. In these *bruciamenti* all sorts of objects were destroyed—foreign tapestries, from Flanders, probably, with their coarse figures; portraits of Florentine ladies, cards, instruments of gambling, musical instruments, mirrors, such books as the works of Petrarch and Boccaccio, the 'Morgante' of Pulci, the poems of chivalry. Crowds assembled around these great fires: the *bruciamenti* were great popular festivities.

Savonarola had an æsthetic theory: in his eyes, art ought to be purely spiritualistic; he condemned naturalism, realism. "The works of nature," he declared, "are finer and more perfect than the works of art," but art has not for its object an impossible imitation; it has ethical aims; it must prefer expression to beauty—look for the beauty of the soul and not for the beauty of the body. "Take," says he, "two women of equal beauty, one good and virtuous, the other leading a dissolute life. You will see, on the features of the first, the marks of an almost angelic beauty; the second, notwithstanding her charms, will not bear comparison." Some passages of his sermons show well the social state of Florence; the painters introduced in their frescoes all sorts of portraits of living people. Ghirlandajo, in his frescoes of Santa Maria Novella, painted twenty-one members of the Tornabuoni and Tornaquinci families.

"You sacrifice still to Moloch," said Savonarola; "that is to say, to the Evil One. What are the fashions at Florence? As soon as women have married their daughters, they show them with ostentation; they dress them like nymphs; and they take them to Santa Liberata. They are the idols you have placed in my temples. The figures which you paint in your churches are the figures of your gods; and the young men, pointing to such and such a woman, say: 'There is Magdalen—there is Saint John,' because you paint in the churches images of this one or that other one, which is a grave insult. . . . Do you think that the Virgin Mary was dressed as you represent her? I tell you that she was dressed with simplicity, like a poor woman, and that she hardly showed her face. Saint Elizabeth, also, was simply dressed."

The religious forms of art did not lose anything by this teaching. The Convent of San Marco was the cradle of a mystic poetry which filled Florence with marvels. Many artists accepted the austere programme of Savonarola; and it is one of the greatest charms of Florence that it shows everywhere a Christian art side by side with an art inspired with the spirit of antiquity. What greater contrast can there be than that between the 'Perseus' of Benvenuto Cellini and the celestial figures painted in the silent cells of San Marco? Savonarola was not inimical to art, but his conception of it was narrow. He would not have converted Florence into Geneva, says M. Muntz; he would have converted it into a Mount Athos, with hieratical and traditional forms, like the great Byzantine figures of Christ, of Mary, of Peter and Paul. He hated all forms of luxury; he proscribed all the gold crucifixes, all the books of devotion adorned with miniatures; he was ascetic in the highest degree. Fra Angelico, who adorned the halls and cells of the convent of Savonarola, tried to soften his coloring. He was as ascetic as a painter can well be, and we read on his epitaph:

"Non mihi sit laudi quod eram velut alter Apelles,
Sed quod cuncta tuis munera, Christe, dabam."

Correspondence.

FICTION FOR SCHOOL CHILDREN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As implied in your note on the annual report of the St. Louis Public-School Library, we have had less trouble with the fiction problem than most other libraries. A great aid to the partial solution obtained has been the elimination in large measure of the element of expense by means of our "collection of duplicates"—a separate department of the library, supplied chiefly with popular fiction, from which books are issued to members at a charge of five cents a week per volume. This collection has always been self-sustaining, and of late years a source of increasing revenue. Any one interested can find a detailed account of the plan in the *Library Journal*. Not having the *Journal* at hand, I cannot be sure, but think it appears in vol. ii. It can be readily found by reference to the index, under my name.

Yours respectfully,
Frederick M. Crunden, Librarian.

Experiment Mills, Pa., April 15, 1882.

POLAND AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read with much gratification the able article in the *Nation* of April 6 on Poland. The writer correctly assumes the importance of Poland in the great European war which, begun in the Crimea, was so inopportunely interrupted to suit the purposes of the French Emperor. But on one point your writer, in common with nearly all writers, seems to me to want insight: He appears to look upon the question as one concerning monarchs only. As such, he may be right in his intimations of probable policies. But he has left out the mightiest factor in the coming settlement—the republican party throughout Europe, quiet enough, nay, I would almost say, dead (indifference is death) at present, yet certain to rise again so soon as our rulers have their hands full. It is the fear of this that occasions wars to divert the popular mind and waste the peoples' vigor, that compels peace when war might go too far. If Mazzini was right (and I believe he was) in his insisting that the question of our day is the assertion of nationalities in place of heterogeneous kingdoms, I think it must be seen that no new kingly arrangement—not even including a king for a king-limited Poland—will give a lasting peace to Europe. It is not a new political division after outworn patterns, and under the auspices of reigning families, that will content the peoples, however satisfactory such temporary arrangements would be to the houses of Romanoff and Hohenzollern—I dare not add, of Hapsburg. Kings of Greece and Servia and Poland, tributary to the all-devouring "Panslavist," will not save Austria. The logic of history is sure as the mill-work of the gods. Austria, built up of uncombining materials, was built but to be broken. The unity of Italy assured us of that. France, greedily annexing Nice, gave warrant to Germany to seize back Alsace and Lorraine. Does not the same logic require that Germany take also her own from Austria, and that consequently Germany in turn must relinquish Posen?

Underneath all monarchical leadings and misleadings, under all political calculations, lies the fear of the nascent national life, *which can only be republican*. Kingly Poland! The whole brood of Stanislas and Czartoryski is effete and below contempt. Poland's heroes are republicans: Konarski, Darasz, Worcel, the preachers of the republican faith throughout all Europe. For this did they become exiles. The partitioning of Poland was the first step toward the disenthronement of the partitioners; and not of them only, but of those who only held their clothes and looked on. Poland is indeed the one indispensable factor in the settlement of the Eastern—say, rather the European—question. The Crimean War was a mistake. Not the war, but the seat of the war. Had England's rulers cared for anything except the policy of the hour; had they cared for right and England's honor, they had sent our army to the north, and, with a republican Poland, checkmated the Czar. Only that had not suited our "good ally," had been indeed as a proclamation of the European Republic, fruit on the blighted promise of 1848; and what English Government, however "Liberal," has any leanings toward republicanism? Your writer recognizes the Polish necessity; does he also see the certainty and necessity of a republican Poland?

I string together only a few random remarks as provocation for thought, not daring to intrude more upon your space. W. J. Linton.

New Haven, April 13, 1882.

[The "republican party throughout Europe" is not dead, not even apparently so; but it does not appear to us destined to be "the mightiest factor in the coming settlement" between Slavs and Teutons, the probabilities of which, as arising from present political combinations and national propensities, our article considered without regard to postulates of reason and justice.—Ed. Nation.]

COMPETITIVE EXAMINATIONS FOR PASSED ASSISTANT SURGEONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In reply to your correspondent in the *Nation* of March 30, in regard to the above question, allow me to occupy space enough to state the following. Your correspondent appears to admit that he knew he was to compete in his examinations with his classmates, and that his standing or precedence would be given accordingly; that competitive examinations are strong incentives to study, professional zeal, and in fact to general excellence; that in a learned profession the method pursued in the examinations in vogue for nearly fifty-nine years so successfully (judging by the previous notorious inefficiency of the medical corps of the Navy) is the only present practical way of obtaining properly qualified medical officers for the Navy, and of determining their relative merits; and that the system of competitive examinations so long pursued, and by which some thirty men obtained their relative leading positions on the Navy list by fair trial, is now overthrown by a legal technicality pure and simple, leaving the questions of right intention, principle, and honor entirely aside.

These are simply unadorned facts. As to the question of fairness, and opportunities for study dependent upon station during the first three years of our service and between the two examinations, let me cite two well-known instances, the records of which are at the Navy Department, Washington. The two leading agitators, in whose names all this matter is carried on, in both examinations (different examiners in each, when fresh from the schools, and again when home from their three years' service abroad) did no better than attain the minimum sum of marks or numbers necessary to pass and *be in* the service; in both examinations coming out at the foot of their respective classes. These two men, preceding their second examinations, made sea cruises to stations where other men similarly situated came home and took the heads of their respective classes—these latter finding no lack of hospital facilities, study, or books. In fact, with but few exceptions, the men who were found to take high numbers relatively to their classmates (a class is made up of all who enter in any one year), in their examinations for admission into the service, usually kept their positions on their second examinations for promotion, three years later. The earnest student and qualified man holds his own, according to the records at the Bureau of Medicine and Surgery in the Navy Department. This probably accords with the universal experience in educational matters. The influential conniver obtains, by a decision based upon a legal technicality given by Attorney-General Devens in March, 1881, and acted upon by the Navy Department in January, 1882, that which he fails to attain by his merits. His conduct may be liable to a court of inquiry; for do not such actions come under the general laws relating to "conduct unbecoming an officer or a gentleman"? Your correspondent, and the two men above indicated, go up on the Navy list many numbers—from the foot to the heads of their respective classes—by the success of this questionable scheme, their zeal in *this* instance bearing rich though rare fruit.

The passage of Senate Bill No. 414, introduced by Senator Lamar, and entitled "A Bill in relation to Passed Assistant Surgeons in the Navy," would prevent this injustice and compel the Navy Department to keep its promises to us. We were induced to enter the Navy by fair-speaking circulars—holding out rewards for zeal and study; and now, after (in some instances) eleven years, to be set back in rank and grade from one to five or more years, with corresponding loss of pay and emolument, and by the perversion of the spirit and intent of the law and custom of nearly fifty-nine years, is disheartening in the extreme. Our bill merely seeks to give us by statute incontrovertible what the Government promised and gave us for many years. There is no money in it, and it is intimately concerned with civil-service principles—about which the sentiment of intelligent men of all parties does not differ. For all these reasons, we hope for justice from Congress sooner or later. C. A. S.

April 13, 1882.

THE CHINESE QUESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: For the first time since I began to read the *Nation*, I find myself out of sympathy with its views on a great public question. The subject of Chinese immigration is a very important one, deserving, I think, more attention than the *Nation* has given it hitherto. Nor can I help thinking that the instincts of the "great unwashed" are in this case correct.

The Chinese Bill recently vetoed by the President was an outrage, for it violated treaty obligations but recently assumed and plainly understood. But the question whether this particular bill is a desirable one, and the question whether we had better regulate—or, if it threatens to become too large, prohibit—Chinese immigration, are very different; and the latter, in my opinion, should be answered in the affirmative as vigorously as the former in the negative. We should not pass laws in violation of existing treaties, but we may secure the modification of such treaties in a proper way, and then take such measures as our interests demand.

Chinese immigration should be prohibited, because—(1) the Chinese do not assimilate readily with our population; (2) they are of a civiliza-

tion so different from ours, and of political, religious, and ethical traditions so different from ours, that wherever they settle in considerable numbers the "conflict of races" begins; (3) their standard of life is so much lower than that of ours that they cannot but influence our laboring population unfavorably; (4) economical and social difficulties would grow out of their continued immigration which would seriously threaten the existence of our political institutions; (5) the United States Government is utterly powerless to protect the interests of such Chinese as do immigrate from the attacks which their presence invites wherever they settle, without a radical change in the theory and practice of Federal interference.

Even if none of the above points deserve consideration, yet the following one certainly does: The Chinese have come to California in not very great numbers; immediately, a "Chinese question" appears, which, although local in some respects, has yet become national in many others. The State government is either unwilling or unable, or both, to protect a large class of its citizens from violent personal assaults from other citizens; the Federal Government is equally powerless. The same elements which have produced such a condition of things in California stand ready to produce the same condition in every other locality where the Chinese shall settle. Shall we shut our eyes to these facts, and try to meet them with "glittering generalities" on our duty to the oppressed races, on the fact that "the spirit of our institutions is the spirit of freedom," and on our duty to convert and Christianize the heathen? Are we ready to solve the "Chinese question" when it starts up, not three thousand miles away in San Francisco, but in New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Charleston, New Orleans, St. Louis, and Chicago? We cannot solve it now; what shall we do then? My conclusion, then, is that it is far easier for us to keep out the Chinese than to solve the social, economical, and political difficulties which their presence among us will create.

What are the objections to prohibiting it? It is urged that it is contrary to our traditions to prohibit immigration. On the contrary, we have always proceeded on the theory that we had a perfect right to keep out every class of immigrants which was likely to prove injurious to us. We have repeatedly sent back to Europe criminals and paupers who had been sent here to get rid of them. We prohibited the slave-trade, which was not much worse than the coolie-trade. Besides, up to this time we have had no such question as this of Chinese immigration to deal with. The immigration *en masse* of a race radically different from us in language, institutions, and laws, on an entirely different plane—mentally, physically, and morally—and of different religion and traditions, with a tenacious persistence of type and no desire to be assimilated, is something entirely new in our history, and we can consequently have no tradition in reference to it.

It is also urged that the Southerners might say, "You are now taking our old position, when we said, in regard to the negro, this Government is a white man's Government." I have no objection to admit this, though I should say in reply, "This question is an entirely different one." If the Chinese were here in great numbers, and the question should arise, Shall they receive the right to vote? I should reply, "Yes! Give to those now here all the rights that any of us have. It is the only way out of a bad fix." But if the negroes had all been in Africa, and the question had been, Shall we allow them to immigrate? I should have answered No! as now in the case of the Chinese; and for the same reasons, although there are objections to the Chinese that would not be good against the negro.

It is further urged that our material development could proceed faster with Chinese cheap labor than without it. This may be, but it has been one of our national mistakes so far that we have considered everything from the standpoint of our material development. Shall we, for the sake of a few more miles of railway a year; for the sake of a few millions more of gold and silver yearly; for the sake of a large increase of corn and wine, allow an element to be introduced into our society which will greatly increase the friction in our political machinery, which will endanger the very thing for which, after all, our fathers fought and our brothers and neighbors died—our political liberty and our civilization?

A further objection is made, that if we shut out the Chinese, we shall lose the Eastern trade. This statement would be hard to prove; but, if proved, should be answered as the preceding one was.

A last objection is, that if we shut out the Chinese, they would shut out our Christian missionaries, who are doing so much to convert them to Christianity. To which I would reply, to the Chinese—Your blood be upon your own heads; to the missionaries—You can find work enough at home.

I should be glad if the *Nation* would give us something more elaborate upon this topic.

Yours very truly, E. J. James.

Normal, Ill., April 10, 1882.

[1. The first generation of no race of immigrants assimilates readily with our population, particularly if they do not speak English. The first generation neither of Irish nor of Germans has so assimilated. 2. The conflict of races caused by the Chinese is nowhere so serious, or ever likely to be, as that caused by the presence of the negroes at the South; the cure tried in that case was not expulsion, but enfranchisement, and it seems to be succeeding. 3. The low standard of living of the Chinese, as an argument for exclusion, is no stronger against them than against all other foreign laborers. The standard of all the newcomers has been lower than that of those already settled here, and has been the principal reason of their coming. No immigrant could succeed here, at first, if his wants were not fewer than those who had preceded him. This is especially true of the Irish. 4. No new economical difficulties are likely to arise out of the presence of the Chinese. The economical difficulty caused by the unwillingness of the Caucasians to be outbidden in the labor market is a very old one. The solution which is proposed in the case of the Chinese would be welcome everywhere to the class which is here hostile to the Chinese. There are no laborers who like competition. 5. We cannot say whether the United States are utterly powerless to protect peaceable foreigners, because they have never tried. Until they have tried and failed, it is hardly becoming for them to legislate in such manner as to enable the separate States to evade their constitutional obligation to protect the life and property of all dwellers within their borders. Roughs "stand ready" to assault and rob peaceable people in every part of the Union. The Government, however, does not meet this readiness by advising the peaceable to go away and not provoke them, but by erecting jails, organizing courts, and keeping up police and militia. There is no surer way to incite violence than publicly to acknowledge that it is reasonable or natural or inevitable.

It is not true that we have ever kept out any class of voluntary immigrants because they were willing to work for low wages and lived frugally. The pauper, idiot, and coolie illustration therefore has no application to the present case. Moreover, there has been no Chinese immigration "*en masse*," and, according to the best judges, there is no likelihood of anything of the kind. There has been a very small Chinese immigration, to a region in which there was practically no labor but Chinese labor to be had, and in which it was sorely needed and very useful. Therefore legislative preparation for an overwhelming Chinese invasion seems absurd. It is not impossible that we may within twenty years be engaged in a bloody war with two European powers, but it would be very foolish to keep up a large standing army in preparation for any such contingency. Preventive legislation, especially if it be of a novel kind, which does violence to long-established principles, should be based on strong probabilities, not on remote possibilities.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

It appears from a circular issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. that Samuel Colman, of this city, published an edition of Longfellow's 'Hyperion' in 1839, but that the John W. Lovell Company, whose cheap edition we noticed last week, have not exactly followed Coleman's, but have, by embodying later copyrighted corrections, made themselves liable to an injunction by Mr. Longfellow's executor. In the meantime, Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have promptly brought out fifteen-cent editions of 'Hyperion' and 'Outre-Mer.'

During April, T. Whittaker will issue a special cheap edition of S. Baring-Gould's readable memoir of Robert Stephen Hawker, 'The Vicar of Morwenstow.' It will be well printed, and bound in substantial paper covers.

A. D. F. Randolph & Co. publish immediately 'Faith Victorious,' a life of Dr. Johannes Ebel, Archdeacon of the Old Town Church, Königsberg, Prussia, by the Rev. J. I. Mombert, D.D.

Robert Carter & Brothers have issued a tasteful uniform edition, for the library, of the works of Hugh Miller, in six volumes. The first and best of these contains portraits. Bayne's 'Life' and the 'Autobiography' are here side by side with Miller's literary, theological, and scientific productions; and it can hardly be doubtful that the personal element in this series has the most enduring interest as well as value.

The fifth and last volume of the "Geoffrey Crayon" edition of Irving's 'Washington' (Putnams) is now procurable. Besides Washington himself, his four immediate successors are represented in steel engravings, as are also Rufus King, Oliver Ellsworth, and Oliver Wolcott, and the distressing Crawford monument at Richmond.

"Margery Deane's" 'European Breezes' (Boston: Lee & Shepard) is a chatty book, in which the writer does not always remember how narrow is the distinction between the lively and the flippant—*e. g.*, such reflections as, "I would like to have been Goethe's mother" can be of value to nobody. On the other hand, the sketches of life and manners in Hungary are novel, piquant, and entertaining.

'The Appledore Cook Book' (Boston: Andrew F. Graves) will be welcomed by the public which the author, Miss Parloa, has created for herself through her lectures and classes. Its peculiarity is the use of measures rather than of weights. 'The Complete Cook Book,' by Catherine Stuart (New York: W. B. Smith), has a novel feature in a chapter on "The Serving of Wines." 'The Household' (Detroit *Free Press* Co.) is that *omnium gatherum* of which the table of contents will always excite a smile, for the grouping of such heterogeneous subjects can never be anything but absurd. Still, books of the kind fill a place in the family, and this is as inclusive as the best of them.

Lucy B. Hunt's 'Hand-Book of Light Gymnastics' (Boston, Lee & Shepard) is a brief and extremely compact description of exercises and marching figures, of which last many are new, intended for class use in girls' schools. The book is made by an intelligent and practised teacher; but it is to be regretted that brevity has been sought at the expense of illustrations, which in a manual of this kind are particularly useful. The verbal description of an attitude or a movement is a longer and a less satisfactory thing than the simplest pictorial description or diagram, even for skilled teachers. There is a good chapter on the dress most suitable for light gymnastics; the material recommended is coarse twilled flannel, with a thin cambric lining for waist and sleeves. The gymnastic suit, which is carefully described, can be made from this for less than four dollars. A not unnecessary warning against high-heeled shoes and tight corsets concludes this very practical little manual, of which our main complaint is that it is too brief.

Mr. Thorvald Solberg's 'Catalogue of Books and Articles relating to Literary Property,' or bibliography of copyright in its broadest sense, began to be published in the *Publishers' Weekly* for April 8. No less than eighty-eight authors are enumerated up to the name of H. C. Carey.

We have received the prospectus of the *New Education*, a monthly journal issued by Thomas W. Bicknell, Boston, hitherto associated with the bi-monthly *Education*.

There is a sermon worth studying in the mere series of faces of the pastors of the Trinitarian Church, New Bedford, Mass., exhibited in the pamphlet account of the semi-centennial celebration of that religious organization. Fifty years would hardly be expected to reveal so great a change in the mere physiognomy of the clerical profession—a change implying much.

'England and the Northmen,' by J. R. Green, a work complementary to his 'Making of England,' is said to be already in the press.

The latest brochure issued by the Deutsche Gesellig-Wissenschaftliche Verein of this city is entitled 'Ueber die Volkswirthschaftlichen Fragen in den Vereinigten Staaten,' by J. Schönhof. The Society was founded in 1870, and members meet once a month, from September to June, to discuss literary, economic, and general topics, and listen to lectures, the most important of which are printed and distributed among the members.

'Bluntschli and his Contributions to Political Science' is the title of No. 161 of the current *Deutsche Zeit- und Streit-Fragen* (Berlin: Carl Habel). The author is Dr. Franz von Holtzendorff. This little brochure contains a speaking likeness of Bluntschli, and an imposing array of names appended to an appeal for aid in founding a Bluntschli Institute "für allgemeines Staatsrecht und Völkerrecht." Dr. von Holtzendorff, Munich; Dr. H. Schultze, Heidelberg; Dr. A. von Orelli, Zürich; and Dr. A. Rivier, Brussels, will receive contributions to that end.

Parts 14, 15 of the new Brockhaus (New York: L. W. Schmidt) complete the first volume, but not the letter A, which is cut in two at *Arraroba*. Physical maps of Africa and South America, and a political map of the former continent, with plates of Egyptian antiquities and of the Aquarium, adorn these numbers. Characteristic of this work are the numerous titles relating to labor and the labor problem (*Arbeiter und Arbeitslohn* to *Arbeitsschulen*).

Just a year ago Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, published his splendid map of Central Italy, as edited by Henry Kiepert, in four sheets, on a scale of 1 : 250,000. The same house now sends us a smaller but not less beautiful map, likewise in four sheets, and also edited by H. Kiepert, representing the section embraced in the former map (*i.e.*, from Lake Bolsena to Pæstum) and all the rest of the peninsula southward, besides Sicily and Sardinia. In this new map archæology is disregarded, it being, in fact, mainly a reduction of the new topographic map prepared by the Italian Staff (*Stato Maggiore*), with a change of scale from 1 : 50,000 to 1 : 800,000. A side-map shows enlarged the Province of Naples and the bordering districts. Neatly folded within covers, this map recommends itself to every tourist in Lower Italy as full, authoritative, and convenient.

At the late sexcentenary of the Sicilian Vespers (March 30) a work was to be published upon which Signor Borri has been engaged for a number of years, a history of Sicily from the peace of Cattabellotta, where Amari's 'Guerra del Vespro Siciliano' ends, to the death of Frederic III. in 1347. And the Sicilian Historical Society (Società di Storia Patria) promised a very interesting work—a collection of all the traditions that can be collected in Sicily relating to the Vespers.

The Bishop of Como has set up a little private index expurgatorius. The journal *Il Baradello* having in some way displeased him, he has caused a circular letter to be read in the pulpit ordering the faithful not to read the journal under pain of falling into mortal sin, nor to aid its publication in any way. He has, in fact, excommunicated *Il Baradello*, or, in plain Irish, boycotted it.

—A portrait of Frau Materna is prefixed to an article on "Music and Musicians in Austria," in the May *Harper's*, which is timely in view of the impending arrival of the great Wagnerian vocalist-actress in this city to sing in the concerts of the May Festival. There are fifteen other portraits, among them Richter, Hellmesberger, Walter, Bianci, Wilt, Marchesi and Eduard Strauss. Why not Johann, the waltz-king and operetta composer? Brahms is also a conspicuous omission. The article itself, which is almost entirely concerned with Vienna, the musical metropolis not only of Austria but of the world, is written in that rhapsodical style which is still considered by many as "the thing" in musical literature, and for which Liszt's 'Chopin' is largely responsible. There is much interesting information, however, about the opera (which, like the Philharmonic concerts, has no superior anywhere), the popular concerts of Strauss and others, chamber music, leading singers, instrumentalists, teachers, etc. Ronacher's restaurant deserved mention as a unique resort, in which seven of the best bands play on successive days of the week, admission being free, excepting on Sundays. Several statements, which are hardly matters of opinion, call for correction. Jäger is not the "inimitable *Siegfried*," Vogel and Winkelmann being universally regarded as his superiors in that rôle. There are no "cadenzas" in the "Walküre." "Kolossalische" seems to be a new word. It is well known that Materna and Brandt are the greatest dramatic vocalists of our age, but on page 831 it is stated that Frau Wilt is probably the most dramatic singer the world has ever known. Six lines lower we read of her voice, that it is "astonishing mechanism, but a heartless, soulless voice"! This is only equalled in absurdity by the statement that Scharwenka "made the mysterious sickness of Chopin health. But who can imagine Chopin in health?"

—"Two on a Tower" is the singular title which Mr. Thomas Hardy gives to his new novel, which begins in the current *Atlantic*. Mr. Hardy has always had a fancy for combining sensationalism of situation with a "low" tone in treatment, and "Two on a Tower" promises to show this combination, for those who like it, in perfection. Sir Blount Constantine, an insanely jealous husband, has left his young and beautiful wife in England, while he has gone off on a two years' trip to the centre of Africa. To relieve his jealousy, she has volunteered a vow to live in absolute seclusion during his absence, which she has thus far with difficulty kept. Meanwhile she receives a mysterious letter to the effect that her husband, instead of being in Africa hunting lions, has been seen in London in very peculiar circumstances. About the same time she discovers that a sad young man, of great beauty and great astronomical ambition, has established himself with a telescope on a tower, where he is taking observations to furnish data for a work on variable stars. The astronomer and lady develop a good deal of sympathy for one another, and he explains astronomy to her in some of its more emotional aspects. There is nothing of the flirt about either of them, but the situation is one which suggests flirtation to the wordly-minded reader. After a few days of astronomical work, Lady Constantine comes to the conclusion that she must send somebody to look after her husband and see whether he is in London, and, of course, hits upon her new-found astronomical friend as the very man for the mission. He agrees, reluctantly, to go, provided she will watch a certain very important star for him and record her observations. So he goes off to dog her husband's steps, while she remains in charge of his telescope—a nice situation for the wife of a jealous man, under a vow of seclusion, to put herself into. And here chapter iv. of "Two on a Tower" ends. The only poetry of much interest in the May *Atlantic* is Mr. Longfellow's "Mad River." The sentiment of the verses is of the simplest—a child's song could hardly be simpler—and were it not for Mr. Longfellow's recent death, they would perhaps hardly have been printed. As poetry they are not to be spoken of in the same breath with the wonderfully touching verses—not intended for the public, but printed, nevertheless, the other day in the *Independent*—on his wife. If there is not much poetry, there is plenty of prose in this number of the *Atlantic*. The most strictly readable article, notwithstanding the subject, is "The Arrival of Man in Europe," by John Fiske. There is a huge attractiveness in the speculations of anthropologists when popularized which corresponds with their general repulsiveness before the popular stage is reached. Babes and sucklings like to be told that it is just about 80,000 years since the glacial period came to an end, and when to the knowledge of this fact is added the information, derived from some apparently simple astronomical calculations, that this same period began 240,000 years ago, making the glacial period 160,000 years long, there is every reason for the most ignorant reader to feel well pleased with himself. Further he may learn from Mr. Fiske's article that at the beginning of this little epoch men were living in the valley of the Thames; that at the end of it all the River-drift civilization had disappeared, and been supplanted by the more advanced and æsthetic Cave-men.

Then came the swarthy Iberian, and then the blue-eyed Aryan, with whom, of course, we feel comparatively at home. The third instalment of "Studies in the South" is rather too statistical to be interesting. Mr. Harrison is so much better as an observer than as an economist that we cannot help hoping that he will go back in the next to his first manner.

—The February number of the *American Magazine of History* bears for the first time the names of Messrs. B. F. De Costa and Henry P. Johnston as editors. Its opening article, "Morton and Merry Mount," by Mr. De Costa, presents the "lord of misrule" in a new light—indeed, in that of a martyr—and furnishes a fagot for the roasting of Bradford, Winthrop, Nathaniel Morton, Prince, and the rest of the Pilgrim and Puritan historians, all of whom have stigmatized Thomas Morton as a rogue and a nuisance. We hesitate to accept Mr. De Costa's conclusion that "it is undeniable that Morton became an object of aversion largely for the reason that he used the Prayer Book." It may not be denied that the man was harshly treated, but that he was oppressed because of his religious principles is contrary to all the record evidence. The statement that Morton had a "patent" for his "nest" at Mount Wollaston, inasmuch as it "does not appear to have been recognized by any writer heretofore," requires more evidence than Mr. De Costa has favored us with. In 1630, the year of Morton's second arrest and deportation, the Massachusetts charter most certainly covered Mount Wollaston and the country adjacent. That there was any "patent" for the land earlier than the Massachusetts one is more than doubtful. It is nearly certain there was none. The note relating to the 'New English Canaan' indicates that the first edition of that amusing book was printed without a date, but probably in 1634. The 'Bibliotheca Americana' (London, 1789), however, places it under 1632, and as by Thomas Moreton. Lowndes's reference to the Gordonstoun copy applies to its catalogue number (1634) and not to its imprint. Col. Dongan, "The Great Colonial Governor," makes a grand subject for the pen of P. F. Dealy, S. J. Strangely enough, the name of Dongan has escaped almost all the biographical dictionary makers; and yet, according to Mr. Dealy, Dongan "prepared the way for all that is most admirable in the constitution and policy of our great republic." Mr. Johnston writes upon "The Secret Service of the Revolution," and Mr. Henry B. Carrington on "Valley Forge"—a portrait of Major Tallmadge illustrating the one, and an etching of Washington's headquarters the other article. Mr. J. Carson Brevoort throws some "New Light on the Verrazzano Voyage of 1524," and promises to return to the subject in a future number of the magazine. An extract from the diary of Col. Ebenezer Storrs will serve to strengthen the position taken by Dr. J. N. Tarbox and other historians, that Gen. Putnam was the commander of the American forces at the battle of Bunker Hill. Storrs led a company of Connecticut troops in that battle, and writes, June 17, 1775: "About 10 went down to ye Hill to Genl Putnam's Post, who has ye command." We can commend this magazine to all who feel interested in American history, believing they will find in every number (judging from the promise of the present) an abundance of curious information pertaining to that subject.

—In 1878 several officers of the Army stationed in the vicinity of New York conceived the idea of forming a Military Service Institution, somewhat on the plan of the Royal United Service Institution which has so long existed in London. Its object was the reading, discussion, and publication of papers on subjects of interest to the military service, and the establishment of a national military library and museum. The professional utility of such an institution does not admit of question, but it was feared that the great dispersion of our small army would offer a very serious obstacle to its success. Fortunately this has not proved to be the case; its membership, which until now has been confined to officers of the Army, has reached the number of 710, or one-third of all the officers in active service, and it is proposed hereafter to admit ex-officers by ballot; its fiscal affairs are in an excellent condition; it has comfortable and well-arranged rooms on Governor's Island, and its library and museum are rapidly becoming very valuable. Each year a prize of a gold medal of suitable value, together with a certificate of life-membership of the Institution, is offered for the best essay on a given subject. For 1880 the subject was "Our Indian Question," and the successful essay, by General John Gibbon, attracted wide attention. For the current year the subject is "The Improvements in the Art of War during the Past Twenty Years," the award for which has not yet been made. The first number of volume iii. of the Journal of the Institution has just been published, and its contents are fully equal to the standard of the Royal United Service Institution. The number contains a translation, by General Weitzel, of part of the twentieth and concluding number of the admirable History of the War of 1870 by the Prussian Staff, a judicious and comprehensive discussion of "The Sabre and Bayonet Question," by Lieutenant Bigelow, a paper on "Army Wagon Transportation," by General Holabird, and the picturesque story of "Mina and His Three Hundred" (in Mexico in 1817) by Captain Potter. It also contains well-written criticisms of current military literature, and the whole number is particularly creditable in view of the small number of years that the Institution has been in existence, and the difficulties with which it has had to contend. Now that it may be considered as firmly established, it will doubtless prove with each year a still more valuable factor in the professional education of military officers.

—"X" writes us from Cincinnati:

"Permit me to call attention to a curious literary coincidence—of no great consequence, perhaps—which I have not yet seen referred to in print. It is that the *motif* of Mr. Anthony Trollope's latest story, 'The Fixed Period,' may be found in a play of Massinger's entitled 'The Old Law.'"

—From uncritical reliance on the old *trovère* Robert Wace, Mr. E. A. Freeman has put forth, as though an indisputable fact, what is, if not entirely fictitious, at least highly problematical. Roger de Montgomery, he asserts ('Norman Conquest,' vol. iii., chap. xv., §4), commanded, under William the Conqueror, one of the three divisions of the army that fought at the battle of Hastings. For particulars, relegating this assertion, pretty conclusively, to the realm of pure poetry, we must content ourselves with referring to a detailed article in the current issue of the *Palatine Note-book*, a publication now in its second year, of which the sterling value continues to be conspicuous. It would, indeed, be a matter of just surprise if, with any heed for evidence, Mr. Freeman could substantiate even the position that Roger de Montgomery was associated with the Conqueror at all in the invasion of 1066.

— The Germans have laughed for ten years over the blunder committed by the Frenchman who translated the word "Generalstab" by "le Général Staff," and who gave long descriptions of this famous officer. If German were only more generally known in France, there would be now a good opportunity for retaliation. In the March number of the German review *Auf der Höhe* is a description of the salon of Madame Adam, in Paris, translated, as the editor states, from the French by a German. The text is: "Man kann gleich sehen dass man in einem republikanischen Salon ist, obgleich Céans Maîtresse von der Königin von Spanien empfangen worden ist" (One can see at a glance that he is in a republican salon, though Céan's mistress has been received by the Queen of Spain). Who is this Mr. Céan of whom Madame Adam is the mistress? is the natural question, and it is doubtful whether anybody, no matter how well acquainted with Parisian scandal, will be able to answer it. But translate the phrase into French, and the mystery ceases: "On peut voir tout de suite qu'on est dans un salon républicain, quoique la maîtresse de céans (the lady of the house) ait été reçue par la reine d'Espagne." One is reminded of Lafontaine's fable of the monkey who mistook the Piræus for a man. Let us hope that Madame Adam will not bring an action for libel.

—Old-fashioned teachers of languages are sometimes tempted to rebel against the tendency, which seems inseparable from modern scientific methods as followed in this country, to enlarge on the grammar at the expense of the vocabulary. The objection that a school-book has a large vocabulary is simply fatal to it in the judgment of many progressive teachers, and that in the face of the fact that, for all practical purposes, the vocabulary is the main thing, as Mr. Lowell, himself a professor, emphasized in a recent lecture to English workingmen. The slenderest stock of grammar, indeed only so much grammar as one can pick up for one's self, will suffice for much literary enjoyment; and many scholars who are accomplished grammarians within a certain range know this and act on it when they leave their familiar haunts. So when one wishes to make out a Dutch or Danish sentence, a Dutch or Danish dictionary is all that is needed. And yet in the study of the classics the vocabulary of teacher and scholar is all the time getting narrower and narrower. "Etymology gives the key." Yes, but the key is never turned. French teachers, who of late years seem to have become fully alive to all that is going on in the educational world, are not disturbed by the fear of burdening their pupils with lists of words, and two little books have just been put forth by M. Bréal, professor at the Collège de France, and M. Bailly, professor at the Lycée d'Orléans, which are intended to combine what is good in the old plan with what is good in the new. The *cours élémentaire* of these 'Leçons de Mots' contains a list of Latin words arranged according to their sense; the *cours intermédiare*, a list of Latin words arranged according to their etymology, with elementary notions of formation, derivation, and composition of Latin words. M. Bailly is a teacher of high rank; M. Bréal is a man of world-wide reputation, whose familiarity with educational problems has not impeded his work as a scientific student of language. France is fortunate in having so many earnest philologians of high attainments, who work along the whole line in the patriotic effort to advance the standard of education. Elsewhere elementary work is too often left to mere compilers.

—A distinguished European jurist, Professor Goudsmit, of the University of Leyden, died on the 10th of March last. He held for nearly twenty-five years the chair of Roman law, and wrote many treatises of great value and importance. His principal work, on the Pandects, has been translated into English. Professor Goudsmit had many friends in this country,

which he visited about eight years ago. What makes his life and his work interesting to English and American jurists is that it shows clearly of how much value the study of Roman law, rightly understood, can be even in countries where the actual law is founded to a greater or less extent on a different basis. German professors, in their lectures and books, are too often compelled to go into tedious details concerning the works of Justinian, as being still part of the law of the land. In France, on the other hand, nearly all the time is devoted to the study of the Code Napoléon; Roman law is considered at best a means of elucidating what exists, not as an instrument of reform. In Holland the conditions are more favorable to the student of jurisprudence. Roman law, as law, was expressly abolished in 1806, and till 1838 the Code Napoléon was in force; but in that year a new code was introduced, which pretended to be a national work, but which was in reality very defective. It is, of course, necessary to devote part of the five years which form the usual course of study in Holland, to the elucidation of the law as it stands; but the great merit of the work of Professor Goudsmit has been that he wanted his students to consider not merely the knowledge, but the improvement, of the law as the ultimate object of their labor. He followed the critical method in expounding Roman law. Nothing was taken for granted, but the origin and nature of every principle, and its applicability to our modern state of society, were discussed. His books are works on comparative jurisprudence, not merely treatises on Roman law. The same method might be applied with profit in other countries by those who wish to understand thoroughly and reform successfully the existing law.

—With Saturday's concert the New York Philharmonic Society brought its fortieth season to a close. The concerts have been characterized by the usual excellence and even balance of the instrumental forces, by a judicious choice of vocalists, a conscientious and spirited interpretation under the command of Mr. Theodore Thomas, an admirable perspective and variety in the arrangement of the programmes, a due regard for novelties as well as for the old classic repertory, and by intelligent, large, and appreciative audiences. The Philharmonic concerts, in a word, have been what they should be—the most enjoyable of all the entertainments offered to lovers of good music during the whole season. The last concert was a fitting termination of the series. It included Beethoven's overture, "Die Weihe des Hauses"; a concerto for pianoforte by Hermann Goetz; the romanza, "Unter blühenden Mandelbäumen," from Weber's "Euryanthe"; Vorspiel to Wagner's "Lohengrin"; and Schubert's Ninth Symphony. The orchestral work was excellent throughout the evening, revealing no less Mr. Thomas's appreciation of all the telling details of his score than the peculiar electric nexus which seems to exist between him and every member of his orchestra.

—The Goetz concerto was new to New Yorkers, but it is a favorite in England. Indeed, the almost unanimous approval which this young composer's works have met with in England is something quite unique in the annals of music. He died at the early age of thirty-six, after a hard struggle against poverty, and after having composed, besides this concerto, a symphony, one opera and two-thirds of another, together with some chamber and pianoforte compositions. His first opera, "The Taming of the Shrew," has been produced with great success in more than a dozen German cities as well as in London, where the spirited acting and singing of Minnie Hauk secured for it the same popularity that it enjoys at Vienna with Lucca, and at Berlin with Lili Lehmann, in the leading rôle. The success of this opera is all the more significant because its greatest admirers cannot help admitting that when he wrote it Goetz was not in his proper element, the real comedy spirit being conspicuously absent in his score, and the finest passages those where the action for the moment assumes a tragic or serious aspect. In his leanings and aspirations Goetz belongs unmistakably to the "Siegfried" and "Meistersinger" period of Wagner, although he makes no use of leading motives, and uses the wind instruments more sparingly than others of his school. The concerto in B flat is characterized by the same features as his opera—seriousness of purpose, clearness of form, an abundance of fresh though not highly original ideas, a certain rhythmic monotony, quiet instrumentation, avoidance of trite phrases, and also a clear comprehension of the scope of a pianoforte in a concerto. The piano part was played by Mr. Hermann Rietzel in a very acceptable manner, and the composition as well as the soloist earned much applause. The concerto is a welcome addition to the society's repertory, in which it deserves to keep its place for some time. Signor Campanini sang the romanza from "Euryanthe." He did not sing it so well as on Friday afternoon, and received more applause when he came on the stage than when he left. Philharmonic audiences are much more critical than those listening to Italian opera. Through the persistent efforts of a score of admirers he was recalled, and sang "Winterstürme wichen dem Wonnemond," from "Die Walküre." His voice, with all its beauty, is too feminine in quality to give such songs with the proper manly dignity and simple expression. Instead of blending his voice with the orchestral parts, he sang like a soloist, compelling the conductor to watch for his slight but annoying rhythmic vagaries, which impeded the proper swing of this voluptuous music. The Schubert Symphony and the two overtures were beautifully played. The movements of the Symphony are all characterized by what is technically known as "divine length"; which means that they are not too long after all. The truth is, there are few symphonic movements by any modern composer, Beethoven included, that are not over-elaborated, and this fact is one of the best arguments in favor of the modern symphonic poem, as a musical form which offers less opportunity to composers for prolix writing than a symphony in several movements.

THE STORMING OF FORT GRISWOLD.

The Battle of Groton Heights. A Collection of Narratives, Official Reports, Records, etc. With an Introduction and Notes by William W. Harris. Revised and enlarged, with additional Notes, by Charles Allyn. New London: Charles Allyn. 1882. 8vo, pp. 399.

So far as the people of Connecticut have taken part in the seven years' cycle of centennial celebrations which is now nearly complete, they have only emphasized that practice, which some have thought an American eccentricity, of celebrating their defeats. But if it happens that no British army was routed upon Connecticut soil, the reasons for it are themselves a sufficient cause for pride to the citizens of that stubborn little Commonwealth. The beehive of industry, of frugality, of accumulation, of high organization that it was then not less than to-day, was a dangerous enclosure into which to thrust an attacking or plundering hand. To an extraordinary degree, indeed, the flower of her people was defending the common cause at a distance from her own hearthstones. A greater proportion of her population went to the forces of the Confederation than from any other of the colonies; a greater number absolutely than from any colony but one. From Quebec to Savannah, there is hardly a siege or a battle in which Connecticut courage and fortitude were wanting; but there was neither battle, properly speaking, nor siege within her borders, and no hostile force ever slept a night upon her soil. The raid of Tryon upon Danbury in 1777 was repelled with such vigor by the swarming farmers that the three nights which his troops passed on shore were spent in the torment of marching and fighting, and not in rest. The successive dashes upon New Haven, Fairfield, and Norwalk two years later were ended each upon the day it was begun, by a retreat to the ships. And the first and last shot of Arnold's "military execution" at New London were both fired between sun and sun of that one summer day, the 6th of September, 1781.

Not one of these enterprises can be regarded as having any organic relation to the general development of the war, or any substantial influence, except a moral influence, upon its result. Each of them was an episode, the story of which might be told almost completely without referring to the existence of a general war between the confederated colonies and Great Britain. The first was a mere dash for the destruction of stores; the second sought also to strike terror into an especially rebellious community by an impression of ubiquitous and irresistible force; but the last was impelled by the further motives of a wish to effect a diversion from the movement to Virginia which culminated, a few weeks later, in the surrender at Yorktown, and a wish to inflict vengeance upon a nest of privateers perhaps the most mischievous upon the Atlantic coast. And it may well be doubted whether any one event in that seven years' struggle, which certainly was not wanting in various elements of poetry and romance, was richer in heroic material than the twelve hours' incident of the mouth of the Thames. It was as well worth celebrating as anything that happened a hundred years ago. It seems to have been worthily celebrated; and now both the event and the celebration have found a worthy record in the volume whose title-page is partly given above. In some respects, indeed, the work may be called quite the ideal of its class. A brief historical sketch presents the situation at the moment the expedition was undertaken, and introduces contemporary newspaper accounts of the event, seven narratives of participants or witnesses, the official reports of the several British commanders, and a collection of extracts from public archives, lists of killed and wounded, biographical sketches, etc., so full as to seem exhaustive. It is, however, a circumstance significant of the completeness of the disaster that befell the Americans that no official report upon their side seems to have been made, for no officer was left to make one.

With a detailed account of the celebration of last September—the orations and the poems, the sermon and the prayers—the volume closes. And when we have added that the editorial work is done with a modesty of self-suppression almost excessive; that the book is manufactured at the Riverside Press with its accustomed accuracy and beauty; and that it is illustrated with ample and admirable views and maps, we have sufficiently called attention to the book itself. But we are unwilling to dismiss its subject without adverting to an accepted opinion which appears plainly, from the complete record here presented, to be mistaken and unjust.

The wound inflicted upon Connecticut by the New London expedition was not only deep, but it was a very sore one. The expedition was under the command of the most infamous, as he was one of the most brilliant, of the sons of Connecticut. Benedict Arnold, who had led the onslaught upon Tryon's columns at Danbury in 1777, and who knew well, therefore, how such raids should be managed, led now the descent upon his native county. The destruction of the little city of New London by the column which landed under his immediate command upon the west side of the harbor, was wanton and useless, and if justified by the instructions under which he acted, certainly was not justified by any military consideration. The slaughter which befell the little garrison of "embattled farmers" was enough, apart from all circumstances of special exasperation, to embitter the souls of that simple and quiet community for many a generation. There is a pathos difficult to resist in the mere roster of the homely names of the "people that jeoparded their lives unto the death in the high places of the field." Let it not be forgotten that all who had got together in Fort Griswold, upon the confused and half-understood alarm of the enemy's approach, including the little company that rowed over from the abandoned Fort Trumbull, and including Andrew Billings, who climbed up a rope through an embrasure after the gates were finally shut, were but 155; that of these eighty-eight were killed and forty-three wounded; that of these 131, all but twenty-six were dwellers in that farming town of Groton in which the fight took place, while all the rest were near neighbors to it; that nine Averys were killed and six wounded, six Perkinses killed and three wounded, all from Groton; and some adequate notion may be got of the bitterness of grief which came upon the households whose firesides these fathers and brothers had fallen in defending. No wonder that the fresh grave-stones with which the burying-grounds were shortly filled, the inscriptions upon which are copied complete in this work, should bear a dismal uniformity of denunciatory rage. "Inhumanly massacred"; "British cruelty"; "British barbarity"; and, more often than any other phrase, "Traitor Arnold's murdering corps"—these and like expressions often, though not always, indicate the indignant anguish which refused to be comforted, because they were not.

Undoubtedly, if the massacre of the garrison of Fort Griswold, either upon the assault or in cold blood, had been commanded or even intimated, the execution would have been quite to the taste of the Fortieth and Fifty-fourth Regiments. But with the utmost detestation of the war waged against the colonies, and the utmost sympathy and admiration for the noble little band which held the place so manfully, we are compelled, upon a careful review of this record, to the conclusion that if the expedition to New London was a justifiable enterprise, the slaughter at Groton Heights was an inevitable, and therefore justifiable, incident of the expedition.

Fort Griswold was a little bastioned work, admirably situated upon a hill commanding New London harbor from the east. It was armed with no less than thirty-five pieces of artillery; its garrison of something over 150 men, although fewer than could have been desired, was yet capable of an efficient resistance; and its supply of ammunition was so ample that there were captured after the fight 800 stands of grape, several thousand round shot, and 10,000 musket cartridges. This garrison, during the morning hours, was vigorously preparing itself for a threatened attack; was indeed manfully challenging attack, by opening fire from its eighteen-pounders upon the enemy's columns across the river, and was receiving reinforcements until the last moment that the gates could be left open.

It is perhaps conceivable that a main object of the expedition might yet, without the capture of the strongest point about New London, have been attained. But the reduction of a stronghold is no less legitimate an object of warfare than the destruction of stores or shipping; and to reproach the British for their determination to take Fort Griswold would be absurd, if it be conceded that they had a right to attack New London. Against it, then, they set in motion a force which, while the event showed it to be adequate, the event also showed to be no more than adequate. Six hundred regulars took part in the assault; two hundred "loyalists" and Hessians held aloof in safe supporting distance. The fort was summoned to surrender, and warned that if it should be taken by storm, the laws of war would be enforced. And in the code which then was everywhere accepted, and which cannot be said to have been softened out of existence by another hundred years of civilization, no principle was better established than that a garrison rejecting capitulation, and carried by storm, could expect no quarter.

It seems to us to be unjust to the heroic memory of Ledyard and his men, who deliberately chose to refuse capitulation and to hold their ground "unto the death," to maintain that the threat of extermination was to them an unmeaning form of words. It cannot be that their expectation was to be permitted, behind the safe defence of their ramparts, to mow down the advancing columns of the enemy with grape and round shot and musketry—to receive the shattered fragments of their battalions upon the points of their pikes at the embrasures; and if at last enough survived to swarm over into the *terre-plein*, blind with rage and exhaustion, furious at the destruction which up to that moment they had been impotent to avenge, that then the combat was instantly to cease, and the unharmed garrison was to march out as quietly as they might have done before their unsuccessful defence. To maintain that they did not know the risk they were taking is to rob them of their strongest claim to honor and gratitude.

"We shall not give up the fort, be the consequences what they may." This was the answer sent back by Ledyard, supported by the unanimous vote of his officers, to the summons and the warning. Against the fort, therefore, the solid battalions were set in motion. Grape shot and musketry mowed them down with the terrible destruction that wastes an assaulting party, impotent for any purpose but that of merely moving forward: twenty men swept down by one discharge of an eighteen-pounder, double-shotted with grape; in the ditch, at the embrasures, at the *chevaux-de-frise*, at the sally-port—everywhere the most determined and bloody resistance, with every advantage of position, of cover, and of well-posted artillery; in the few minutes of assault, 170 killed and wounded, or fifteen more than the entire garrison, and among them both the first and the second in command. It was in this plight that the 400 survivors broke their way through the palisades and dashed through the gate and sprang into the embrasures, and confronted still almost the whole of the 155 who were pounding the lives out of them. What could be expected, we do not say of "murdering Britons," but of Christian New Englanders in like case, other than what followed? We know that the killing of the assailants did not cease before they entered: Major Montgomery was thrust through with a pike in an embrasure; a soldier was shot dead entering the gate; men in the ditch were crushed with cannon balls from the hands of the men above, who had not time to load their muskets; and that the heroic defence was still protracted, even after the enemy was in possession of the *terre-plein*, is conclusively established by the fact that Colonel Ledyard shouted to his men a command to surrender, after the entrance was effected, and that some of them after that kept up the fight in ignorance of the command. We know of no law of war, and no rule of morals, that requires the victorious force to cease hostilities before resistance is abandoned. We will even go further: no rule of morals seems to us to excuse a victorious force, having any right to fight at all, for relaxing its offensive operations until it is not only probable, but certain beyond a possibility of doubt, that resistance is either definitively abandoned or hopelessly crushed.

Beyond this duty of the assailant, notwithstanding the horror of the bloody day to Groton and New London, even these partial narratives do not show that the furious assailants were hurried by their rage. It is true that not more than thirty of the 131 casualties are thought to have occurred before the crest of the parapet was reached. But it is no less true, and it is irreconcilable with the accusation of an intended massacre, that twenty-six of the little garrison were absolutely unhurt; and that while an extraordinary proportion of the injured were killed, which shows that in the medley wounds were very deadly and very numerous—which shows, too, no doubt, that in the blind fury of the storm men really disabled by wounds may have received bayonet thrusts that ended them—yet there were forty-three wounded men who were not despatched. Rufus Avery, whose narrative is the most detailed and authentic of all, says it "was done in about one minute." "They did not bayonet many after they ceased firing their guns." "They very soon left off killing, and then went stripping and robbing the dead and wounded, and also those that were not wounded." And another account speaks of a British officer who ran about crying to them, "Stop! my soul can't bear it!"

Thus momentary—an inseparable part of the burst that carried the assailants over the parapet—was the slaughter of that heroic little band. Human nature being what it is, we doubt whether two regiments of Quakers, if they had been brought to the attack through that storm of bullets, could have been checked from the massacre sooner than this British infantry was. The story of the wagon full of wounded sent headlong down the hill in wanton cruelty has been long ago shown to have grown out of an accident occurring in a humane attempt at removing the disabled. The slaying of the chivalrous Ledyard with his own sword at the moment of surrender is now proved by an ingenious argument, from the nature of his wound, to be as improbable as it has always seemed atrocious. It detracts nothing from the undying fame of these simple men who stood and fell, most literally, *pro aris et focis*, that they dared the fate which befell them.

DAVIDS'S INDIAN BUDDHISM.

Lectures on the Origin and Growth of Religion, as illustrated by some points in the history of Indian Buddhism. By T. W. Rhys Davids. London: Williams & Norgate; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1881.

THESE lectures are written in a clear and pleasing style, and with Mr. Davids's usual power of illustration. The only fault we find with the book is that it is an attempt to do too much—to explain the principles of Indian Buddhism, and then by a sort of "differentiation" to illustrate the origin of religion or the growth of religion in other cases. It is evident that such a task

cannot be accomplished in six lectures of an hour each.

To take one or two striking points made by Mr. Davids. We observe he dwells on the absence of any soul-theory in Buddhism—in other words, that Buddha denied the existence of soul or "a personal self" (*icheit*). This is most true, but it would seem that the idea he attached to soul was "the soul (*attā*) that is the eye," "the soul that is the ear," down to "the soul that is the mind (*viññānain*)"—that is, either or all of the Khandhas or constituents of personal being in the present world. He denied that this soul survived the body. The question hinges on this, therefore: Do *we* accept the meaning of the word soul in this sense? In other words, should we be far wrong in stating that the Christian idea of soul is "purified character" in one aspect, or "degraded character" in the other? Of course the main point is "personal consciousness"; but this is not all. We can conceive of soul without any knowledge of previous existence; soul, that is, in the sense of character—the result of what we now are; and this is just what we find the Buddhists believe. The fact is, Buddha protested not so much against the survival of a principle of being—in fact, he acknowledged such a survival—but against the continuation of the identity of being. This is plain from the consideration that he taught his followers that in days gone by he was "so and so," and they were also "so and so." Now in these formulas—"I" was such and such a person, and "you" were such and such—there is the existence of "something" postulated, which in different connections "composed" another being without any conscious identity. That "something" is the Buddhist "soul."

Mr. Davids, on page 112, objects to the idea of "prayer offered to Buddha," and speaks of it as an impossibility. Here, again, the Christian idea of "prayer to a personal and living God" has interfered with the conception of other prayer than this—prayer in the sense of aspiration in worship. When the Buddhist adores the three precious symbols of his faith, he surely prays to them. It is true his prayer is not addressed to them as living and conscious beings; but, in the sense of *strong desire* expressed in their presence and in the act of worship, this amounts to prayer. In fact, we may safely ask, Can there be worship *without* prayer? The gorgeous ritual of the Buddhist temples proves plainly enough the weight attached to external service; and certainly if petitions offered up on bended knee and with prostrate form are any proof of prayer being possible among Buddhists, such proof is abundant.

The doctrine of Karma, or the power of "works," is a striking feature in the Buddhist religion. Mr. Davids alludes to this doctrine, and compares it with the doctrine of "Fate" in other religious systems. In one sense, doubtless, the parallel is a just one; as the poet says:

> ". . . Our deeds follow us from afar,
> And what we have been makes us what we are."

This is also confessed by the Buddhist: the usual formula adopted in the Sûtras is, "he departed [*i.e.*, died] according to his deeds"—he had made for himself a new home, built of the rafters and timbers hewn and shaped in his present life. This is the literal meaning of Karma. And in one sense this may be said of Fate, that we are made, by the inexorable decree of a power beyond ourselves, what we are. But in the Buddhist sense this power is in ourselves; it is subjective. No tyrant power constrains us beyond our own will, and so we stand self-condemned if by our own hands we have forged the chain that binds us.

Doubtless very much of the power Buddhism has exerted in the world may be traced to this doctrine of Karma. It is a covert acknowledgment of free will, and there is no appeal like this to hold the mind—appeal, we mean, to our freedom of choice. And this explains, too, the secret of Buddha's power as a preacher. If he had addressed his words and arguments to people in the power of an "outside fate," his words would have lost their virtue; but because he appealed to his hearers as able to choose the right and scorn the wrong—able to be true to themselves—he gained not only a ready hearing, but also a willing assent.

There is a striking parallel, too, between the order of Buddhist priests or mendicants, constituted by their leader as the living members of his church, and the constituted order of other religious bodies. There is no "priest" in Buddhism. In fact, though there be what represents an "altar" in the place of worship, as in the earliest sculptures, there never was a priestly service among the followers of Buddha. There is no mediation—to himself a man stands or falls; there is no sacrifice, except that of self, and *that* not to propitiate another, but to vindicate the right. There can therefore be no priestly office. But the "order," nevertheless, exists—an order of religious followers, bound by vows to a regular life, and under the strongest obligations to advance the cause of their church. It is a singular anomaly, yet it lies before our very eyes—a church without a supreme object of worship, and a body of men and women bound together by fast religious ties, but without any obligation, beyond their own sense of right, to obey the rules under which they have placed themselves.

Mr. Davids proceeds, toward the end of his book, to speak of the development of Buddhism. It was a most remarkable advance of the religious idea in the body of this fraternity when they invented a personal God, and attributed to Buddha the attribute of a living Saviour. But so it was. In the "Greater Vehicle," as it is called, we read of "the Eternal," and of a "Mediator," and of a paradise or heaven after death—none of which thoughts could have belonged to primitive Buddhism. It is most instructive to follow the inexorable working of the law which compels men to find out a god of some sort. If they will not have an "idol," they are driven to an "ideal." The ideal may be an abstraction, a negation, a cold, passionless nothing, but they call it and make it God. So the Buddhists invented their Adi-Buddha and their Avilokites'wara, the "first Buddha" and the manifester of his being in human form. Doubtless in this development we must look for influences exerted from without; the contact is to be found in the actual history of the world at the time of this expansion of belief—the Parthians had become Buddhists, and these, again, were placed in connection with Christians in Syria. This contact is historically true, and the effect of it is visible in the changed character of Northern Buddhism. No longer a system of pure negation, founded on a basis of morals, it sprang into spiritual life, confessing a God, actuated by hopes and fears of the future, and living in the presence of a manifested Being who heard and answered prayer.

Mr. Davids's great mistake, as it seems to us, is his endeavor to "isolate" Buddhism as a religious system, attributing it, in its rise and growth, to influences exerted only in the "Valley of the Ganges." We could as well believe that the civilization and literature of India were self-matured and independent, as that this religion was uninfluenced by outside forces. In fact, the impossibility of such an isolation is manifest at first sight if we follow the history of the Eastern world, and watch when and how the people of India have been visibly affected by foreign intercourse, and how both their language and arts have been welded on other and foreign stocks, and so have become what they are. It is impossible to suppose that their religion alone remained unaffected by such intercourse.

We commend this book of lectures to the careful study of all persons interested in the history of Buddhism, or in the comparative method of examining into "religious beliefs."

Cyclopædia of Practical Quotations, English and Latin, etc. By J. K. Hoyt and Anna L. Ward. New York: I. K. Funk & Co.

THE strange adjective in the title of this work is calculated to arrest the attention of others besides plagiarists and stock speculators. What is a "practical" quotation? One, say the compilers in their preface, which answers a literary need; which assists in composition. This definition is not very helpful, because any book of quotations—Mr. Bartlett's or Mr. Allibone's—or of proverbs or law phrases, would, by the same reasoning, be pronounced practical. A slight investigation shows that the utility of this cyclopædia is supposed to lie in its classification, and that it recommends itself to story writers seeking epigraphs for their chapters; to all who are called upon to write in young ladies' albums or birthday books (see *Flowers*, and the alphabetical assortment thereunder; *Months*, etc.); to the makers of sentimental bills of fare (see *Eating* and *Feasting*); and to a host of tradesmen anxious to garnish their circulars or advertisements with something neat and appropriate (see *Occupations*, and under it Jewelry, Mercantile, Perfumery, Tobacconists, Tonsorial, etc., etc.). The classification is not always commendable, as in *Ships*, when Navigation has already appeared under *Occupations*. Nor is the connection always apparent, as in the following, from "Hudibras," entered under *Influence:*

> "Witnesses, like watches, go
> Just as they're set, too fast or slow;
> And where in conscience they're strait-lac'd,
> 'Tis ten to one that side is cast."

Erasmus occurs under "Classical Latin Authors." There is a list of all the authors cited, with nativity and epoch, and a curious assemblage it is. "Ignoto," whose biographical denotation, like that of Junius, baffled research, is one of the most remarkable contributors. "Anonymous," on the other hand, has been altogether slighted. The prose extracts are subordinate to the poetical, and indicate a great catholicity of taste on the part of the compilers, and entire readiness to adopt at second hand, as in the case of "Bland," about whom no information is given beyond his surname, "Hokewell," "Melchior," etc. Indeed, the proportion and the choice of them almost justify the inference that the compilers took to prose late in life, as other people take to poetry. The indexing is full and even redundant, but capricious—*e.g.*, why is "old friends are best," which is entered under *friends*, not found under *best*, as well as "to stay at home is best"?

Fifty Years of Science. By Sir John Lubbock, Bart., M. P. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882.

SIR JOHN LUBBOCK, in his address as President of the semi-centennial meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, held at York last August, reviews the progress of science during the last fifty years. Originality or completeness could hardly be looked for in a survey of this nature, at once so general and so various—of necessity an *omnium gatherum* from all departments. In this instance it was rendered more fragmentary by the fact that the author was assisted by his scientific friends in such subjects as he did not feel himself competent to treat. Partly in consequence of this, the address is at once too superficial for the specialist and too

one-sided for the scientific public. Of course a review of the work of the British Association was very properly the main topic of interest on this occasion; but in his desire to do justice to his countrymen, Lubbock has forgotten that science is of no nation, and cannot be represented by English-speaking investigators alone. This exclusiveness is especially noticeable in his own department of biological research, in which he leaves wholly out of consideration prominent Continental naturalists. Neither is there allusion to the palæontologists and embryologists of France, Germany, and Switzerland during the last half century—men who laid the very foundations on which the younger workers are building to-day. Such a reference would have been all the more appropriate because some of their researches were undertaken in direct connection with the British Association, and were even published under its auspices. It would not have been amiss, also, had the work of other nations in the same field received some slight recognition in connection with the account of the deep-sea explorations undertaken by the *Porcupine* and *Challenger*.

In short, this paper is noticeable for what it omits as well as for what it contains, and cannot be considered by any but those to whom it was addressed as a full and impartial review of scientific progress in the last half century.

A Hunter's Wanderings in Africa. By Frederick Courteney Selous. With 19 full-page illustrations by J. Smit, E. Whymper, and Miss A. B. Selous. London: R. Bentley & Son.

Mr. Selous was a lad of nineteen when he began his career as a professional elephant hunter. This fact proved of no disadvantage to him, for when he applied to the King of the Matabele for permission to hunt in his country, "he asked me whether I had ever seen an elephant, and upon my saying No, answered: 'Oh! they will soon drive you out of the country, but you may go and see what you can do!' On my then saying that I had heard that he only allowed people to hunt in certain parts of the country, and asking where I might go, he replied: 'Oh! you may go wherever you like: you are only a boy.'" He soon proved himself to be a very daring and successful sportsman, with very remarkable powers of endurance. For the greater part of the time from 1871 to the close of 1880, he roamed about the country lying to the south and west of the Zambesi in search of elephants. It was a hard life and full of danger, but one of which it is easy to see the fascination. Our author had many thrilling adventures, but he lacks the literary power to use his materials to the best advantage. He is far too minute in his account of each day's sport, and his book would have been more readable had it been half the size. We confess also to an overpowering feeling of sadness as one elephant after another is killed, from the certainty with which their extermination is being effected. Mr. Selous himself appears to have shot over a hundred, while there were many others in the field with him, some of whom were still more successful. At first we find the hunters making a selection from the herds, taking only the bulls or the great tuskers. Later, after describing the killing of some not full grown, the author adds deprecatingly: "Elephants are, however, now so scarce that one cannot afford to leave even smallish ones alone." There seem to be good grounds for crediting the assertion of a recent writer in the *Spectator*, that Jumbo may live to be the only surviving specimen of his race. At least, from the accounts of the latest travellers, the time cannot be far distant when the elephant will be extinct in Africa.

Two of the chapters, upon the South African rhinoceroses and antelopes, were read as papers before the Zoölogical Society. The second is admirably illustrated by plates giving the heads of every species to be found within a certain well-defined limit. The author seems to have been a good observer, and scattered through his work are many notes on the natural history of the country over which he hunted that give it a certain value which, as a book of travels, could not be claimed for it.

A History of the Bank of North America, the first bank chartered in the United States. Prepared, at the request of the President and Directors, by Lawrence Lewis, jr. Philadelphia. 1882. 8vo, pp. 153 [not published].

The recent occurrence, on December 31, 1881, of the centennial anniversary of the incorporation of the Bank of North America, was fittingly celebrated by this historical sketch of the origin and career of that venerable, but still active and successful, institution. It was organized at a very critical period of the Revolution, almost wholly from a patriotic desire to sustain the feeble credit of Congress. By its aid troops were levied, arms and ammunition obtained, supplies furnished to the patriot army, and the expenses of the various departments of the struggling government defrayed. It owed its existence mainly to the inspiration of Robert Morris, the acknowledged financial leader of the Revolution, and it received the hearty and substantial support of the principal merchants of Philadelphia, and of a number of Dutch capitalists, who had faith in the success of the new republic. Mr. Lewis naturally gives at length the story of the early struggles of the bank for recognition, and in less detail the account of its later and less eventful history. It has outlived the national banks which Hamilton so urgently recommended, and it is itself now modestly registered among the national banks of the country. It has withstood the shocks of hostile legislation and of financial disturbances, and is to-day one of the strongest as it is one of the most conservative banks of even that conservative city, Philadelphia. The portraits of Robert Morris and of its successive presidents, from Thomas Willing down to the present incumbent, seven in all, are valuable in themselves, and curious as illustrations of the change of type and physiognomy in the course of a hundred years. A popular edition ought to be published.

Kultur- und Litteraturgeschichte der französischen Schweiz und Savoyens. Von Dr. Herman Semmig. Zürich. 1882.

In reviewing a popular history of Switzerland, not long ago, we had occasion to lament the want of an English history of that country which should give the results of late investigations, as well as describe recent events. But Dr. Semmig's book, for those who read French and German, is better than a purely English work would be. In the space afforded by a small octavo, printed in Latin type, the author has given a very readable account of the history and literature of the region described, each chapter and section being "illustrated" by long quotations, untranslated, by local writers. In deference to the popular preference for erroneous historical nomenclature, he does not venture to call his work a history of Romance Switzerland, which, he maintains, is its proper designation; but he protests on every occasion against the encroachments of Parisian vanity in a way that would please even Mr. Freeman. "How many," he asks, "have reflected how the French language was introduced into a land that has ever been politically independent of France? . . . France —that France of which Paris is the centre—has enjoyed the glory of being the only hearth and home of the French language and literature," to dispel which error is a main object of his book. With Mr. Semmig's historical standpoint we have no fault to find, but his anger at the incorporation in the French literary nationality of Rousseau, De Maistre, François de Sales, Constant, and Mme. de Staël is rather overdone. We suppose an author may be allowed to change his allegiance, even when the country of his choice is France, and that over such naturalized citizens the historian of literature has as good a claim as the tax-gatherer.

Though it receives little attention from foreigners, the history of the region enclosing the lakes of Geneva and Neuchâtel equals in interest, both in mediæval and modern times, that of any other part of Europe; and the difficulty in the way of becoming acquainted with it has, in a large degree, been removed by Mr. Semmig's admirably-prepared volume.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adam, Madame E. A Fascinating Woman. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.
Alcott, A. B. Sonnets and Canzonets. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Armstrong, G. F. A Garland from Greece. London: Longmans, Green & Co.
Arnold, M. Irish Essays, and Others. Macmillan & Co. $1 75.
Bacon, H. A Parisian Year. Illustrated by the Author. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 50.
Betham-Edwards, M. Exchange No Robbery. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Classic Tales: Comprising Rasselas, the Vicar of Wakefield, Gulliver's Travels, and the Sentimental Journey. London: George Bell & Sons.
Craik, Mrs. D. M. Plain Speaking. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Crowell, E. P. Selections from Latin Poets. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.
Cunningham, W. Growth of English Industry and Commerce. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press. $3.
Dos Passos, J. R. Treatise on the Law of Stockbrokers and Stock Exchanges. Harper & Bros.
Fairley, W. The Ventilation of Coal-Mines. D. Van Nostrand.
Froude, J. A. Thomas Carlyle. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Fulton, J. A. Peach Culture. Revised and enlarged edition. Orange Judd Co. $1 50.
Hartford *Evening Post* Annual for 1882: Biographical Sketches of Representatives of Connecticut in Congress, Members of the State Legislature, etc. Hartford: *Evening Post* Association.
History of the Second Massachusetts Regiment of Infantry: Gettysburg, by Col. Chas. F. Morse; Chancellorsville, by Capt. Geo. A. Thayer; A Prisoner's Diary, by Capt. S. M. Quincy. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. 25 cents each.
Hodgson, W. B. Errors in the Use of English. 3d ed. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Holland, J. G. Arthur Bonnicastle.—The Bay Path. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Irving's Life of Washington. Vol. v. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2 50.

Fine Arts.

THE TWO OIL-COLOR EXHIBITIONS.

The Annual Exhibitions of the National Academy of Design and of the Society of American Artists are again open to the public. The catalogue of the Academy contains 839 numbers, and that of the Society of American Artists 128. Both are overcrowded, and almost equally so, but there are fewer works of entirely valueless character in the latter collection than in the first. The effect of this overcrowding is, of course, as bewildering as usual, and, although it seems useless to complain of it, yet since it detracts so seriously from the effectiveness of an exhibition, and from the comfort of a visitor, we are impelled to record another protest against it. The task of the committees whose function it is to decide what works shall be received and what rejected is certainly a delicate one, but is also a very important one both to exhibitors and to the public. And, although it is a delicate task, and one which can be rightly discharged by the most competent judges only, it is not one which presents any great difficulties. It does, however, require considerable courage; for the canvases which do not merit public notice, and which ought not, therefore, to find place on the walls of these exhibitions, are by no means exclusively those of young and unknown persons, but are frequently those of older and well-known artists.

There is no more important or grave duty devolving upon the managers of these institutions than that of appointing men of assured capacity to examine and pass upon works offered for admission, who will discharge their function with integrity and firmness—rejecting, when occasion calls for it, the works of their own members as promptly as they reject those of any other persons.

Overcrowding is so seriously objectionable, even where all the pictures are good, that it ought to be avoided at almost any cost. For only a certain very limited number of pictures can be placed where they can be favorably seen in any case, and, therefore, by overcrowding, nothing is really gained. It is no advantage to an artist to have his pictures placed where they cannot be favorably seen, and it may even be an injury to him, while it detracts greatly from the proper effectiveness of those which are well placed. One line of large pictures, and two of small ones, is as much as can ever be seen to advantage; and these ought not to be placed too closely together, but at least six inches of space ought, if possible, to be left unoccupied between them. It is perfectly possible to carry out such a plan as this, as the managers of the Grosvenor Gallery in London have abundantly shown. If more really excellent works are produced in a year than our present galleries would thus accommodate—which we very much doubt—then the exhibitions might be held more frequently, or more galleries might be prepared. And even though all the good pictures of a year might not be shown by such a plan, it would still be better so; for perhaps the greatest evil of overcrowding is that by it the eye and mind are so fatigued and surfeited that a feeling akin to disgust is apt to be conceived, and the proper sense of the preciousness of good painting is thus lost. This is an inevitable effect of overcrowding, even where all the works are meritorious. It is still more the case where so many of them are either feeble or meretricious in character.

The great and increasing numbers of young persons who now take to painting show a deplorable tendency to exhibit their work prematurely. The Academy exhibitions are largely made up of such works. The case would not be so bad if this immature work were simply crude and unskilful, as it is when it so largely affects a supposed artistic manner. The efforts of beginners whose purpose is earnest, and who work from nature with modest thoroughness, are often interesting and instructive. Ten or fifteen years ago such efforts were not unfrequently shown in the Academy exhibitions, and they gave promise of something like a living school when, to the faithfulness of affectionate study of nature, an adequate knowledge of the requirements of exemplary art should be added. But very few of those who gave this promise have gone on in those lines of study and practice which might have led to its fulfilment. The current of interest in the not wholly exemplary aims and methods of the modern schools of the Continent of Europe have proved too strong for them; and year by year the tendency to follow these aims and methods without discrimination has shown itself stronger, until it has become the ruling tendency. It is plainly apparent, on the first general survey of all our exhibitions at present, that the influence of the present French and German schools, which has been thus growing of late, is now the leading influence in this country. It not only shows itself in the works of the younger men who have sought their early training in those schoools, but it is apparent also in the works of nearly, if not quite, all of our older artists.

This influence, in itself, is partly good and partly not good. It is good in so far as it leads to a more large and just method of regarding nature in total effect, of securing a consistency and harmony of tone by the proper relations of color masses one to another, and of subordinating details to masses. It is not good in so far as it tends to incompleteness of aim and method—by which we mean the sacrifice or omission of some essential qualities of painting while exaggerated prominence is given to other qualities—and thus to substitute mere sketching for quietly-finished painting, or to arrest the cultivation of good taste in choice and treatment of subject. In short, the influence of this foreign art is good in so far as we discriminate between its qualities and its faults—assimilating the one and rejecting the other. French art—for it is French art which really dominates in all the continental schools—deals as a rule with but a few of the more obvious external qualities of nature. These it quickly, and often masterfully, seizes, but other and more essential qualities it largely omits. It is therefore not a wholly exemplary school for a student of painting. In entirely good painting there is no omission of anything that contributes to completeness of visual truth. In such painting a perfect balance is maintained between the elements of form, color, and chiaroscuro, and all that pertains to these primary constituents of visual impressions. French painting, notwithstanding its good qualities, is unbalanced and partial. Its chief aim lies in the direction of chiaroscuro and resulting tone, but too exclusive pursuit of chiaroscuro leads to exaggeration, unquietness, and untruth of effect, which are all characteristic faults of French art. Exaggerated chiaroscuro, also, is destructive of pure and full color—giving such depth to shadows as to render true color impossible in them. The exhibitions which we are considering offer numerous instances of this loss of color in shadow, consequent upon exaggerated depth of shade. It is true that as regards chiaroscuro our American art has, hitherto, been especially feeble, and the lesson of the French school is, therefore, a valuable one for us, in so far as it enforces its importance. But it is hard to learn anything rightly under faulty instruction.

There is not the slightest need for the waste of time and misdirection of taste which result from following the partial and tentative methods of the modern schools, or for the independent and blind groping after methods of which the work now done by us shows so many unhappy signs. Essentially sound and perfect methods were long ago attained in Venice, and may always be securely acquired there. But if we will not learn in Venice, let us, by all means, learn what we may in France. A broad and manly style is a good thing. If the French can help us to attain it, let us accept the help. But in so far as French painting is loose and sloppy we had better not follow it. These bad qualities form no proper part of a broad and manly style. Rapid and dashy sketching as a mode of study—even that which may be almost unintelligible in form—has a very proper and important *raison d'être* when rightly and unaffectedly directed toward particular ends, as in notes and studies for color and chiaroscuro. But such work is right as a mode of study only. It is not right as a final mode of painting. Sketches and studies of this kind belong properly in the studio rather than in the place of public exhibition. As a rule, all painting, as such, ought to be finished. But of course the standard of finish varies according to the size of the canvas and the consequent distance from which it should be viewed, and it may not be always possible to fix this standard with absolute precision. In general, however, a right degree of finish is that which renders the visual impression of a subject complete when the picture is viewed from its proper distance. This distance, as is well known, is that which brings the whole field of it comfortably within view. It is usually considered about equal to the greatest dimension of the picture. At this distance everything in a picture should appear finished. The finer execution of a small picture would not have effect upon the eye at the distance from which a large picture would have to be viewed, and such execution would therefore be useless and wrong on a large canvas. The coarser execution of a large picture would be unintelligible at the distance proper for a small picture, and would therefore be useless and wrong on a small canvas. This principle, like most others, is subject to more or less modification, according to various circumstances of artistic purpose; but it is as much a principle, and as important a one, as any other. Now, there is a strong tendency among our rising artists of the new school to disregard and to violate this principle. These artists execute pictures whose greatest dimensions may not exceed two feet, with a degree of coarseness that would be right only for canvases of twenty-five or thirty feet. This is the case with such men as Mr. Wm. M. Chase, Mr. J. Alden Weir, Mr. Quartley, Mr. Bunce, and others. And, more than this, the execution of these men is largely inaccurate and meaningless as well as coarse. A very coarse touch may yet be a very subtle and true one. The degree of coarseness in a good touch only indicates the distance from which it should be viewed. It is otherwise not different from a finer one. The great touches in the foreground of Tintoret's "Crucifixion" in Venice differ in character from the finer touches in a small picture by any true Venetian master only in being calculated for effect upon the eye when situated far enough off to take in the whole design. They are wonderfully accurate touches—giving, with a few broad sweeps of the brush, perfectly clear and intelligible characterization to each object represented. But the great touches in many of the works of these artists of ours do not become intelligible at any distance as anything more than shapeless spots of light or dark color.

Another conspicuous fault which mars the good qualities in this art of ours is the very bad taste which it frequently displays in choice and in treatment of subject. The beauty and grace of nature, whether in landscape or figure subject, seem not to appeal to our artists; but there is nothing that goes to the making of an artist which is more important than good taste. Indeed, it may be safe to say that his first qualification is a ready sense of what makes an object or a natural scene a fit subject for art. A man may have every other qualification: he may possess all the powers which the best technical training can secure; he may have a quick feeling for all mere facts of form and color, and may be able to give the most facile and truthful expression to it—yet if he have not cultivated taste, he cannot be an artist in the truest sense of the word. This want of taste in our art is due largely perhaps to the reaction of the last quarter of a century from the academic conventionalisms, under which taste had become wholly artificial; and also, perhaps, to the influence of our cruelly commonplace surroundings in America. The general movement toward naturalism of the past twenty-five years has, both in Europe and America, induced the mistaken idea that nature alone affords all the inspiration and guidance that art requires. It was well, indeed, that the academic idea of beauty should give place to the idea of nature; for the academic idea was hollow and meaningless, while by the idea of nature much strong and true life has been infused

into all departments of art. But art requires a great deal more than the idea of nature. It requires, among other things, that disciplined sense of beauty which we properly mean by good taste.

Another essential quality which our art does not yet exemplify, in any high degree, is that of design. The faculty of so adjusting the parts of a subject as to secure a beautiful and living relationship between them, and thus to make an organic unity of the whole, is, perhaps more than anything else, the peculiar faculty of an artist. Some of the more obvious elements of design exist, indeed, in most of the works under consideration. But few if any of them exhibit those more subtle relations of magnitudes in the general proportions of masses, those sequences of ordered parts, and those sympathies of line with line which make the works of Turner, of Titian, or of any other true designer so beautiful.

We propose, in another article, to comment in detail upon some of the canvases in these exhibitions.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 27, 1882.

The Week.

MR. CHARLES DARWIN, who has just passed away full of years and honor, is probably the man who has done most to make the nineteenth century famous, full as it has been of wonders, because he has done more than any other man since Copernicus to change the ideas of the civilized world touching man's relations to the physical universe. Copernicus and Kepler may be said to have closed the mediæval epoch, and fatally shaken the authority of the Church in the domain of natural philosophy, but then they never reached the popular mind, and produced but little rearrangement of ideas outside the scientific world. Moreover, the doctrine of evolution as an explanation of the earth and the heavenly bodies as we now see them, had made its appearance long before Darwin's day, without producing much impression on morals, or theology, or politics. It was Darwin's application of it to the explanation of the animal world, as we now see it, which made it a really great force in human affairs —a force which, though it may be said to have been felt for but little more than twenty-five years, has already profoundly affected the modern way of looking at nearly all social problems. It is safe to say that there is hardly any sphere of human activity in which the influence of his ideas is not felt in a greater or less degree, and it bids fair to grow with an accelerated ratio. The hostility with which they were at first received by the Church has already greatly abated, and probably the best educated and most influential portion of the clergy of all denominations now allow them to govern their expositions of man's relation to the unseen as well as the seen universe, and are at least content with his explanation of the process through which the race became self-conscious and moral.

It is impossible to enumerate here all the ways in which his influence has stimulated or controlled sociological investigation and legislation. Its more obvious effects are to be seen in the great impetus given within the last quarter of a century to inquiry into the mental and physical condition of the savages, and in the greatly increased popular interest in comparative anatomy and comparative politics. Such books as the late Mr. Bagehot's account of "nation making," in which the Darwinian process of "natural selection" is applied to the origin and growth of political societies, are undoubtedly due to Mr. Darwin's suggestion. To the same agency we must ascribe the great stimulus given of late in legislation to the improvement of surroundings as a means of improving human character. No more serious blow was ever given to the ancient plan of reforming mankind by simple rewards and punishments, than Darwin gave when he first pointed out the enormous influence, moral as well as physical, of the "environment" on the animal. We now every day see more and more attention given to bettering the conditions of men's lives as the real means of bettering their lives, and less and less confidence reposed in simple commands addressed to conduct. In fact, there are some signs that this influence is proving too strong, and carrying both law-givers and philanthropists into the dangerous extreme of underrating the power of the human will working against environment. It must be admitted, too, that the application of the theory of natural selection, or, as Herbert Spencer calls it, the "survival of the fittest," to social and political arrangements, useful as it is in giving effort a rational and fruitful direction, has some tendency to repress sympathy for weakness and incapacity. Darwinism, in other words, has done something for Bismarckism. It gives might a new title to the possession of the earth, and makes "the wall" seem more than ever the proper destination of the incapable, the inconsequent, the feeble, and the sickly. That the race will be the better eventually for this immense revelation (for such it certainly is) of the way in which, as far as man on earth is concerned,

"— through the ages one unceasing purpose runs,"

there can be no doubt. But the period of transition from the older view, which provided so large and even honored a place in nature for helplessness, and ignorance, and weakness, is likely to have many dark places in it, in which the most orthodox evolutionists will be puzzled and tried.

It is a significant circumstance that the subcommittee of the Committee on Banking and Currency in the House have agreed upon a report—a very able one, by the way—concurring in the recommendations of the Secretary of the Treasury and the Director of the Mint regarding silver coinage and silver certificates —that is, recommending the discontinuance of both. There is no evidence, however, that this committee was "packed" against silver. The Speaker was himself a silver man, representing a State which gave nearly all its votes for the Silver Bill. So, also, was the Director of the Mint, who held a seat in Congress at the time. So far as "packing" might go it would be more reasonable to look for packing on the other side. The obvious explanation of the report is that Congress and the country have been coming around to a rational view of the matter, aided, perhaps, by the refusal of European countries to join us in international remonetization. The failure of the Paris Conference to reassemble at the appointed time, after two previous failures to do anything or even to attempt anything, has had a marked effect upon the public mind in America. The excuse put forth by the bimetallists, that the Conference has been postponed to "give time for public sentiment in England to ripen," is not calculated to heighten confidence in this country in the efficacy of our Silver Bill, seeing that every month's coinage takes out of the market the very material calculated to hasten the ripening process in England, and thus postpones the desired harvest.

A bill having passed the Senate to repeal all "permanent appropriations" except (1) those in which the Government acts merely as a collecting agent to receive or disburse moneys not belonging to itself (Marine Hospital dues, Indian trust funds, etc.), and (2) those which by common consent are necessary and indispensable, such as the salaries of judges and interest on the public debt, it has been discovered that one of the permanent appropriations so repealed is that which provides for the purchase of $24,000,000 worth of silver bullion each year for coinage into silver dollars, so that hereafter, if the bill becomes a law, it will be necessary for Congress to make an appropriation every year for that purpose. This the silver-men regard as a great outrage and swindle. It is not enough for their purpose that they have a law providing for the coinage of $2,000,000 of silver per month, which law requires the Appropriation Committee of Congress to report the measure necessary to carry it into effect every session. They demand to be placed in a better position in this regard than the Army, the Navy, the pensioners, or Congress itself, all of whose expenses have to be paid by annual appropriations. The outcry they are making indicates that they have little confidence in the strength of their position.

The question who shall take charge of the lower Mississippi is now before the Senate in the Mississippi Improvement Bill, which proposed to appropriate $15,000,000 to the repair and building of the levees, but has been amended into a single appropriation of $6,000,000 for the improvement of navigation. The most noteworthy thing in the debate thus far is the general abandonment by the Democrats, in this matter, of their old sensitiveness about State rights. Senator Morgan, of Alabama, makes a vigorous stand against the appropriation, but then the cynical ascribe this to the fact that Alabama has no levees and does not lie near the Mississippi; and the same might be said of Senator Bayard. The more obvious points in favor of the appropriation are that the work of keeping the Mississippi within its channel is far too great for the individual property-holders along the banks, even if they were able to combine their efforts and work on a common plan; that the States, for somewhat similar reasons, cannot meet the difficulty either; that the General Government alone has the legal power and the money to do all that needs to be done; that it is hardly possible that the constitutional duty of keeping rivers navigable, derived from the power to regulate inter-State commerce, does not include the duty of keeping the waters of a great river within its banks, so that it shall not overflow vast tracts of country, and, besides destroying enormous amounts of property, make its channel unapproachable for hundreds of miles by any species of vehicle. The Mississippi, in the condition in which it has been for the last two or three months, does not subserve the purposes of inter-State commerce. On the contrary, it cuts off the inhabitants of three or four States from the use of it for commercial purposes

altogether, besides producing, in one of the richest regions in the Union, the effects of the ravages of an invading army. Whether, if the Government takes charge of the banks of the lower Mississippi, it will not have to take charge of the banks of all the navigable rivers in the country, is a question which it is of course proper to ask, but the answer to it must be based not on possibilities but on probabilities.

During the week the New York banks gained $4,093,400 in their surplus reserve, which now is a little in excess of $9,000,000. No gold was exported during the week, the excess of merchandise imports above exports having been paid for with securities. At the close of the week foreign exchange was nearer to the gold-exporting point than at the opening, but the prevailing opinion was that securities would still be shipped instead of gold. At the Stock Exchange, United States 4 per cent. bonds advanced to 121⅞, and the 4½s to 116½, these being the highest prices ever paid for them; on the last day of the week a fractional part of this rise was lost. The general depression in the stock market continued until Saturday, when the "bears" began "covering their short sales," with the result of advancing prices at the close of the week above those at the opening of the week. For some time only speculative considerations, and these chiefly personal, have had any influence in the stock market, so thorough has been the demoralization there. The condition of the general trade of the country is rather quiet, but the Clearing-house returns indicate that the volume of business is still very large. The outlook for the grain crops was never better at this season of the year, and the high price of wheat for months warrants the expectation of an immense acreage this year. The stoppage of some mills, and the dulness in several manufacturing branches, have had some influence of an unfavorable character on the coal trade. In all the foreign money markets the rates for money are low. Silver bullion continues steady in price.

A petition has been presented to the House from Milwaukee asking for the prohibition of the Irish immigration by a bill framed on the same lines as the Chinese Bill. The objections to the Irish immigration seem to be very similar in character to those urged against that of the Chinese, with this additional one, that the Irish owe allegiance to a foreign Pope. In fact, there appears to be no race of immigrants in the country which does not think that it would be far better if all the other foreigners were kept out of it, and some even go so far as to think that America would be much improved by the exclusion of the natives. If ever the passion for exclusion gets so strong that the wishes of each race will have to be gratified, the country will be left uninhabited, because all will have to "go." There is no race here whose presence the other races admit to be wholly useful or improving, or in no sense an unavoidable calamity. The "ignorant foreigner" is somewhat serviceable to the native, as furnishing somebody to blame for all the crime and corruption, but the other foreigners get no good out of him, and think he lowers wages, and does not live nicely enough. But in practice all seem to get on amazingly well together, make plenty of money, and contrive to be happy and comfortable.

As was expected, the contest about the seat for Utah in the House of Representatives has been decided against Mr. Cannon, the Mormon apostle. As our readers will remember, at the last Congressional election Mr. Cannon received a large majority of the votes cast in the Territory of Utah, but Governor Murray gave the certificate of election to Mr. Campbell, the candidate of the Gentiles, although the number of votes cast for the latter was comparatively insignificant. Governor Murray took the ground that Mr. Cannon was not and had never been a citizen of the United States, and was therefore ineligible. Mr. Cannon then contested Mr. Campbell's right to the seat. The House of Representatives has by its vote on the 19th inst. unseated Mr. Campbell on account of his having received only a minority of the votes cast, and declared Mr. Cannon not entitled to the seat on the ground that he is a polygamist. Mr. Cannon made a long speech in his own behalf, availing himself of this opportunity to go into an elaborate defence of the system of polygamy, but without adding anything to the stock of argument usually drawn upon by Mormon missionaries. The effect of the rule thus established by the House of Representatives, that no polygamist shall be admitted as a delegate from a Territory, will not be the election of anti-Mormons in Utah, but the election of Mormons who are not polygamists, for there are a good many of that kind. Mr. Hooper, Mr. Cannon's predecessor as a delegate from Utah, belonged to this class. While Cannon's defence of polygamy on the floor of the House of Representatives can only serve to intensify the popular feeling against that "peculiar institution" and the Mormons generally, his exclusion from the House will, on the other hand, probably be used by the Mormon leaders to inflame the fanaticism of their people. It is not likely to contribute much to the practical solution of the troublesome problem. The working of the Edmunds law, of course, has not yet become apparent, and there is, therefore, no experience yet to enable us to judge how much can be accomplished on that line.

Mr. Cannon would, it appears, have been accused of murder also had his polygamous opinions not laid him low. A Jew, who at one time was a Mormon under the name of Abraham Levy, but is now a plain citizen, without any church, under the name of Adolph Razin, makes oath that in the year 1855 Cannon, after carefully explaining to him the Mormon doctrine of "blood atonement," which makes death the penalty of heresy or heterodoxy, proposed that he (Levy or Razin) should slay one Babbitt, then Secretary of Utah Territory, in order to "redeem and save his (Babbitt's) soul from sin." Razin did accompany Babbitt to Washington, but did not kill him on the way, as had been planned, so that his soul was not redeemed and saved till he was on his way back, when he was duly murdered by some other person. It appears that this affidavit was prepared with the view simply of ousting Cannon from his seat, but if there is any truth in it, it ought to be used to get him indicted. The "blood-atonement" doctrine works both ways, and has also a strong hold on the Gentile mind, and if Cannon caused the death of Babbitt, his soul also ought to be "redeemed and saved from sin."

There is scarcely any doubt of a general willingness to see the medical attendants of President Garfield, as well as all those who ministered to his comfort during those long months of suffering, liberally compensated. An invidious discussion of the scientific merits of the medical treatment the patient received, as a basis of the valuation of the professional services rendered, seems peculiarly out of place. It may well be assumed that everybody did his best, and that, whatever errors may have been committed, there has never been the least reason to doubt the untiring watchfulness and conscientious devotion surrounding President Garfield's bed. Nobody will, therefore, grudge to those concerned the pecuniary compensation awarded to them in the bill reported to the House of Representatives. Only one feature of that bill seems to us open to serious question. It is the provision that Surgeon-General Barnes and Dr. Woodward be promoted in their Army rank and receive pay accordingly as a reward for the services rendered on this occasion. This seems to us very objectionable. Promotion in the Army should be regulated upon fixed principles. The mere fact that Army surgeons were employed in a case of importance would certainly not give them any claim to higher rank. Even in monarchical countries they would in such a case be considered entitled only to a decoration in the shape of a ribbon or a cross, but scarcely to a promotion over the heads of others. This would be justified only by conspicuously distinguished service, which in the case of Drs. Barnes and Woodward is scarcely asserted.

Now that District Attorney Woodford is about to make another effort to bring Mr. N. M. Curtis to trial for levying assessments on officeholders, we trust Mr. Curtis himself will waive technicalities and meet the case like a man. This is the more desirable because we understand his principal defence is that he behaved gallantly at Fort Fisher, and it does not become a brave soldier to try to escape answering in a court of justice by such pleas as that his name is not "Nehemiah," but Newton. Moreover, there is an English decision which tells dead against the Fort Fisher plea—viz., that meritorious behavior at Waterloo was no defence to a charge of furious driving in the streets. There is, indeed, no system of jurisprudence which allows military services to be pleaded in bar of a prosecution for civil crimes or misdemeanors. Such services may properly be considered by the pardoning power after conviction, but the District Attorney and the court and jury can take no notice of them. Moreover, the better soldier a man has been the more careful should he be not to seem even to wish to evade an accusation of any kind.

or to get an advantage by such a thing as a "misnomer." Dodging of all kinds goes ill with the military character. Mr. Curtis, far from trying to avoid a trial, ought to be urging the Civil-Service Reform Association and the District Attorney to bring him promptly to the bar, and to indict him by any name they please, as long as he is the man they mean. Brave soldiers ask eagerly where are their accusers, not for the purpose of escaping from them around the corner, but for the purpose of confronting them.

There has been a good deal of controversy in the West as to Mr. Jesse James's spiritual condition, and we have ourselves received one or two angry remonstrances for alleging his standing in the Baptist Church before his death to have been good. There is, of course, more or less obscurity about everything connected with him, and we should be sorry to vouch absolutely for the truth of anything that is said about him, except that he was a robber and murderer of the worst kind; but that we were not wrong about the regularity of his position in the Church, for which one correspondent has challenged us to produce "a particle of proof," we think the following letter, which has recently appeared, is sufficient evidence:

"*To the Kansas City Times.*

"AUSTIN, Texas, April 12.—In your sketch of the religious views of Jesse James you are mistaken as to the time of his baptism. In October, 1877, at a meeting I held in the Baptist Church in Kearney, he professed conversion, and I baptized him. He prayed several times publicly in the prayer meetings, and seemed very much interested in Frank, for whom he prayed as 'his wayward brother.'—Yours very truly,

"G. W. ROGERS,
"Pastor Baptist Church, Austin, Texas."

We may add that we have no doubt that there are plenty of converts of the same type in Ray, Clay, Jackson, and Johnson Counties, Mo., which, no doubt, accounts in part for the exceeding dulness of real estate in that region.

It appears that Mr. Frank James, far from being dead, has put himself at the head of "a movement" which "has for its aim the extermination of all whose names are associated with the death of his brother Jesse." The gentlemen who are associated with him in this enterprise come from "the Missouri bottoms," or, in other words, the region which produced such politicians and social philosophers as "Polk Wells, Sil Norris, Jim Dougherty, John Pomeroy, and others," and they are reinforced by "a few tried mountain outlaws" from New Mexico. The movement involves, we are told, not only "the removal" of the two Fords, but "all informants and witnesses in Crocker Neck." It will thus be seen that the prospects of real estate in Missouri are not quite so good as the Governor thought they were after Mr. James had been killed. Indeed, it is safe to say that there will be no considerable rise in the value of farms in some parts of the State until the various "removals" which Mr. James is now contemplating have taken place.

The persecution of the Jews in Russia is going on with the old ferocity. The things which a few days ago occurred in the neighborhood of Odessa will form some of the darkest pages of this horrible and revolting story. It seems as if the Russian Government were either insincere in its proclaimed intention to put a stop to these disgraceful scenes, or as if it were powerless to do so. The latter is scarcely to be assumed. By way of contrast, it is very gratifying to observe that in Germany not only the anti-Jew movement has completely died out, but that very earnest demonstrations of sympathy with the suffering Jews in Russia, and active efforts to aid them, have taken its place. In Austria, too, organizations have been set on foot for the same purpose.

Sagasta has carried the ratification of his commercial treaty with France in the Cortes by a majority of 237 to 59, after a very exciting debate. The tariff question in Spain is curiously mixed up with various other questions, so that the division does not really represent the relative strength of freetraders and protectionists. Castelar, for instance, refrained from voting, though he is doubtless a freetrader, because his Republican supporters are mainly found in the great manufacturing towns, and the great manufacturing towns are nearly all in Catalonia, the manufacturers and artisans of which are almost ready to rise in arms for the tariff. The rest of Spain, however, which does not like the Catalonians, and thinks they have grown rich on their neighbors, and is immensely interested in the great increase in the French demand for Spanish wine, stands by the Minister. In fact, the Spanish wine trade is now growing at such a rate, in consequence of the failure of the French vines, that it is bidding fair to effect a complete economic revolution, and to set the country once more on its legs financially. The statistics of the exports to France—though they are doubtless nothing to what they will be under the new treaty—are quite sufficient to set the consumers of French wine all over the world to asking whether they would not do well to import the Spanish, and Hungarian, and Italian wines themselves, and do their own doctoring and mixing.

The Gladstone Budget is a less cheering document than was hoped for, but it is remarkably cheering considering what the outlook was two years or even a year ago. One of the most encouraging of the facts brought to light is that the falling off in the revenue derived from alcoholic drinks, which is considerable, does not this year indicate, as it has previously done, diminished income on the part of the laboring classes. It has hitherto been one of the discreditable features of British finance, that in good times the increase of revenue was derived largely from increased consumption of beer and spirits by the workingmen and women; while, on the other hand, in bad times a decline in the consumption of alcohol was usually accompanied by other evidences of poverty, such as diminished deposits in the savings banks. This year, however, decrease of revenue from alcohol has been accompanied by an increase of deposits. Next to the receipts from alcohol, nothing affords so good a test of the condition of the country as the income tax, but of this the report makes no mention. Two of the heaviest items of increased expenditure—one of $7,000,000, and one of $450,000—are the direct results of Beaconsfield's adventures in Afghanistan, Africa, and Cyprus. If he had been allowed to keep on for another year or two, he would probably have quadrupled them The Afghan War cost $100,000,000, which was as much wasted as if thrown into the sea.

The Irish Home Rulers have received a piece of support which must make a much deeper impression on the English mind than anything which has yet come from abroad, in the shape of an address to the Queen, voted unanimously by the Canadian House of Commons, testifying to the peaceableness, loyalty, and prosperity of the Irish in Canada, asking for the release of the suspects, and the bestowal on Ireland of the home rule to which Canada owes so much, and which the House thinks would do much to assuage that hostility to the Imperial Government which now diverts from Canada a large part of the Irish emigration. What will make this the more effective is that it reaches England just as another clamor for more coercion is beginning, or, in other words, for another passionate trial of a remedy which has failed in Ireland more conspicuously, and more frequently, than it has ever failed anywhere, and to which no civilized community would to-day advise England again to resort. If ever there was a case in which pure force on a great scale should not be appealed to, it is in a struggle against paying rent, on the part of a large population.

It would appear from Monday's despatches that the rumors which have been current for some weeks, that Mr. Gladstone would shortly announce a change in the Ministerial programme as regards Ireland, were true. The suspects, it is said, are all to be released, which was almost certain after the recent confession of both the Premier and Mr. Forster, in Parliament, that the Coercion Act had proved a failure. The summary powers of the magistrates are to be greatly increased, and something—really the most important thing of all—is to be done to relieve the tenants who are laden with arrears of rent contracted during the bad years, and which, if the Land Act had a retrospective effect, would undoubtedly be largely disallowed by the Commission. It is the evictions for non-payment of these arrears, which since the beginning of the year have put between three and four thousand persons out on the roadside, which more than aught else are keeping up the murders and outrages. The account given of them by Mr. Tuke, the English Quaker banker and philanthropist, who has lately visited the west of Ireland, is very shocking. He declares that he thinks the Government ought not to lend troops and police for purposes so barbarous, and when one reads his description of the condition in which the evictions leave helpless women and children, it abates a good deal of one's surprise at the savage ferocity with which the ejected tenants avenge themselves.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

Mr. William Henry Hurlbert, brother of the late Minister to Peru, appeared before the Shipherd investigating committee on Thursday. He testified that his brother consulted with him in regard to the letter from Shipherd offering him $250,000, and said that his brother had regarded it as a bribe and desired to have it immediately exposed, but the witness advised him to wait for further developments. In regard to the despatch with the marginal note, "Go it, Steve," the witness was not very clear. He said in substance that it might be in existence, and he had an "impression that a marginal note might have been made on a despatch to my brother," but the witness denied that he had such a despatch in his possession, or had shown it to Shipherd. On Monday Mr. Blaine appeared before the Committee, and flatly contradicted almost every assertion of importance that Shipherd had made in regard to him. He said he never saw, and knew nothing about, the papers alleged to be missing from the State Department, and that the statement made by Shipherd that he acquainted Mr. Blaine, at the interview on July 25, with the Hurlbut bribery letter, was unqualifiedly false. Mr. Blaine read letters from men whom Shipherd claimed as his counsel, and who he had said were informed of the bribery letter, denying any knowledge of the letter until after its publication. Mr. Blaine also expressed the opinion that President Garfield had died without having heard of the Peruvian Company, the Cochet claim, or Jacob R. Shipherd; and said that with Shipherd "falsehood is an employment and perjury a pastime." The further examination of Mr. Blaine was postponed until Wednesday.

On Thursday the President nominated Alphonso Taft, of Ohio, to be Minister to Austria; William L. Dayton, of New Jersey, to be Minister to the Netherlands; Nicholas Fish, of New York, to be Minister to Belgium; John M. Francis, of New York, to be Chargé d'Affaires to Portugal; J. P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania, to be Chargé d'Affaires to Denmark, and Adam Badeau, of New York, to be Consul-General at Havana.

The Fitz-John Porter case was again under consideration at a Cabinet meeting on Thursday. General Porter has presented a new petition for relief from the sentence of the court-martial. It was referred to the Secretary of War.

The President has transmitted to Congress a note addressed by the Mexican Minister to the Secretary of State proposing the conclusion of a convention between the two countries for defining the boundary between the United States and Mexico from the Rio Grande westward to the Pacific Ocean by the erection of durable monuments. The Secretary of War has expressed himself favorably upon the proposition, and the President states that he deems it important that the boundary line as defined by the existing treaties, and already once surveyed, should be run anew and marked as suggested.

A bill was reported to the Senate on Friday to provide for the establishment of a Government for Alaska. It provides for the appointment of a Governor, in whom shall be vested executive power in and over the Territory; for a Secretary, who shall be ex-officio Treasurer, and prescribes that the judicial power of the Territory shall be vested in a Supreme Court and four inferior courts; that the Governor, Chief-Justice, Surveyor-General, and Marshal, together with the Collector of Customs of the district, shall for the first year of the operation of the Territorial Government be established a legislative council, with the Governor as ex-officio President. Sitka is to be the seat of Government. The bill further provides that the Territory shall be entitled to a delegate in the House of Representatives, who shall enjoy privileges similar to those enjoyed by other Territorial delegates, and that all male residents of the Territory, including civilized Indians, shall be entitled to vote.

Advices from Alaska state that all indications point to a rush of miners to that Territory during the summer, and lawlessness and bloodshed are anticipated unless some form of government is instituted there. Miners are arriving on every steamer, and they announce their intention of locating on quartz claims. In some instances they have already done so; and they say that as there is no law in the Territory they will hold their claims by force.

The Mississippi Improvement Bill has occupied the attention of the Senate during the week. On Friday Senator Morgan, of Alabama, made a speech against the bill, which, coming as it did from a Southerner, attracted considerable attention. "The Government has no right," he said, "to lay a specific tax on the people of Alabama to protect the people of the Mississippi Valley." The bill was passed on Tuesday without a division.

The Senate Committee on Commerce, on Thursday, at the request of Senators Hoar and Dawes, of Massachusetts, postponed consideration of the nomination of Roland Worthington to the Boston Customs Collectorship in order to afford the two Senators a convenient opportunity to be heard in opposition to the nomination.

Mr. Cannon, the Mormon delegate from Utah, made a speech in defence and justification of polygamy in the House of Representatives on Wednesday, but it did him little good, for the resolution to admit him to his seat was defeated by a vote of 123 to 79. Utah is now without representation in the House.

The House Committee on the Judiciary, after considering a number of bills to establish a uniform system of bankruptcy, has reported the bill known as the "Lowell Bill," which was introduced into the House by Representative Robinson.

A petition was received in the House of Representatives on Friday, asking Congress to take measures to prevent immigration of the Irish, and to pass a bill for this purpose similar to the Chinese Bill. The signers of the petition were said to be Orangemen.

In the case of Hallet Kilbourn against J. G. Thompson, ex-Sergeant-at-Arms of the House of Representatives, for damages claimed to have been incurred by Kilbourn through his arrest and confinement in jail by Thompson, the jury rendered a verdict of $100,000 damages for Kilbourn. Kilbourn was arrested in 1876 on a charge of contempt of the House of Representatives, and was confined in jail for forty-five days, and released under a writ of habeas corpus.

Secretary Folger stated on Thursday that the Treasury reserve, which is now more than thirty-nine per cent. of the United States notes outstanding, would undoubtedly be in such a condition that he would soon consider the propriety of making another call for bonds. The amount of reserve at the close of business on Wednesday was $136,069,502 26, over and above all liabilities except United States notes.

The Supreme Court in banc of the District of Columbia met on Monday. District Attorney Corkhill stated to the Court that the bill of exceptions in the Guiteau case had been signed and filed, and he asked the Court to fix an early date for hearing argument and deciding thereon. Mr. Reed, counsel for Guiteau, said he would like further time to prepare his argument, and asked that the hearing be set for three weeks from that day. The Court, however, believed that two weeks would give ample time for preparation. Mr. Scoville has written a letter formally announcing his withdrawal from the case, in which he says: "The imperative cause of withdrawal is my inability, without absolute ruin to my family and myself, to give further time to this cause away from home."

Mrs. Scoville announces that she intends to prepare a petition to the President for commutation of Guiteau's sentence to imprisonment for life, and travel round the country lecturing and circulating the petition for signatures.

The motion for a bill of particulars made by the counsel for the Star-route conspirators has been overruled by Judge Wylie. Another dilatory motion was made on Thursday to withdraw the plea of "not guilty" entered by the Court in the case of an ex-clerk of the Department indicted with Dorsey and Brady, so as to allow the arguing of a motion to quash his indictment.

The prosecution of the persons implicated in the election frauds in South Carolina is progressing successfully. On Wednesday the Grand Jury presented true bills of indictment against thirty-nine persons for conspiracy to obstruct qualified voters in the exercise of the rights of suffrage in the last general election. The jury charged with the case of the managers of the election at the Maysville precinct, however, were discharged on Monday, owing to their failure to agree upon a verdict.

The Committee on Trade of the Cotton Exchange, which has been investigating the charges of fraud in the cotton packed this season, has made a report to the effect that the complaints, though not without foundation, are much exaggerated; that the adulteration is not intentional, but is due to a variety of causes; and that the general agitation of the subject cannot fail to have a beneficial effect.

The Oregon Republican State Convention met on Thursday and nominated a Congressman and State officers. The platform declares that the Hawaiian Reciprocity Treaty is an imposition on the Government and people, and should be abrogated; deplores the assassination of President Garfield; regards the President's veto of the Chinese Bill as unwise and unjust; condemns the policy which prompted it, as opposed to the principles of the Republican party as expressed in the platform of the last National Republican Convention, and demands that the Representatives of Oregon in Congress shall persist in advocating the restriction of Chinese immigration.

The revenue steamer *Corwin* has been sent to the relief of the officers and crew of the *Rodgers* at Tiapka. The *Corwin* is to sail for Tiapka as soon as the condition of the ice in the northern seas will permit, and will transport Captain Berry and his party to the nearest port visited by a regular line of steamers, so that they can be brought home at the earliest moment.

Monticello, Louisiana, was visited on Saturday afternoon by a destructive cyclone. Only three houses were left standing, and ten persons were killed instantly; and advices from several counties of North Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama report cyclones which caused great damage to property and considerable loss of life.

There have been great floods in the Red River Valley in Manitoba. On Wednesday last the flood reached the city of Winnipeg, and did great damage. Bridges were swept away, telegraphic communication cut off, and parts of the city flooded.

Indian troubles have begun in Arizona, where not less than forty persons have been killed, and news has been received of several massacres of the inhabitants of sheep and cattle ranches. The hostile Indians are reported to be Chiricahuas, and number about 300. They are moving south, probably with the intention of getting into Mexico, but it is hoped that the troops will be able to prevent their escape. A mass meeting was held at Safford, Arizona, on Monday evening, Governor Tuttle presiding, and it was decided to raise a force of volunteers to take the field for two or three months.

FOREIGN.

Charles Robert Darwin died at his residence, Down House, near Orpington, England, on Thursday. He will be buried in Westminster Abbey, near Sir Isaac Newton. Canon Liddon, preaching at St. Paul's Cathedral, and Canons Prothero and Barry, at Westminster Abbey, on Sunday, referred to Mr. Darwin's theories, and said they were not necessarily hostile to the fundamental truths of religion. A London despatch says that these sermons are looked upon as in wonderful contrast to the reception first given Mr. Darwin's doctrines by the religious world.

Mr. Gladstone introduced his budget in the House of Commons on Monday. In his speech he said the actual surplus of revenue over expenditure for the past year was £352,000. The actual expenditure for the last year had been £718,000 less than the estimates, but a comparison of the expenditure of 1881–82 with that of 1880–81, showed an augmentation of more than £2,250,000. The condition of trade could not be called unsatisfactory, but the effect of the improvement upon the revenue of the country was sluggish. This he attributed not to a diminution of the resources of the country, but to the absence of the extreme prices which had marked the previous period of prosperity. He regretted the growing popular indifference in regard to increase of expenditure, and thought the system of framing estimates on the sole responsibility of the Ministers had not worked satisfactorily. The Americans, he said, had shown extraordinary vigor and fortitude in reducing their debt, and in bearing heavy taxation for that purpose, and their record in this respect compared favorably with that of England of late years. The revenue for the coming year was estimated at £84,935,000, showing an estimated surplus of £305,000, which surplus was so small as to force him to abandon the hope of great financial readjustment in connection with the County Government Bill; and in order to fulfil promises in regard to the readjustment of the highway rate, he proposed to raise £250,000 more by a slight increase in the carriage duty. This was the only novelty in the budget. Mr. Gladstone concluded by assuring the House and the country that he had concealed nothing. Sir Stafford Northcote said he would defer criticism on the budget and on the speech.

An angry debate took place in the House of Commons on Thursday on Irish affairs. A circular had been issued by an Inspector of Police, declaring that as there was reason to believe that every means would be used to assassinate a certain Mr. Lloyd, who had been very active in opposing the "no-rent" movement, it behooved his escort to prevent it and to use firearms on the bare possibility of such an attempt. Mr. Sexton said this circular was a gross and barbarous incitement to murder, and he called upon Mr. Forster to insist upon its withdrawal. Mr. Forster defended the circular, although he confessed that one or two paragraphs of it should not have been written. He said that cowardly ruffians who were likely to shoot from behind a hedge would abstain if they thought themselves in danger. During the debate Mr. Redmond persisted in denouncing Mr. Forster as dishonest, upon which the Speaker named him, and his suspension was voted by 207 yeas to 12 nays. Sir Stafford Northcote said he hoped the Government would continue to protect Mr. Lloyd, and declared that the Opposition would do nothing to weaken the Government in Ireland. Mr. Forster has, however, since withdrawn the circular.

There has been a slight lull in the business of outrages in Ireland. Mr. Smythe, member of Parliament for Tipperary, in reply to a vote of censure passed on him by the priests of Tipperary for not supporting the Land League, violently denounced the League, and declared that until its conspiracy is demolished, root and branch, Ireland will have no peace. Mr. Parnell arrived at Kilmainham Jail on Monday evening. He was loudly cheered at the Dublin station, but avoided, as far as possible, any demonstration. It is reported that while in London Mr. Parnell had a conference with leading Home Rulers.

In the House of Commons on Monday, Sir Charles Dilke, replying to questions, said that the correspondence relative to the American suspects would be presented to Parliament this week, and that the Government had no intention of introducing a bill to enable them to deal with alien suspects. The question of the American suspects has been discussed in the English newspapers during the week. The *Standard* said on Monday that the speedy release of the suspects on terms that might involve the recall of Mr. Lowell—whatever that may mean—the gradual release of all political suspects, and the trial of those detained upon suspicion of complicity in outrages, the substitution for the Coercion Act of a large increase of summary jurisdiction vested in magistrates, and the amendment of the arrears and purchase clauses of the Land Act, are the principal features of the ministerial programme.

The Cabinet Council on Saturday discussed Mr. W. H. Smith's resolution for extending the purchase clauses of the Land Act. It is understood that the Cabinet resolved cordially to accept the assistance of the Opposition in carrying out practical legislation in this direction.

On Wednesday evening the House of Commons considered a bill introduced by Mr. Ashton Dilke, which proposes to throw upon the community the expenses of the returning officer in conducting a Parliamentary election. The bill also provides that a candidate must obtain an absolute majority of the votes recorded or submit to a second ballot. This measure, which is supported by the Government, passed its second reading by a vote of 87 to 85.

The Grand Jury returned a true bill for high treason against MacLean, who attempted to shoot Queen Victoria at Windsor on the 2d of March, on Wednesday. He was at once placed in the dock and pleaded not guilty. Sir Henry James, the Attorney-General, opened the case for the prosecution, and Mr. Montague Williams for the defence. Mr. Williams said it could be proved that MacLean had had the homicidal mania for years, and had been confined in an asylum. The Superintendents of the Salisbury and Broadmoor Asylums testified to MacLean's insanity, and said they believed him incapable of appreciating the nature or quality of any of his acts. Mr. Williams asked for his acquittal on the ground of insanity. Lord Chief-Justice Coleridge summed up the case, and the jury, after being out only five minutes, returned a verdict of not guilty, on the ground of insanity. On Thursday it was ordered that MacLean be detained in custody during her Majesty's pleasure.

A meeting was held at the Mansion House in London on Thursday in furtherance of the proposed fisheries exhibition at London in 1883. Mr. Lowell, the American Minister, said he had grounds for believing that his Government would participate in the affair. He said he had that morning transmitted by cable to Washington the formal invitation.

In London, on Wednesday, a great number of persons wore primroses, Lord Beaconsfield's favorite flower, that day being the anniversary of his death.

The Spanish Chamber of Deputies has approved the Franco-Spanish Commercial Treaty by a vote of 237 to 59. On Monday a motion of censure against Señor Comacho, Minister of Finance, was rejected by a vote of 152 to 46. An anonymous proclamation, dated Barcelona, has been addressed to the Senators and Deputies, threatening with death those who vote for the treaty.

The French Cabinet Council has approved the scheme of M. de Lesseps for cutting a canal through the neck of land dividing the Gulf of Gabes from the salt marshes and low-lying parts of the Desert of Sahara to the south of Tunis. It is suggested that if this canal be cut, the sea will once more fill up the Desert of Sahara. The political advantage to be gained by the scheme will be the insulation of Tunis and Algeria by creating a water barrier between them and Tripoli. The cost of the canal is estimated at 65,000,000 francs.

The Corporation of Marseilles, in France, has brought a suit against the ex-Empress Eugénie to compel her to relinquish possession of the Imperial château which was presented under the Empire to the late Emperor by the municipality, but which, it is claimed, now belongs to the town.

The new cable connecting Emden, Germany, with the Anglo-American cable system at Valencia, was opened on Saturday. The new line forms a direct link between the Empire of Germany and the United States. Congratulatory messages were exchanged between the Emperor and President Arthur.

The editor of the *Tageblatt*, who was recently sentenced to three months' imprisonment for libelling Prince Bismarck, has been sentenced to another week's confinement for inserting a letter in his paper about M. Gambetta, which the court held to be blasphemous. At the instance of Prince Bismarck also, the circulation of one of the minor comic papers in Berlin has been suspended for two years.

A newspaper in Vienna publishes an account received from the frontier which says that previous to the arrival of the Governor of Podolia at Balta, the Russian troops there aided in plundering instead of assisting the Jews. Forty persons were seriously injured during the progress of the riots, some of whom have since died. Fully a thousand houses were destroyed, and the damage done is estimated at 4,500,000 rubles.

An imperial order has been promulgated in Russia prohibiting military men from publicly delivering political speeches, or expressing political opinions, and War Department officials are prohibited from publishing, without the sanction of their superiors, documents referring to the internal and external affairs of foreign countries.

Osman Pasha Rafki, formerly Egyptian Minister of War, who ordered the arrest of the officers who participated in the military revolt of a few months ago, has been arrested on the charge of complicity in the plot to assassinate Arabi Bey. Just as the Court was about to pass sentence on the Circassian officers implicated in this plot they were again arrested in consequence of the reception of evidence that they had been intriguing to procure the restoration of the ex-Khedive.

Montero is now President of Peru, and has resigned all military authority, having conferred ample powers for that purpose upon Don Miguel Iglesias, who was Minister of War under the Prado Administration and Pierola Dictatorship. The Chilians are undecided whether to treat with Montero or not. The latter is making efforts to unite all the various revolutionary leaders who have sprung up in Peru lately, and if he succeeds in doing so he will satisfy the doubts of the Chilians as to the possibility of forming a Government of Peru outside of their own lines.

A resolution was offered in the Canadian House of Commons on Friday, setting forth the desirability of Canada negotiating directly her own commercial treaties, and not, as at present, through the British Foreign Office. Mr. Blake, who offered the resolution, said the history of British diplomacy, so far as Canada was concerned, had been a history of error, wrong, blunder, and concession. In the debate that followed Mr. Mackenzie supported the resolution, which was, however, defeated by a vote of 104 to 58.

TUESDAY, April 25, 1882.

THE PERUVIAN MYSTERY.

THE testimony given by Mr. Hurlbert, of the *World*, on Thursday, before the House Foreign Affairs Committee was important in more ways than one. He produced a letter from his brother, General Hurlbut, to himself, which is very valuable as showing the impression made on the mind of the former by Mr. Blaine's despatches. The letter is as follows:

"The Chilian papers are full of that infernal Shipherd and his pretences. They have been kicked out of this legation and out of the State Department; but he is an indefatigable nuisance. I hope Sam Randall will call for all papers in the department in reference to him and his affairs. I have sent all his letters back to the department, and I anxiously desire that the correspondence be made public. I have fears (I hope not well grounded) that our Government means to slide out of the American position here. My personal talk with Blaine and Garfield, of course, will not appear in any official correspondence, but it was the motive for my action. I think they will throw me overboard unless Congress backs up the American line I have taken here. Personally I care little about it, but I must say that in Blaine's letter of the 22d of November to me there was a manifest disposition to hedge."

It must be said that this interpretation of the despatch of November 22 was not unnatural. Down to this time there is no indication in the correspondence of any desire on the part of Mr. Blaine to interfere with "Steve's" general diplomatic operations, which are easily explicable as having been the result of "personal talk" with the Secretary of State, but are unintelligible in the light of his formal instructions.

His instructions were explicit on the point that the United States "cannot refuse to recognize the rights which the Chilian Government has acquired by the successes of the war," and that "a cession of territory" might be "the necessary price to be paid for peace." Now, what General Hurlbut had actually done had been to announce to Admiral Lynch, the Chilian commander, in a "memorandum," that the United States would "regard with disfavor" any annexation of Peruvian territory; to write a letter to Garcia, the secretary of Pierola, Calderon's rival, with whom he had not even the right to hold diplomatic intercourse on such a subject, announcing, as if by authority, that Calderon would not cede Tarapaca to Chili under any circumstances; he had also telegraphed to our Minister to the Argentine Confederation, suggesting that the latter Government should send a minister to Peru, there being at the time a serious outstanding difference between Chili and the Argentine Confederation. For every one of these things Mr. Blaine, in his despatch of November 22, found grave fault with Mr. Hurlbut, and notified him that he was to be superseded by a special envoy.

Why should Mr. Blaine have written such a despatch as this? Hurlbut's idea is that it showed that he wanted to "hedge"—*i. e.*, that he was afraid the active diplomacy of his emissary was going too far, and that he wanted merely to throw him overboard and set himself right. But the subsequent events show that this was by no means all. Hurlbut had accomplished one thing of great importance; he had, by his despatches, "memorandum," and pronunciamientos on the subject of the terms of peace, managed to put Calderon, who from the first had been a mere diplomatic puppet, ready to do anything suggested to him for the government which had created him, in the attitude of resisting all idea of territorial cession. Calderon had accordingly been arrested and carried off to Santiago. Notwithstanding this, and notwithstanding the declaration of martial law by the Chilians, and the non-existence of any actual Peruvian government in Peru, Hurlbut was still directed by Mr. Blaine to go on recognizing "any legitimate representative" Calderon might have left behind him. A few weeks later the publication of the instructions to Mr. Trescot appeared, and made the meaning of this obvious. Mr. Trescot was instructed to demand an explanation of the arrest of Calderon from Chili; and this was accompanied by the announcement that the arrest was regarded as an insult to the United States.

It thus appears probable that from the first it had been Mr. Blaine's intention to embroil this country with Chili. This explanation of his behavior is further strengthened by the fact that as long ago as August 15, Kilpatrick, who had taken to Santiago instructions agreeing with those which Hurlbut took to Lima, reported that Chili acceded to all the demands of the United States—in the language of the Chilian Secretary of State, "out of respect for the opinion of the Administration at Washington"—and agreed that no territory should be exacted unless other means of indemnifying Chili failed. Notwithstanding this, "Steve" was allowed to continue ranting and blustering on Calderon's behalf, until the Chilians, to put an end to the farce, were forced to throw the latter into prison. That this was exactly what Mr. Blaine wanted can hardly be doubted. It furnished him, as he thought, with a "casus belli" against Chili, while he was enabled, at the same time, to repudiate all responsibility for Mr. Hurlbut. He had used him to drive Chili into taking a stand, just as he had previously allowed Shipherd to use his wonderful claims to make it appear that the United States had a material stake in the contest. That he should apparently have thought he had now got the Chilians "just where he wanted them," is not the least curious or characteristic fact in the history of his proceedings.

The testimony given by Mr. Blaine on Monday was effective only in showing Shipherd to be an irreclaimable liar. The late Secretary of State denied emphatically that he had ever heard from Shipherd anything about his offer of $250,000 "pool stock" in the Peruvian Company to General Hurlbut, and produced a letter from Senator Blair, who, according to Shipherd, was present at the interview at which the subject was mentioned, corroborating his denial. Shipherd's story of his having discussed the offer generally with his various "counsel" was upset by the production of letters from Messrs. Boutwell, Robertson, and others denying that they had ever heard of it. His mendacity was further shown by a letter from Mr. Evarts with regard to an "opinion" on the Cochet claim, relied on by Shipherd as part of his "case." This was to the effect that "if Cochet was the discoverer of guano, his discovery vested in him the title to one-third of all the guano in Peru, and he may at his option claim one-third of each heap, or any other equitable one-third of the total." Mr. Blaine produced a letter from Mr. Evarts denying that he ever gave Shipherd or any one else an opinion as to the validity of the Cochet claim. Mr. Elmore, the Peruvian Minister, has also written a letter denying the story about the "marginal-note" despatch.

So far, therefore, as Shipherd is concerned, his attempt to "jump on Jim Blaine" must be regarded as a failure. But Mr. Blaine's attempt to explain his own action as Secretary of State is not helped by showing that Shipherd has perjured himself.

He says that the Cochet claim, represented by Shipherd, is entirely separate from the Landreau claim, the recognition of which he urged in his despatches to General Hurlbut. This is true; but the important question is whether Mr. Blaine did not allow Shipherd for months to suppose that if he, Shipherd, could get a sufficient backing, he might secure the good offices of the State Department? It was a natural part of his general plan to take advantage of any "American" claims that could be used to threaten Chili with. If not, why did Mr. Blaine make no attempt to find out what was the basis of the Cochet claim at the time that Shipherd called upon him? He seems to have regarded Shipherd's "backing" as very good, for he brings up the names of his various "counsel" and alleged "copartners" as a reason for having listened to him at the outset. He made no attempt at the time to find out the truth as to the extraordinary "opinion" attributed by Shipherd to Mr. Evarts, nor, indeed, to find out the truth about his story in any respect. He made Shipherd's acquaintance in July of last year. It was not till December that he became aware, as he wrote to General Hurlbut, of the "indecency and dishonor" of his advocacy of the Cochet claim.

His testimony with regard to the Landreau claim is very significant. This he admits urging; and to explain his action he misrepresents in a shocking manner all the facts of the case. A resolution recommending the claim to the attention of the President once received, as he says, the unanimous vote of the House of Representatives, and it was subsequently thrown out by the Senate as a purely executive matter. Secretary Fish wrote two or three letters about it, in which Mr. Blaine says he "commended" this claim; but, as a matter of fact, the utmost length to which he ever went was to permit our Minister at Lima to urge "unofficially" a "speedy investigation of it." It had also "been reported upon by Mr. Evarts." On the strength of such facts as these Mr. Blaine boldly declares that "in the history of claims in the United States there has not been any claim in the State Department so strongly backed and endorsed by precedent and power as that was." It was with regard to this claim that Mr. Blaine instructed Mr. Trescot on December 16: "While disabusing the mind of the Chilian Government of any impression that the United States meditates intervention on behalf of private claims, beyond the use of its good offices, you will say that justice seems to

demand that Landreau should have an opportunity to be heard in support of his claim before a tribunal in Peru competent to decide it; and that if decided in his favor, a treaty of peace which might cede territory to Chili should not be made in disregard of any rights which Mr. Landreau may be found, after an impartial judicial investigation, to possess." As there were no courts in Peru at the time, the construction put by Mr. Belmont on this—that it was in effect saying that there should be no treaty of peace without a recognition of the Landreau claim—seems much less far-fetched than Mr. Blaine seeks to represent it.

On the whole, Mr. Blaine's testimony does not weaken the impression that his plan was to use these "claims" to force a quarrel upon Chili. He let Shipherd use the Cochet claim, and threw him over when he had used it long enough.

ALIENS AND NATIVES UNDER THE IRISH COERCION ACT.

THE discussion in England over the position of the imprisoned Irish-American suspects continues, and is certainly sufficiently confused to bewilder any ordinary reader. Two or three of the principal journals admit that the United States are within their rights in insisting that their citizens shall not be imprisoned for an indefinite period without trial; but most others, the London *Standard* among the number in a recent issue, maintain that no foreigner is entitled to any discrimination whatever in his favor in the administration of the law of the land, and that it is preposterous for him to demand it. There is as yet no sign of any general consensus of English opinion on the subject. This is the more surprising because, in spite of the interest the question is exciting on both sides of the water, nobody has as yet been able to cite a single precedent, or a single dictum from any of the text-books of international law, in support of the doctrine that the municipal law of any country can authorize its executive to imprison foreigners without trial in time of peace. If there is any respectable authority for the practice, if it has ever been formally acquiesced in with regard to its own citizens by any Christian state, it ought to be easy to produce the despatch in which its reasonableness or inevitableness was acknowledged. But nothing of the kind is forthcoming.

The text-books and diplomatic correspondence teem with admissions that a foreigner owes obedience to the laws of the country in which he has taken up his abode, and must submit to whatever punishment they prescribe for their violation. Nowhere has this principle been admitted more fully than by Mr. Marcy in discussing the Tausig case, in 1854.

> "Every nation," said he, "whenever its laws are violated by any one owing obedience to them, whether he be a citizen or stranger, has a right to inflict the penalties incurred upon the transgressor, if found within its jurisdiction. The case is not altered by the character of the laws, unless they are in derogation of the well-established international code. No nation has a right to supervise the municipal code of another, or claim that its citizens or subjects shall be exempted from the operation of such a code, if they have voluntarily placed themselves under it. . . . This principle does not at all interfere with the right of any state to protect its citizens, or those entitled to its protection, when abroad, from wrongs and injuries, from arbitrary acts of oppression, or deprivation of property, as contradistinguished from penalties and punishments incurred by the infraction of the laws of the country within whose jurisdiction the sufferers have placed themselves."

This is all indisputable, but it is none the less true that this rule is, and always has been, based on the assumption that the question whether a foreigner has violated the laws of the country in which he resides shall be determined by some sort of judicial inquiry before the punishment is inflicted; that is, there must be a trial before some sort of tribunal in order to ascertain whether he is really a "transgressor," and whether he is really guilty of the "infraction." The law may be, in our estimation, an unwise, or unnecessary, or cruel law, and the people who live under it much to be pitied; but of these things we have no right to complain. When, however, it is alleged that one of our citizens has broken it, we are bound to ask that the facts shall be ascertained by a trial, whether it be before a jury or a single judge, before a lawyer or a layman.

Now a trial does not mean simple accusation; it means an accusation followed by proof, and it means the communication of the evidence to the accused, the concession of reasonable time and opportunity for the production of counter-proof, and the submission of the whole matter to some sort of judge, whose character and position guarantee his fairness. Imprisonment inflicted on mere accusation, without proof, and for an indefinite period, is not a punishment, in the sense in which the term is used by legal writers. It is not a penalty inflicted for the commission of an offence; it is a penalty inflicted on A because B thinks him a dangerous or objectionable person. It is therefore arbitrary, and because arbitrary, oppressive. It is not a whit less objectionable than the seizure of a man's property on suspicion. If Mr. Forster were to distrain the goods of an Irish-American, and sell them at auction, and pay the money into the British Treasury, because he suspected him, or some policeman suspected him, the act would not be made a whit the less obnoxious by his calling it the levying of a fine, or because British citizens were subjected to the same process. The citizens of every country submit to everything at the hands of their own Government which it thinks necessary to its safety, either because they acquiesce or because they have no remedy. But foreigners have a remedy, as Mr. Marcy says, against acts of oppression or deprivation of property, and it consists in an appeal to their own Government to procure them a trial by proof, and acquittal in case the proof is not forthcoming.

The British Government, in short, would be entirely within its right in passing laws of the most stringent severity against "no-rent" preaching, or the intimidation of landlords or tenants, against discouraging people from resorting to the Land Courts, against being out after dark, against possessing arms, against wearing a green coat, against speaking disrespectfully of the Ministry, or against the promotion of Irish discontent by any overt act whatsoever; and an American citizen sojourning voluntarily in Ireland would have no right to complain. But the minute he is put in jail on an accusation of violating these laws he has a right to demand, if need be through his Government, that the nature of the accusation and the evidence on which it is based shall be produced before a tribunal competent to order his release in case the charge against him is not substantiated. There is no such thing known in the usage of Christian nations as the lawful infliction of arbitrary punishments on resident foreigners. However worthless the Irish-Americans whom Mr. Forster has locked up may be, or however desirable it may be that they should be in jail somewhere, there is nothing in their case, or in the nature of the troubles with which the English Government is now contending in Ireland, to warrant us in allowing anything of the kind in the present instance to be established as a precedent.

There is all the less reason for our doing so because such inconveniences as the presence of foreigners in Ireland is now causing the British Government, are clearly chargeable to negligence in not guarding against them in the drafting of the Coercion Act. The Ministry were fully warned by the Fenian troubles in 1866 of the extent to which Irish discontent was fostered, and likely to be fostered, by the presence of Irish-American agents on Irish soil in the anti-rent crisis. It is surprising, therefore, and not very excusable, that there should have been no special provision made for them in the Act. There is in the history of British legislation plenty of precedent for disposing of suspected or troublesome aliens by simple expulsion from British soil. In fact, it is in this way that aliens whose presence was considered dangerous, but who could not be convicted before the courts of any definite offence, have always hitherto been got rid of, and there is no way less open to objection. It may, of course, be a great hardship and injury to a foreigner to be thrust forth from a country in which he is resident, on mere suspicion or for reasons of state; but it is something of which his Government cannot complain, especially if the natives are at the same time exposed to arbitrary imprisonment, because the right to exclude foreigners from coming into a country, or to eject them from it if their presence is considered dangerous, is one of the fundamental natural rights of which no community can be divested by any usage however prolonged. The British Parliament armed the Executive with the power of expelling aliens from 1793 down to 1826. In 1848, when the foreign refugees of that year were thought likely to make trouble, it gave the Cabinet the same power again for a short time, though no use was made of it. The Coercion Act ought to have contained a renewal of it as regards Ireland, if the Ministry wished to avoid diplomatic complications with this country. Had it done so, and were the Irish-American suspects now punished by being carried on board a steamer at Queenstown, with a ticket for New York, nobody would have a right to complain, and nobody would complain except those Irish-American publicists on this side of the water who hold that an Irishman's "papers" entitle him to American protection while actively and openly engaged on British soil in trying to overturn the British Government.

CHARLES DARWIN.

THE death of Mr. Darwin on Thursday of last week cannot be called either sudden or premature, as we ordinarily use such expressions, because his health was known to have been for some time feeble, and not only had he more than completed his three-score-and-ten years but his life had been rich in achievement, and crowned with success such as has seldom been vouchsafed to mortal man. The news of his death must, nevertheless, have impressed every one with a sense of sudden bereavement, for the world never gets ready to lose such a man; and when we consider how fresh Mr. Darwin's mind was, and how much more he would have been sure to do if he could have lived to the age of Hobbes or Fontenelle, we must really characterize his death as premature. The great book of which the 'Origin of Species' was designed as a preliminary sketch, he had indeed given up all thought of writing, because so much had been accomplished by the preliminary sketch that further work upon the general theory might well be left to other hands, the whole scientific world having become, to a great extent, Mr. Darwin's collaborateurs. But during the last years of his life Mr. Darwin has published several monographs of the highest value and interest, summing up the results of half a century of patient observation and sagacious reflection upon sundry obscure but important points in botany and vegetable physiology, and there is no reason for supposing that he had as yet begun to exhaust this treasure-house of rich experiences. On the contrary, it seems quite likely that he may have left behind numerous notes and fragments, from which valuable posthumous papers may be edited.

The career of Mr. Darwin possesses the interest that belongs to a complete and well-rounded tale. Like his great predecessor and ally, Sir Charles Lyell, he was never obliged to contend with pecuniary anxieties or to engage in any bread-winning occupation, but he was able to devote his whole life with a single mind to the pursuit of scientific truth. It therefore became possible for him to furnish an admirable illustration of Buffon's definition of a great life, "une pensée de la jeunesse réalisée dans l'âge mûr." After taking his Master's degree at Cambridge, in 1831, at the age of twenty-two, he set out in the ship *Beagle* on an exploring voyage around the world, accompanying the expedition voluntarily as naturalist. In the course of this voyage Mr. Darwin was struck by the peculiar relations of the floras and faunas of the Galapagos Islands to one another and to the flora and fauna of the South American Continent, and these facts set him to speculating as to the possibility of an actual kinship among these organisms—a question which involved the whole problem of the origin of species by "descent with modifications." The most considerable part of Mr. Darwin's life-work was comprised in the solution of the problems thus early suggested by the study of the Galapagos Islands. But a long time was to elapse before the world was to hear, either of the problems or of the solution. After his return to England in 1836, Mr. Darwin was for some time occupied with publications describing the scientific results of the expedition, in which he was assisted by Owen, Waterhouse, Bell, Hooker, and other eminent naturalists. In the series of volumes which appeared under his direction between 1840 and 1846, three were by Mr. Darwin's own hand—the 'Geological Observations on South America,' the work on 'Volcanic Islands,' and especially the treatise on 'Coral Reefs,' in which the true theory of the formation of the reefs was for the first time propounded, and in which new light was thrown upon areas of subsidence and of elevation in all parts of the globe. In 1851-53 Mr. Darwin published a 'Monograph of the Cirripedia,' and at about the same time monographs of the fossil *balanidæ*, *verrucidæ*, and pedunculated cirripeds of Great Britain. In 1853 he received the royal medal from the Royal Society, and in 1859 the Wollaston medal from the Geological Society, and by this time his name had already come to be ranked with those of the most distinguished living naturalists, so that when the 'Origin of Species' was published it at once attracted attention by reason of the eminence of its author, even before its transcendent merits had had time to become known.

A quarter of a century had now elapsed since Mr. Darwin had turned his attention to the problem of the origin of species in connection with the facts of geographical distribution and geological succession. Fifteen years had passed away since he had written out, without publishing, a brief sketch of some of the principal points of the theory which has since become so famous. How much longer this silence might have lasted, had not an unforeseen circumstance come in to break it, one cannot say; but no doubt it would have lasted some time longer, for Mr. Darwin did not wish to publish his views until he had thoroughly considered all the leading facts and arguments which might be regarded as bearing upon them, and it is quite evident that when he wrote the 'Origin of Species' he did not realize the wonderful maturity which his argument had attained, or the overwhelming cogency with which he was then presenting it. It was quite characteristic of him to have made so many allowances for the inevitable incompleteness of his work, when judged by a standard of absolute perfection, as to render himself incapable for the time being of appreciating its real magnitude. In writing the 'Origin of Species,' he regarded it as a preliminary outline of his theory, which would serve to prevent his being forestalled by others in the announcement of it, and he made frequent allusion to the larger and more elaborate treatise by which he should presently follow up the exposition. There can be no doubt that Mr. Darwin was surprised at the great fame which his book instantly won, and at the quickness with which it carried conviction to the minds of nearly all men living whose opinions on the subject were worth the trouble of influencing. The success of his theory was instantaneous and complete; and before ten years more had passed by, so many able men had become expounders and illustrators of the doctrine of natural selection that it no longer seemed necessary to write the larger and more elaborate treatise. The learned work on the 'Variation of Animals and Plants under Domestication,' which appeared in 1868, in two octavo volumes, formed the first instalment of this long-projected treatise. The second part was to have treated of the variation of animals and plants through natural selection, and a third part would have dealt with the phenomena of morphology, of classification, and of distribution in space and time. But these second and third parts were never published.

The circumstance which caused Mr. Darwin to publish the 'Origin of Species' in 1859 served, no less than the extraordinary success of his book, to show how ripe the world had become for the publication of such views. In 1858 Mr. Wallace, who was engaged in studying the natural history of the Malay Archipelago, sent to Mr. Darwin a paper in which he sketched the outlines of a theory identical with that upon which Mr. Darwin had so long been at work. Coincidences of this sort have not been uncommon in the history of scientific inquiry; nor is it surprising that they should occur now and then, when we reflect that a great and pregnant discovery must always have close relations with some question which many of the foremost minds in the world are busy in thinking about. It was so with the discovery of the differential calculus, with the interpretation of the Egyptian hieroglyphics; and to a considerable extent it was so with the introduction of the new chemistry, with the discovery of the equivalence of heat and motion, and with spectrum analysis. It was peculiarly so with the doctrine of the origin of species through natural selection. The belief that all species have originated through derivation from other species, and not through special creation, had been held by a certain portion of the scientific world ever since the time of Mr. Darwin's famous grandfather, who was one of its earliest and most conspicuous advocates. Even those naturalists who did not hold this belief cannot in general be said to have held any antagonistic belief, inasmuch as the so-called "doctrine of special creations" is not a positive doctrine at all, but a mere confession of ignorance, and was so regarded by scientific naturalists before 1859. The truth is, that before the publication of the 'Origin of Species' there was no opinion whatever current respecting the subject that deserved to be called a scientific hypothesis. That the higher forms of life must have come by some process of development from simpler forms was in itself a sensible—perhaps the only sensible—view to take of the subject; but there is nothing properly scientific in a vague general opinion of this sort. A scientific hypothesis must allege a true cause whereby to account for a group of phenomena. Before 1859 no one had suggested a true cause for the origination of new species, but the problem was one over which every naturalist had puzzled since the beginning of the century. Hence the completeness and swiftness of Mr. Darwin's success. But Mr. Darwin's originality was as complete as his success, and it embraced the entire scientific conception of the development theory. He did even more than allege a *vera causa* in natural selection. He was the first to marshal the arguments from classification, embryology, morphology, and distribution, and thus fairly to establish the fact that there has been a derivation of higher forms from lower; and he was also the first to point out the *modus operandi* of the change. The first of these achievements by itself would have entitled him to associate his name with the development theory, but by the second the triumph of the theory was practically assured.

It is a remarkable illustration of the thoroughness with which Mr. Darwin considered his great theory before publishing an account of it that, during the twenty-three years which have elapsed since 1859, although a vast literature of controversy has come into existence and "Darwinism" has formed one of the chief subjects of discussion in all the civilized countries of the world, no one as yet seems to have discovered any argument against the theory of natural selection which Mr. Darwin had not himself already foreseen and considered in the first edition of the 'Origin of Species.' In 1871, Mr. St. George Mivart published a book which made a slight sensation for a few weeks, and which deserves notice as an attack upon the Darwinian theory couched in the language of scientific argument rather than in that of general philosophy or theology or æsthetics; yet all Mr. Mivart's serious objections were taken from Mr. Darwin's own pages and freshly urged with singular want of candor.

After an interval of twelve years Mr. Darwin followed up the first announcement of his general views with his treatise on the 'Descent of Man.' If his earlier book was preëminent for the skill with which it grouped great masses of

facts in their bearings upon a few general propositions relating to the whole organic world, the later treatise is no less remarkable for the skill with which it weighs great numbers of different and often heterogeneous considerations in their bearings upon a single enormously complex group of phenomena. Mr. Darwin's latest books belong to a period in which, having lived to witness the complete success of his great work, he has employed his time in recording the results of his researches on many subsidiary points of no little interest and importance. The treatises on 'Insectivorous Plants,' on 'Cross and Self-Fertilization,' on the 'Different Forms of Flowers,' and on the 'Formation of Vegetable Mould,' should be read as models of sound scientific method, by every one who cares to learn what scientific method is.

There can be little doubt that Mr. Darwin's name will go down in history as that of the greatest scientific inquirer and the most pregnant scientific thinker that has lived since Newton. Since the beginnings of modern learning, probably no single idea has wrought upon the minds of men with such rich and manifold results as the idea of "natural selection"; and it is evident that what we have already seen is but an earnest of vastly more that is to come.

MATERNA AND PATTI.

Frau Materna, the original *Brünnhilde* of the Wagner festival at Bayreuth, arrived at this port on Saturday. It may be considered perhaps a prophetic and certainly a suggestive coincidence that the most gifted interpreter of modern German music should have embarked for this country only a few days after the leading vocalist of the Italian school had left us. Americans will have an opportunity of comparing within a few weeks the vocal styles of the greatest living lyric and the greatest living dramatic soprano. Unfortunately neither of the two will have been heard under the most favorable circumstances, Mme. Patti having appeared only as a concert-singer in costume—since her operatic company was a mere delusion and snare—and Frau Materna, who is almost as great an actress as she is a vocalist, being engaged only for the concerts at the May Festivals in New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago, where, it is true, she will appear amid the most artistic surroundings, but under somewhat unfavorable acoustic conditions. Were operatic affairs in New York on the same plane of excellence as concert matters, both of these great vocalists might have been heard in their proper sphere; but as this is not the case, we must feel grateful for an opportunity of comparing at least their purely vocal endowments and styles. Among other things, the prevalent erroneous opinion will be corrected that the Italian method of singing is the only correct and natural method, and that every serious deviation from it results in a sacrifice of beauty of tone and premature ruin of the voice. For singing with Italian words or without any words at all (*solfeggio*) the Italian method is doubtless preferable to any other. But it is equally certain that for the execution of the dramatic and declamatory music of modern German composers—the songs of Schubert, Schumann, Franz, and the music-dramas of Wagner—a totally different vocal style is essential, which in itself is just as natural and as little injurious to the vocal chords as the Italian style. Frau Materna will show by her interpretation of the Wagnerian selections that have been made for the May-Festival concerts that Wagner's latest vocal style does not consist of a series of jarring, broken intervals, but is flowing, melodious, and highly impressive because it is simply an artistic elaboration of the natural emotional cadences of the human voice in speech.

Opinions, of course, will always differ to some extent as to which of these two styles or schools is the more attractive—whether Mme. Patti or Frau Materna is the high-priest of the true religion. Roughly speaking, musicians have for centuries been divided into two great parties, the lovers of the lyric and the lovers of the dramatic style. To the former a naked melody, with the merest shadow of an harmonic accompaniment, and no special regard for the meaning of the words to which it is set, is the highest type of musical beauty. The other party insists that the melody should only be one (not too tyrannically prominent) part of a complicated harmonic structure, because only harmony, when united with melody, can give full and definite expression to our emotions by means of the alternation of major and minor moods, concords and discords, modulations, and gay or sombre instrumental colors. Of course these remarks refer particularly to operatic music. On the concert stage, or in the drawing-room, lyric music has its proper place, but on the operatic stage it is as inappropriate as lyric poetry is on the dramatic stage. The question why nevertheless lyric melody has so long kept its place on the stage is easy to answer. Beginners in musical education first learn to appreciate melody (or tune) because it is easy to follow, and only later do they begin to understand harmony. In its highest development harmony is simply a *bundle of melodies*, so that in listening to it we may hear three or four melodies at the same time instead of merely one. To unravel these requires a mental effort, and this the fashionable habitués of opera are generally unwilling to make. As a German critic correctly observes, the exclusive devotion of the Italians to solo melody is largely due to their southern mental indolence.

But the Italians themselves have at last become tired of their simple lyric operas, and are importing harmonic, dramatic, and orchestral treasures from Germany by wholesale, as witness Verdi's "Aïda," Boito's "Mefistofele," and the Liszt cultus at Rome. Lyric operas in abundance are still produced in Italy every year by minor composers, but they invariably result in a fiasco. Those who admire the florid singing in which Mme. Patti excels must, therefore, admit that the outlook for their cause is not bright, since the leading Italian composers themselves have ceased to write the old-fashioned ornamental arias, while in other countries the florid style has long since been abandoned and Italian opera become comparatively neglected. At Dresden, for instance, only one Italian opera was sung during the whole month of February. Vienna had a brief season of Italian opera last year, but it did not prove sufficiently remunerative to be repeated this year. At Berlin, an Italian company appeared this winter which was praised by all the critics, but was soon obliged to leave for want of support. In Paris, Meyerbeer and a few French composers occupy the stage; in London, doubts have been expressed whether even a consolidation of the present companies and the presence of several leading *prime donne* would improve the financial situation of the managers; and even in America, where crowds go to see a great vocalist for the same reason that they go to see Jumbo or Oscar Wilde, lyric opera is not a paying business. In a word, Italian opera is dead, and it is time to look about us for a substitute.

It is from this point of view that we have applied the word "prophetic" to the arrival of Frau Materna so soon after the departure of Mme. Patti. In England, where all the critics, liberal and conservative, have already united their voices in a dirge on Italian opera, Carl Rosa has been successful with English opera or German opera in English, and there can be little doubt of a successful issue of the several series of modern German operatic performances which are to be given in London this spring. It is to be hoped, therefore, that New York will in this thing, as in so many others, follow the lead of London, and that an epoch of true art and good music will follow that of virtuosity on our stage. Our terms are carefully chosen. The difference between lyric opera and dramatic opera is precisely the difference between virtuosity and art. The arias of Donizetti, Bellini, and Rossini are, with some admirable exceptions, merely written with the view of giving a singer an opportunity of displaying his or her perfection of vocal technique. They are unhealthy and rank hothouse flowers, reared for the luxurious indulgence of fashionable society, whereas the melodies of Mozart, Gluck, Weber, Wagner, Rubinstein, and, we may add, Verdi and the best of the French composers, have their root in the healthy soil in which the songs and dance-rhythms of the people and the old Italian church music grew.

Nothing could be more amusing, therefore, than the charge of narrow-mindedness and prejudice which is often brought forward against the admirers of the "advanced school." A man can be a perfectly fair and liberal critic and yet refuse to admire that which constantly violates all the laws of æsthetic propriety, as Italian lyric opera does. In fact, it is the duty of a conscientious critic to oppose such an æsthetic monstrosity, to point out to the public that complacent enjoyment of such a nondescript is evidence of an uncultivated taste, and that an artist who is great only in such a sphere is not an artist of the highest rank. This is the case with Mme. Patti. Her repertory, which once embraced over thirty operas, included only one classic opera ("Don Giovanni"), and in that she did not appear to advantage. Even a semi-classic opera like Gounod's "Faust" is beyond her sphere. She is always Mme. Patti, and never succeeds in throwing herself into her part so completely as to identify herself with it. She always compels you to notice the sensuous beauty of her naked voice, and all other considerations regarding the opera must disappear before the tyrannic glory and technical perfection of that voice. This is virtuosity, not art; for art is not selfish. The greater artist is she whose individuality disappears in the work; and this is the case with Materna. Her voice is of great compass, sonorous quality, absolute purity, great flexibility, unequalled power, amazing endurance, and great emotional range and intensity. She could not sing the florid music of Patti any more than Patti could sing her dramatic parts, for the dramatic and lyric styles are never combined in the same person, being mutually exclusive. But she will do what Patti cannot do—make the audience feel that they hear, not Materna, but *Brünnhilde* or *Ortrud* themselves; and this is the perfection of art. In her own sphere Patti is as good as Materna; but that sphere is not so high as Materna's, and therefore Materna is the greater artist of the two. But in justice to Patti, it must be added that she is above most virtuosos of her class in so far as she avoids all display which is not prescribed in her part, such as abnormally sustained high and low notes, interminable trills, arbitrary tempo, and explosive final notes.

THE PROBLEM OF EUROPEAN CONTROL IN EGYPT.

Alexandria, March 29, 1882.

Alexandria during the last week or two has been in a rather abnormal condition of activity—that is, of the sort of superficial activity of which, in the absence of some casual outburst of

antipathy between Jews and Greeks, it is alone capable. The two sons of the Prince of Wales have been visiting Cairo and Upper Egypt, and the ship *Bacchante*, to which they are attached, has been in the Alexandrian harbor, together with its companion ship, the *Iris*. On their passing through the town here on Friday last, the 24th, the Princes gave the prizes at the Athletic Sports.

The state of politics in Egypt is just now so uncertain from day to day, and rumors of the most extreme contingencies succeed one another so rapidly, that the presence of British men-of-war in the harbor is regarded with more than usual complacency. It seems quite an open question with everybody whether there is anything which, with decent regard for truth, can be called a National Party ; and whether, even if there is such a party, the influence of the Army, and especially of Arabi Bey, is not so predominant as to render all mere political influences of insignificant account. I have already, in former letters, had occasion to describe the main streams of influence which are held to be operating here. The issue is, however, gradually narrowing itself to the question whether the Assembly of Notables can and will control the Army, and so prove itself to be a genuine constitutional factor, or whether a military despotism, under whatever specious form, will not carry all before it. The battle has been fought once over the question of the existence of Sherif Pasha's Ministry, which may be said on the whole to have supported in critical moments the cause of true constitutional reform, as opposed to military ascendancy. The battle was lost for the Constitution and gained for the soldiers. The new Government is in every sense a Government of war : the Prime Minister is the late Minister of War ; the new Minister of War is the potent Arabi Bey himself ; and the first principles of the new programme are that "the Budget," which here means the application of the resources of the state to the increase and better pay of the Army, shall be in the hands of the puppets of the Army, that is, the seventy-five members of the Chamber of Notables. As things are at present, the new Constitution excludes from discussion in the Chamber the European debt and all existing international obligations. But this clause in the Constitution, I am told, through the highest European authorities in Cairo, is so unpopular in military quarters that it may not long hold its place.

But even if a new Egyptian Government, or any future Government, hesitates to innovate in a manner which would call forth instant European intervention, the new Budget clause is sufficient of itself to imperil the most salutary of existing Egyptian institutions. The Budget clause has the effect of committing the preparation of the year's financial scheme to a commission formed partly from members of the Chamber and partly from the Ministry of the day. To an American or European eye this seems a very moderate and innocent proposal, and in fact it falls infinitely short of the amount of popular control over the national finances which is enjoyed in every country with a show of constitutional government. The real purport of the change can only be understood by recurring to the facts of Egyptian history during the last eight years. It was by nothing else than by European intervention that first in 1876 and then in 1879 the deplorable condition of Egyptian finance and Egyptian administration in all its departments even began to be relieved. In the course of applying this relief it was found that the national indebtedness, amounting to ninety millions of pounds sterling, was inextricably intertwined with the oppression and inhuman treatment of the population. The same Commission of Inquiry, appointed in 1878, representing all the leading European states, after exploring the innumerable defects in Egyptian finance, as brought about by the reckless prodigality of Ismaïl Pasha, dwelt in their report on the crushing methods of collecting taxes, on the iniquitous system of forced labor, which, as then exercised, was only another name for slavery, and on the hardships resulting from the prevailing mode of military conscription. They summed up the whole by reporting that no efficient remedy could be found for every one of these evils in the aggregate without putting a stop once for all to the irresponsible absolutism of the Khedive. This was the first and essential step, and, indeed, in all countries, this step is the indispensable condition for the establishment of anything like constitutional government. It happens usually that the restriction of monarchical absolutism grows out of the simultaneous and progressive advance of popular institutions. In Egypt, however, there were no materials—and, indeed, are not now—for true representative institutions. The only semblance of such is the Chamber of Notables, a body which was occasionally assembled by Ismaïl himself in his worst days for the purpose of obtaining the personal acquiescence of its members in taxation which mainly affected themselves. They were and are chosen from pashas and rich landed proprietors, usually nominated by Government agents, and with only an outside pretence of electoral forms. In the deeply depressed state of popular knowledge and information, nothing more is at present possible.

The result was that if financial reform meant administrative revolution, and neither the one nor the other could advance a step without Ismaïl's irresponsible despotism being put an end to, some yet untried force must be applied from without. This force has been found hitherto in a series of special institutions in the creation and support of which the English and French Governments have closely coöperated. Such institutions are the European commissions for the management of the public lands or Daïra estates, mortgaged for a certain portion of the national debt. Another institution is the Commission of Liquidation, which is mainly concerned with the more mechanical operations of collecting and receiving the revenue applicable to the payment of the debt, and handing it over to the authorized representatives of the creditors. The most important of these international constitutional checks is what is known as the Control, which, on the appointment of the present Khedive in place of his father in 1879, succeeded to the system of nominating an English and a French member of the Egyptian Ministry. The Controllers, as thus appointed by France and England, on behalf of all the Powers interested, had the right of attending the meetings of the Cabinet, of taking part in all discussions, of receiving formal notice of every administrative act, and of objecting on presumably financial grounds to any measure which might conceivably, in one way or another, affect the revenue. The result of such intermixture in the current administration necessarily was that the Controllers had often much to say on matters which only indirectly were of strictly financial concern. Indeed, of late the Italian organs in this town have made it their main charge against the Controllers, and especially against M. de Blignières, the French Controller, who has just resigned, that they gradually usurped political functions with which they had nothing to do. There is no doubt, too, that it has been found, especially last year, when Baron de Ring represented France as Consul-General, that there was an opening for conflict of views and action between the financial and diplomatic representatives of France or England. It has been fortunate, however, that M. de. Blignières and Sir Auckland Colvin, the English Controller, themselves have not only worked together with conspicuous harmony, but, in concert with Sir Edward Malet, have reduced these hypothetical difficulties to an almost microscopic point. It was said at first that M. de Blignières's successor was to submit himself in all respects to the French Consul-General. This announcement was looked upon with rejoicing here by the European opponents of France and England, as likely to reduce the influence of the French Controller to a cipher and to be the beginning of the end of the Control altogether. But it seems that there was a mistake about this, and that all that was meant was that the new Controller was directed generally to coöperate harmoniously with the diplomatic representative of France. Indeed, it has been properly noticed that it would have been an anomaly for the Controller, who is a paid Egyptian official and servant of the Khedive, to be subject at every moment to a diplomatic agent who represents nothing but his own country.

The real justification of the apparent encroachment of the Controllers on the domain of politics proper is found in the report of the Commission of Inquiry above alluded to. In Egypt more than any other country, except perhaps other parts of the Ottoman Empire, good government and good finance are indissolubly welded together—the usual form of combination, however, being the less happy union of bad government and bad finance. The pressing question now is whether, in a spurious aspiration for that which is as yet impossible, the only chance of the final reconstitution of Egypt shall be abandoned, and all the work of the last four or five years be undone, through the treasonable conspiracy of military adventurers making a disloyal use of the honored title "Nationality"; or whether the influence of Europe will be found strong and wise enough to check what may perhaps prove only a political eccentricity without subjecting the country to foreign domination of the sternest kind. A.

Notes.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, sends us an extraordinarily fine photographic likeness of the poet Longfellow, which we can but prefer to every other presentment of him in his latest aspect that we have seen. It is half life-size, and mounted on a stiff pasteboard panel, with a neat bevel of gilt.

The April *Portfolio* (J. W. Bouton) gives two specimens of the woodcut illustrations for a sumptuous edition of 'Evangeline' just published in England by Cassell & Co. The artist is Mr. F. Dicksee, and the scale of some of his designs requires a full page of the *Portfolio*.

The forthcoming new edition of Mr. T. W. Higginson's 'Young Folks' History of the United States,' now in press, will have an additional chapter, bringing it down to the accession of President Arthur. The proposed uniform edition of the same author's writings will include a revised edition of his 'Epictetus,' which has for ten years been out of print and hard to get.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s announcements embrace Mr. George P. Lathrop's new novel, 'An Echo of Passion' ; the first English translation of Heine's 'Philosophy and Religion in Germany' ; 'Notable Thoughts about Women,' by M. M. Ballou ; a new work on the Gypsies, by Charles G. Leland ; Mr. Henry James, jr.'s 'Roderick Hudson,' with the author's revision ; and new editions of Parton's 'Life of Horace Greeley'

and 'General Butler at New Orleans,' uniform with his 'Life of Voltaire.'

From the same firm we have the prospectus and specimen pages of Professor Francis J. Child's 'English and Scottish Popular Ballads,' already announced by us as begun to be put to press. This work will bring together for the first time something like the complete body of ballads of the countries named in the title, with absolute integrity of text, and with such a collation of independent versions as has never before been undertaken on so large a scale. "Each ballad will have a proper preface, and in the case of those ballads which the English have in common with other nations, an account will be given of related traditions. The work will have a general introduction, full indexes, and a careful glossary." It will be issued by subscription, in eight parts, at five dollars each; and only a thousand copies of this *édition de luxe* will be printed. Professor Child's qualifications for this infinitely laborious and scholarly task it would be superfluous to descant upon. His purpose, steadfastly adhered to for a quarter of a century, at last bears fruit which will do honor to American literature.

Henry Holt & Co. publish immediately 'On Horseback, in the School, and on the Road,' a reprint in one volume of the London editions of Mr. Edward L. Anderson's 'How to Ride' and 'System of School-training for Horses.'

The concluding volume of the coöperative work, 'The Public Service of the State of New York during the Administration of Alonzo B. Cornell,' edited by Dr. Paul B. Chadbourne, and published by J. R. Osgood & Co., with a wealth of heliotype illustration, is nearly ready to appear. In intention this unique composition is what might be called an instantaneous photograph of the machinery of a State government. It is both historical for the grand features, and biographical as regards the personnel of the present administration.

The first volume of the *Century* magazine rejoices in a truly splendid cover of black and old gold, with a decoration outside and in, derived from Mr. Vedder's monthly series of designs, but glorified by Mr. G. F. Babb's decorative genius. It is needless to rehearse the contents of the six months (November, 1881—April, 1882). Of all the portraits—and these include George Eliot, Matthew Arnold, Fortuny, Garfield, etc.—that of Thiers seems to us the most masterful and most memorable.

Mr. Robert Browning's admirers in this country should not rest easy until they procure the 'Bibliography of Robert Browning,' edited by Mr. F. J. Furnivall for the new Browning Society (Trübner & Co.). It opens with a reprint of Browning's introductory essay on Shelley prefixed to Moxon's edition of spurious letters attributed to that poet (1852), and then contains a copious bibliography, with endless footnotes, and an appendix impulsively got together as a guide to the various 'Selections' from Browning's poems, his changes in certain of them, and the critical notices which have appeared from 1833 to date. The "trial list" of these last is defective in American references, in spite of several postscripts. Mr. Furnivall's personality and the characteristics of English hero-worshippers make this volume amusing as well as valuable. The second edition is before us.

A late if not the latest addition to Bohn's Standard Library (London: George Bell & Sons) is the happy thought entitled 'Classic Tales,' and comprising "Rasselas," "The Vicar of Wakefield," "Gulliver's Travels," and the "Sentimental Journey." This reprint, besides the merit of being between a single pair of covers, also possesses that of adherence to the best editions—in general the earliest corrected ones; and it is not expurgated. The print of these 666 pages is surprisingly large and clear. It could be wished that other volumes might illustrate still further the wonderful variety and richness of English eighteenth-century fiction.

The notable increase in the employment of etching as a mode of illustration, in recent years, prepares one for the innovation in the engraved series of portraits which have been a distinguishing feature of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*. The April number contains an etched portrait of the late Samuel Osgood, of this city, with the usual biographical sketch. Lovers of puzzles will find in the same number a test of their acuteness in deciphering a seventeenth-century signature, the name of one of the elder Winthrop's correspondents, and from his endorsement probably Ashby or Ashley, while Colonel Chester and several English experts make it Slainey, Slayney, or Slaney.

Parts 29 and 30 of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas' (B. Westermann & Co.) gather up those parts of the earth which offer the greatest difficulty to cartography, either, as in the case of South America, from a lack of authentic surveys, or, as in the case of Africa, from the incessant additions to our knowledge in consequence of explorations. In both these continents, moreover, disturbances of boundaries by wars have taken place since the last edition. Africa is presented in two maps on the same scale (1:12,500,000), one showing the northeastern portion, together with Arabia; the other, the entire extent south of the equator. Of South America we have Brazil from Bahia to the Uruguay border, and so much of the western coast as embraces all of Peru and Bolivia, and about half of Chili and the Argentine Confederation. In conformity with recent events, Bolivia is shut out from the sea; but Peru retains while yet she may the province of Tarapaca. Several South American ports are delineated in the ocean space of sheet No. 95. The southern sheet of Africa exhibits in a surprising manner the growth of settlement in the land of Livingstone. The two remaining instalments of this atlas are being pushed forward as rapidly as possible.

F. W. Christern has recently received a specimen number of the latest French theatrical serial. It is an intermittent illustrated publication called 'Les Premières Illustrées,' and is to appear shortly after the first performance of every successful play. There are eight pages of text adorned with neat little drawings of the principal scenes and actors, and there is an inserted portrait in heliogravure. The sketches are furnished by M. Paul Destez and the letterpress by M. Raoul Toché. The first number is devoted to "Lili," a three-act vaudeville, in which Mme. Judic plays the chief parts—appearing in the final scenes as her own granddaughter. There is an illustrated cover on which one may recognize the faces of MM. Dumas, Sardou, Sarcey, and J. L. Gérôme.

—The nineteenth volume of Frederick Martin's annual 'Statesman's Year-Book,' for 1882, comes to us from Macmillan & Co. Its title should not cause its general usefulness to be misapprehended. Journalists know the worth of it to them, and every writer or speaker on matters political or politico-economical should have occasion to refer to it. It would be a capital preliminary study for visiting statesmen, say like Mr. Voorhees, before going abroad. Per contra, we find it defective as a guide to Englishmen desiring to come to this country, especially as settlers. In regard to the public lands of the United States, something is said of the mode of survey, of school lands, land offices, land titles, and of land sales, but not a syllable concerning *homestead* lands; yet the sales of public land have long been a bagatelle compared to the amount "homesteaded." During five years ending with 1879 the homestead acreage was 23,000,000, and that sold was but little over 3,500,000. In the year ending June, 1879, the acres sold were 622,573; those taken up either as homesteads or by timber culture (which is a sort of homestead variation) were 8,026,684 acres—thirteenfold more. The silence of the 'Year-Book' in relation to homesteads is the more noticeable because all the facts about them are to be found in books of reference which appear on its own list. If Mr. Martin were a German official, his ignoring half a million American homesteaders would be thought to betray a desire to discourage emigration. As things are, he might excuse himself by telling us that the word "homesteader" is wanting in both Webster and Worcester (though "home-ruler" is found in the latter); and that neither of those lexicographers gives any place to that meaning of the word "homestead" which is predominant in more than half of the United States, and is a genuine and very creditable Americanism.

—Trübner & Co., London, send us the second edition of their important 'Catalogue of Dictionaries and Grammars of the Principal Languages and Dialects of the World.' The original edition appeared ten years ago; the present contains about three times as many titles and pages, and has an index filling more than four octavo pages in triple column, and referring to nearly 3,000 works. The publishers' aim has been to enumerate "approved grammars and dictionaries *that can be obtained without difficulty*," and, in fact, the larger part of these can be found in the stock of the Messrs. Trübner, and procured for the prices affixed. In certain aspects it may be regarded rather as a bookseller's catalogue than as a bibliography, as when we see only the third edition (1859; by error called the second, in the Catalogue) of Bartlett's 'Dictionary of Americanisms' recorded. Here the consulter misses the information that a fourth edition appeared in 1878, and of course can be obtained with even less difficulty. The omission of Prof. Schele de Vere's 'Americanisms,' though the work is not out of print, might be accounted for on the ground that it was not "approved" by the compiler. But we imagine that this epithet is somewhat loosely applied, and it were much to be desired that in a reissue of this catalogue its great and obvious utility to scholars should be enhanced by some indication, however brief, of the relative value of the works named in it. As it is, there is no other criterion except the date and the price. Apropos of dates, it seems odd that two of the late Dr. John Pickering's respectable contributions to American philology, both now out of print, should still be obtainable without difficulty—namely, his 'Vocabulary of Words and Phrases peculiar to the United States' (edition of 1816), and his 'Remarks on the Indian Languages of North America' (1836), in a Leipzig translation—assigned by the editor, by the way, to 1834. The most unaccountable omission that we have observed is that of Worcester under English Dictionaries. Neither is any American English grammar recognized. Otherwise, thanks in some degree to the various Indian dialects, American lexicography cuts as much of a figure as could be expected. Grammar and dictionary together, the range is from Gibbs's 'Chinook Jargon' to Leland's 'English Gypsies and their Language'; or from Haldeman's (not double *n*, as on p. 116) 'Pennsylvania Dutch,' and Zeisberger's 'Language of the Lenni-Lenape,' to Whitney's 'Sanskrit Grammar'; or again, from Matthews's Hidatsa Grammar and Dictionary to March's Anglo-Saxon Grammar, and Cor-

son's 'Handbook,' and Van Name's 'Contributions to Creole Grammar.' Moreover, we suspect that some of the Hawaiian vocabularies and grammars are of American origin.

—In answering Mme. Ragozin's Russian view of the Jewish question, Miss Lazarus, in the May *Century*, seems to have been embarrassed by the very absurdity of her opponent's theory. Her reply, though dwelling on the obvious weaknesses of Mme. Ragozin's representations, is hardly skilful in depriving them of the weight which lies primarily, if not wholly, in their cleverness. Besides this, it would certainly be more profitable to have the debate between two Russians whose acquaintance with the facts was not at second hand. The first instalment of Carlyle's "Reminiscences of my Irish Journey"—drawn up after his return, in October, 1849, from his letters to his wife and other memoranda—is dreary reading: jerky and fragmentary as usual, and characteristic of the British grumbling tourist. His sea-voyage was improved in making caricatures of his fellow-passengers—"and were I a painter, I could draw them," he says. Some portions sound almost like a travesty on Alfred Jingle. Mr. Grant White's "Opera in New York" comes down to Mme. Sontag, and consequently to the year 1854. No one who had the good fortune to see her, will dispute this writer's dictum that "in person she was . . . probably the most lady-like prima donna that ever trod the stage"; nor is the distinction a small one. Mr. Stedman adds one more study of contemporary poets to his growing list, taking Mr. Lowell for his subject, and treating him with the same frankness and tact which have marked the previous essays. We should, for its penetrating judgments, attach more value and importance to the "Fable for Critics" than Mr. Stedman does, but in other respects we have found little ground of difference with him. Mr. Lowell's prose is praised heartily, as it deserves. A little poem, "Estrangement," in three stanzas, and a masterly engraving by Kruell from an exceptionally good portrait, speak for themselves of the absent Minister. The poem needs to be read slowly to take in its elaborate imagery, and we can but think that a faulty punctuation has needlessly obscured the sense of the last stanza.

—The annual stated session of the National Academy of Sciences was held in Washington, commencing on Tuesday, the 18th, and ending on Friday, the 21st, of April. The public meetings took place in the lecture hall of the new National Museum building, the business meetings in an adjoining room. The session opened with the President's, Professor W. B. Rogers, annual address, consisting chiefly of biographical notices of a number of deceased American scientists; after which the regular programme for the day was taken up, papers being read by Messrs. Agassiz, Hunt, Cope, Scudder, and Gill. In business meeting on Wednesday, Mr. Silliman presented, on behalf of a committee, a report on the cultivation of sorghum in this country, highly favorable to the present and future of that industry; and during the public sitting of the same day papers were read by Messrs. Rowland, Draper, Mendenhall, Gibbs, Barker, Scudder, and Riley. In private session during the afternoon of Wednesday the Academy proceeded to the election of new members. Although the membership was only ninety-five, there being thus room for five more without reference to the four-fifths rule, only one person—Professor Ira Remsen, of Johns Hopkins University—received the number of votes requisite to election. An amendment to the constitution was adopted, providing that a candidate for membership to the Academy must be a citizen of the United States. On Thursday and Friday the programme of papers to be read was continued by Messrs. Scudder, Cushing, Wright, Barker, Cope, Peirce, and Langley. The attendance of members was not large, probably not one-third of the Academy being present. Among the social features of the meeting were the reception tendered by the Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, to which the Philosophical, Biological, and Anthropological Societies of Washington were invited to meet the Academy; the reception by the President of the Academy to the members and their families, and the similar one by President Arthur.

—The matter of tests of structural materials, to be made under the direction of the general Government, is acquiring a new interest among engineers and others interested in metallic constructions. In 1875 an act was passed by Congress providing for the appointment of a board to test iron and steel, and appropriating $75,000 for this purpose. Under the charge of this board, a testing machine of a power and accuracy unrivalled by any other machine in the world was constructed, and is now in use at the arsenal at Watertown, Mass. The board, however, has gone out of existence, and the machine is used principally for such tests as private parties desire to have made at their own expense. During the recent meeting of the American Institute of Mining Engineers held in Washington in February last, a special session was devoted to the discussion of iron and steel as structural materials, and the opinion was generally expressed that a new act ought to be passed authorizing the President to appoint a new commission to take up the unfinished work which the old commission laid down, and thus to secure to the engineering profession of the country at large the valuable knowledge which this testing machine can give. The American Society of Civil Engineers has also passed resolutions relating to this subject, and it is expected that further action will be taken at the annual convention of this society, which is to be held in Washington next May. A more important course of investigation, or one more entirely free from anything like official mismanagement, can hardly be found.

—A very curious coalition is taking place in England. Every one knows how shabbily (in their own opinion) the Spiritualists have been treated by the scientific world. Generally men of science have been scornful, and have refused altogether to investigate. When they did investigate, they have cruelly remained unconvinced, with the exception of Prof. Crookes and a few others. It was to be expected, therefore, that when the Anti-Vivisectionists arose to torment the biologists and physiologists, the Spiritualists would lend them a helping hand; and that is what has happened. Mrs. Algernon Kingsford, M.D., has been allowed to deliver her lecture on "Violationism; or, Sorcery in Science," at a regular meeting of the British National Association of Spiritualists. One wonders whether the allies are united only by a common enmity or by that curious bond of sympathy among the isms which has been noticed in this country, and which makes it probable that any person who is (shall we say?) afflicted with one is, or has been, or is to be, addicted to half a dozen others. Things, however, now are not so simple as they were. Formerly there was the man of common-sense, or the man of science, as the case might be, on the one side, and the lover of isms on the other; and the two bodies were perfectly distinct. That of course could not last, for the progress of civilization, we have been told, is the evolution of the complex. At present there is considerable cross-classification. A number of scientists, for example, think that spiritualism is entitled to "respectful consideration"; at the same time they see the necessity of vivisection; so that their organ, the *Journal of Science*, "profoundly regrets" a step that is hostile as much to the biologists friendly to spiritualism as to those who regard it as jugglery and imposture. Probably the *Journal of Science* will have made its plea in vain. Revenge will be too sweet; and we shall see the whole body of Spiritualists joining the ranks of those who are determined that biology, physiology, and medical discovery shall continue to be a pursuit of knowledge under difficulties.

—The *Review of the Far East* (*Revue de l'Extrême Orient*, Paris: Ernest Leroux) starts on its first voyage richly freighted. Though conducted in French, it admits papers in English; and, as we presume, in other languages. It will contain original contributions, translations, and bibliographical notes and news illustrating the ethnology, languages, religion, art, and literature of Asia, especially that portion dominated by Chinese thought. The editor, M. Henri Cordier, has already made his mark by compiling the 'Bibliotheca Sinica,' a bibliographical dictionary of works relating to the Chinese Empire. Throughout, the *Review* bears the marks of skilful editing, notwithstanding the fact that the poorest matter is put at the front. Léon Metchnikoff, who is best known as the author of a catchpenny scrap-book descriptive of Japan, gives a thin paper on Japanese Sex Statistics. In a series, which promises to be very valuable, on the History of Chinese Studies, we find an excellent budget of notes to serve for the biography of the late Archimandrite Palladius, whose death left a gap not easily filled. Besides an outline of his life there is a good list of his published works. The editor furnishes a number of inedited documents illustrating the history of Christianity in China. Mr. Alexander Wylie, the accurate Sinologue whose removal from China sapped the vigor of the *Missionary Recorder* of Shanghae, contributes a translation into English of a Chinese work of the fifth century on the ethnography of China and the surrounding countries—an example which deserves to be imitated. An account of Cambodia follows. In the appendix are notes on manuscripts in European libraries descriptive of the Chinese Empire; a chapter on "The European Press in China"; the text of the treaty between Russia and China; reviews of recent books on countries of the Far East, and the bibliography of the year 1881 on subjects germane to the *Review*; and Notes and Queries. Altogether, the *Revue de l'Extrême Orient* is a valuable thesaurus for that half of the world which cares to know how the other and larger half lives. If we may judge from this number, the new venture is worthy of the hearty support of libraries and scholars in the United States.

—The spectacular sensationalism of Meyerbeer's "L'Africaine" helped that opera to such a great popular success at the "Academy of Music" that the addition to the repertory of another opera by the same composer followed as an inevitable consequence. "Robert le Diable" was produced on the 19th inst. with some of the best vocalists in Mr. Mapleson's company, and before an audience that completely filled the house. Many of the numbers were liberally applauded, and generally with more discrimination than is shown by the fashionable audiences that occupy the house during the regular season. The lion's share of the applause fell to Miss Emma Juch, who was repeatedly and deservedly recalled. She has not heretofore appeared to as great advantage in any rôle as in that of *Isabella*, the nearest approach to it having been her *Marguerite* in "Les Huguenots." As an actress, she still lacks experience, but her voice

has a clear, powerful ringing quality, which, added to its purity of intonation, made it a pleasure to listen to her execution of her difficult part. It is evident that Meyerbeer is Miss Juch's specialty, and not less so that he is not Mme. Minnie Hauk's. Like everything that this clever vocalist undertakes, her *Alice* showed careful study, intelligent conception, and conscientious execution, but lacked the spirit which pervades the work of a musical artist who feels herself in her proper sphere. "In 'Il Crociato' I still counted him among musicians; in 'Robert le Diable' I began to have my doubts; in 'Les Huguenots' I place him at once among Franconi's circus people." When Schumann wrote these well-known lines he was doubtless impelled by disgust at Meyerbeer's growing *Effecthascherei* in his later works, due to the extreme anxiety to tickle and please the popular ear. It would be more correct, perhaps, to say that the finest musical creation of Meyerbeer's is the duet in the fourth act of "Les Huguenots," but that "Robert" has a greater number of beautiful melodies, original harmonies and modulatory phrases, and refined instrumental coloring than any of his other works. With all its claptrap, there is much in this opera that, if well executed, interests even a refined musician.

STILLMAN'S HORSE IN MOTION.

The Horse in Motion, as shown by Instantaneous Photography. With a Study on Animal Mechanics. By J. D. B. Stillman, A.M., M.D. Executed and published under the auspices of Leland Stanford. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1882. 4to, pp. 127, plates cvii.

When Prof. Marey, of the Collège de France, was engaged in his experimental study of the flight of birds, he expressed his desire for the invention of a *fusil photographique*—that is, an instrument which, being pointed at a flying bird, could, on the pulling of a trigger, secure an instantaneous photograph of the moving object. The employment of instantaneous photography, thus suggested, for the study of animal locomotion has within the last five years become an accomplished fact. To Governor Leland Stanford, of California, belongs the credit of initiating this new method of scientific research, and of thus affording additional proof that a princely employment of wealth may be looked for in republics as well as in monarchies.

Of the inadequacy of the methods heretofore employed in the study of animal locomotion the voluminous literature of the subject affords convincing proof. We find, for instance, that almost every conceivable variety of opinion has been entertained in regard to the comparatively simple question of the order in which the feet of a galloping horse strike the ground. The unaided eye cannot appreciate slight differences in time with accuracy sufficient for the solution of this problem; and even when sight is aided by hearing (which, for this purpose, is a much more accurate sense), the results reached do not have that uniformity which might be expected. Thus, of two recent observers who have studied the gallop by attaching bells of different tones to the different feet of the moving horse, one concludes that the leading foot is the first, and the other that it is the last, to leave the ground as the animal rises into the air.

An accurate notation of the paces of the horse was first obtained by Prof. Marey, who published, some eight years ago, the results secured by the employment of the graphic method of registration. This method consisted in the transmission of pneumatic signals from elastic bulbs attached to the shoes of the horse through rubber tubes to a recording apparatus carried in the hand of the rider. The delicate apparatus employed in this research was not, of course, well adapted to registering the violent movements of a horse running at full speed, while it is in the study of precisely this pace that the method of instantaneous photography has led to the most brilliant results. The apparatus employed by Governor Stanford consisted of a battery of twenty-four cameras, arranged one foot apart at the side of a track along which the animal moved. By pressing against and breaking threads stretched across the track, the horse, in passing in front of each camera, closed an electric circuit and liberated the sliding shutter of the instrument. The plates were thus successively exposed at precisely the instant when the image of the animal was formed upon them. The intervals between the successive exposures varied with the speed of the animal, and the duration of each exposure was estimated by Mr. Muybridge, the photographer, at one five-thousandth of a second. The photographs thus obtained represent successive phases in the stride of walking, trotting, running, and leaping horses; while, for the sake of comparison, views of other animals—*e. g.*, the dog, the deer, etc.—are introduced. For the benefit of artists, a large number of views were taken by means of five cameras exposed simultaneously, and directed toward the moving animal from different points.

The heliotype process has been employed in reproducing these photographs, and the volume before us contains such a wealth of illustrations that it may best be described as an atlas of plates with an explanatory text. The literary portion of the work is from the pen of Dr. Stillman, of San Francisco, who has added to the value of the volume by introducing a number of colored lithographs illustrating the muscular anatomy of the horse, and serving to explain the exact mechanism of the movements revealed by the camera. An introductory chapter, in which the author, somewhat unnecessarily, takes occasion to express his disapproval of what he considers the atheistic tendencies of modern science, is followed by a discussion of the general and special anatomy of the horse. This extends over three chapters, in the course of which many special anatomical adaptations of the muscles and joints to the movements required of them are pointed out. The remainder of the work consists of a description of the various gaits, as analyzed by the camera.

The most striking and unexpected results have of course been obtained in the study of the fast gallop or run; for, in the case of the slower gaits, the eye is sufficiently well able to appreciate the successive phases of the movement. The motions of the running horse will be best understood if we consider, in the first place, some of the necessary conditions of quadrupedal locomotion. It is evident that a quadruped moving by successive leaps or bounds may use either the fore or the hind-legs to propel the body through the air. It is also clear that the pair of legs thus used for propulsion will, as the body rises into the air, be directed *backward*, and thus be in a position less favorable to receive the weight of the body when it again reaches the ground. The other pair of legs (*i.e.*, those not used for propulsion) will therefore be the ones on which the animal will naturally alight, and for this purpose they must of course be extended *forward*. From this it follows that when an animal leaves the ground from the hind-legs he will fly through the air with the limbs extended before and behind, and land upon the fore-legs; while if he employs the fore-legs to launch him into the air, he will appear in his flight with the limbs drawn well under the body, and will alight upon the hind-legs. This theoretical consideration is fully confirmed by the camera. The most perfect illustration of it is to be found on plates xviii. and xix., which represent the movements of the running hound. An examination of these figures shows that this animal moves, when at full speed, by a succession of bounds in which he leaves the ground twice in each stride. (The word stride is used by Dr. Stillman "to signify the distance passed over by one foot from the time it leaves the ground until it reaches it again.") In these two bounds the fore and hind-legs act alternately as the propelling power. In rising from the hind-legs, the animal flies through the air with limbs extended before and behind, and alights upon the fore-legs. Rebounding from the fore-legs, he is again launched through the air, but he now flies with the limbs drawn closely under the body, and on coming to the ground alights upon the hind-legs, from which he is again propelled upward to repeat the movement as described.

Now, there are obviously two ways in which a gait of this sort may be reduced to a single bound in each stride. Either the hind-legs may fail to react powerfully enough to lift the animal from the ground before the fore-legs are brought down, or the fore-legs may not propel the animal into the air before the hind-legs have reached the ground. In the first case, the run will be reduced to a single bound, in which the animal, springing from the fore-legs, flies through the air with the legs drawn under the body, and alights upon the hind-legs, while in the second case the run will also be reduced to a single bound, but the animal will now rise from the hind-legs, move through the air with limbs extended, and land upon the fore-legs. The camera shows conclusively that the first case is realized in the run of the horse, while the run of the deer affords an example of the second case. This difference between the running gaits of the horse and deer seems natural when we consider that a spring from the hind-legs is better adapted to carrying an animal over an obstacle, while a spring from the fore-legs serves better for attaining speed on level ground; and here it is interesting to notice that the horse, in leaping a hurdle, adopts for a moment the mode of locomotion of the deer. The necessity of slackening the pace in order to change the gait whenever an obstacle is to be passed, seems to explain why a horse that can outrun a deer on level ground is no match for him in the forest.

For the sake of simplicity, the run has thus far been described as if the two hind-feet, as well as the two fore-feet, acted simultaneously in propelling the body. It is evident, however, that, even when the motion is most rapid, the action of the two hind-feet is separated by a brief, and that of the fore-feet by a rather longer, interval of time. The movement of the running horse may, therefore, be thus described: The bound of the animal through the air is always made with the legs drawn under the body. On approaching the ground, one hind-leg is thrown as far forward as possible, and on this the whole weight of the body is received. Almost immediately afterward the other hind-foot is brought to the ground, to be followed after a short interval by the fore-foot diagonally opposite. Before this is effected, the hind-foot, on which the animal first landed, has been again lifted from the ground, so that for a time the weight is borne on a fore and hind-foot diagonally opposite to each other. Lastly, the other fore-foot is brought to the ground, and from this foot the animal is again launched into the air by the action of the powerful muscles which straighten the shoulder-joint. From this description, or, still better, from an examination of the plates, the inadequacy of the ordinary conception of the gallop is apparent. Worcester, for instance,

defines a gallop as a forward motion "by such leaps that the hind-legs rise before the fore-legs quite reach the ground." The camera has, however, as Dr. Stillman says, "been made to analyze all the paces, and none has been discovered that answers to this definition."

Many of the positions of the running horse, as revealed by the camera, are so unnatural and grotesque in their appearance that it is difficult to believe at first sight that the animal can really assume them. Particularly noticeable is the fact that the conventional position in which artists represent the running horse (viz., flying through the air with outstretched limbs) does not appear in any of the series of photographs; indeed, it is evident from the description of the run above given that it is a position which cannot possibly be assumed. On this text Dr. Stillman indulges in some rather severe criticism of artists generally, maintaining that the revelations of the camera must hereafter be their guides in depicting moving animals, and that pictures of running horses in the conventional position will "be relegated to the museums as examples of old masters, to illustrate the progressive stages in the development of art." He, however, admits, as an excuse for past errors on the part of artists, "that in the gallop the horse always moves his feet alternately, and to the same extent. At the limit of extension there is a change of direction given to them, and their image dwells longer upon the retina, and the impressions are more lasting than of the intermediate and more rapid movements, which the mind is unable to distinguish any more than the order in which they are made." Artists will probably regard this admission not only as an excuse, but as a justification of their course, and, continuing to draw the horse's legs in the position in which they are most distinctly visible, will persist in producing pictures which, though photographically incorrect, are artistically true. Inasmuch, however, as the eye always tends to see that which the mind knows to exist, and as optical illusions are less likely to deceive us when their true character has been discovered, it is very probable that the study of instantaneous photographs will gradually train the eye to recognize in the moving animal positions which the uneducated sense fails to detect. In this way a certain modification of our artistic conceptions may be produced, but the effect can hardly be so immediate or so revolutionary as Dr. Stillman seems to expect.

The mechanical execution of this work is entitled to great praise. The typography and the plates are excellent, but, owing to some strange carelessness, there is, in some cases, a want of correspondence between the letters on the plates and those referring to them in the text; and in one plate the letters are entirely omitted. This circumstance, together with an occasional obscurity of style, renders some of the descriptions of the muscles rather unintelligible to a reader not already possessed of some anatomical knowledge. Notwithstanding these defects, the work must be regarded as the most important recent contribution to our knowledge of animal mechanics; and it is to be hoped that the method, thus shown to be so effective in analyzing quadrupedal locomotion, will be applied to the study of the flight of birds and of the various movements of the human body. It is also very desirable that the method should be extended so as to secure a double series of views representing projections of the body upon two planes at right angles with each other; for in this way alone can the actual movements of the body in space be fully determined. The objection to the method is of course its expense, but, the first experiment having been so triumphantly successful, it is not too much to hope that other men of wealth may be found ready to follow the example so well set by Governor Stanford, of California.

RECENT ENGLISH POETRY.

THERE is just now in England, as in America, a tendency to the production of long poems. Of seven recent English volumes now before us, five are elaborate dramatic or narrative compositions, chiefly in blank verse. What is the fascination of this attempt? The man who never in his life arrested the attention of readers by a poem of ten lines feels yet secure of holding them through five hundred pages. "Sir," said somebody to Dr. Johnson, "when you have talked with my brother for an hour or two, you will find him a very pleasant companion." "Sir," said Dr. Johnson, composedly, "I can wait." Each of these long-range poets hopes to win his readers to a similar endurance, and thus prove to these patient waiters that they are no losers. The very extent of his work seems to increase the chance of some profit to the consumer. Charles Lamb reports that his friend George Dyer bought a tedious epic on the faith that there must be something good in a poem of eight thousand lines; and there are certainly instances to justify such wild expectations. Horne's 'Orion,' the once famous "farthing epic," vindicated this hope, for it afforded the one fresh line—

"'Tis always morning somewhere in the world."

Landor's 'Gebir' yielded out of its seven cantos the oft-quoted question,

"Is this the mighty ocean—is this all?"

Probably, if the truth were told, each bard feels that in the lottery of the muse he will win at least once. If he floats securely down to immortality, a single verse is spar enough to which to cling.

When we come to compare the recent long poems of English and American minor poets, we find that the English are more apt to be smooth and commonplace, while the American are more bold in theme and more original, not to say fantastic, in treatment. The mere fact that the American poems so often relate to one or the other of two very inscrutable subjects—theology and the American Indians—establishes at once a difference between them and their English compeers. The latter usually deal with historical or classical themes, and, as to treatment, they are further distinguished by being very seldom crazy, though they are often flat—which for critical purposes is worse. Perhaps it is that the academic English training still rules over these works; they often seem as smooth, as finished, and as monotonous as if they were so many lines of Greek or Latin poetry composed at Eton. With one exception, the poems before us are thus conventional in treatment; they are "content to dwell in decencies for ever," which, considering the fact that one of them is by Mr. Swinburne, may carry a sense of relief.

One is disposed to retract this last encomium, though, in view of a few pages of Swinburne's 'Mary Stuart: a Tragedy' (New York: R. Worthington)—pages in which the author turns his Scottish Queen into a foul-mouthed scold. But the prevailing fault of the poem is that, not merely in its allusions, but in its execution, it is utterly un-Swinburne-like. The exquisite beauty that marked 'Chastelard,' and that lent a charm to even its cloying descriptions and its quite unquestionable moral; those striking images, and those passionate thrills, and those delicious French and English songs that lay like pressed flowers among the pages—all these have disappeared and have left a monotonous masculine treatment, carrying with it a certain power, but no charm. It is evident that this poet, like certain painters, is to be recorded as having an earlier manner and a later manner; and it is to be hoped, for the sake of good morals, that his readers will never be tempted to wish him back in his unregenerate days.

Mr. Alfred Austin's 'Savonarola: a Tragedy' (London: Macmillan) is a good type of that genus of English poems which we began by describing. Mr. Austin is well known as a clever London journalist; the poem proves him a faithful student of history, and is worth to younger students half a dozen ordinary biographies of Savonarola. All the accessories, all the aspects of local coloring, are thoroughly brought in; one could pass a competitive examination upon the whole period after "getting up" this book only. Yet after all it is a text-book, and not a poem; the reader is never once thrilled or stirred or overjoyed. So far as the appeal to the imagination goes, a single page of 'Romola' outweighs it all. It may be very disadvantageously compared with 'Patrick Hamilton: a Tragedy of the Reformation in Scotland, 1528,' by T. P. Johnston (London and Edinburgh: Blackwood). The Scottish poet has greatly the best of it in freshness of theme; he has a hero of his own in Patrick Hamilton, the brave young pioneer of the Reformation in Scotland, whose name, as the preface tells us, stands first inscribed on the obelisk erected by St. Andrew's Bay, commemorating five brave men who there perished by fire for their faith. There is something really noble and touching in the development of Hamilton's character and fate in this little volume; and the book has that fresh flavor of external nature that is so often to be found in Scottish poetry. There are in it passages of great eloquence and profound feeling, such as the following, for instance:

"Sad, did death call us but to black despair—
To say farewell to earth, and sea, and sky,
And dear, familiar faces that we love;
No gleam of light beyond, nor any hope
Of a new heaven to come and a new earth.
Ye shining planets, that we ne'er should know
Our brothers in yon dwelling—never look
With nearer eyes upon the heart of things.
Still must I think that we shall know more yet,
And see more; that life moves to one great end—
Fulfilment, not frustration, is its goal." (P. 27.)

The little volume is adorned by one or two spirited etchings of Scottish and German scenes; and it closes with a short poem on "Columbus," which, although as good perhaps as Lowell's or Rogers's, is not good enough for its theme. The most striking subjects for art seem commonly to fail of eliciting art; perhaps because they discourage the artist.

'Dorothy: a Country Story in Elegiac Verse' (Boston: Roberts) is intended to be a departure from the recognized English type, and undoubtedly succeeds in being such. It is a protest against æstheticism so vehement that it almost makes æstheticism attractive; it seems almost better to walk down Piccadilly with a poppy or a lily than to devote two hundred pages of "elegiac" verse, and then a dozen pages of indignant prose, to prove that English girls who perform farm-labor have hands like rusty iron. The poem opens with such agreeable freshness, it seems to smack so well of the soil, that it is provoking to have it develop into such a mannerism. It is not pleasant to have one's kindly sympathies all subordinated to what English people would call a *fad*—a whim, namely, a crotchet of the author's mind. His Dorothy soon loses all her simplicity, for she is the exponent of a theory, and must hold up her rough hands obtrusively on every page. In America, where white women rarely do farm-work, and black women have that happy Ethiopian velvetiness of cuticle that saves their hands, even in the roughest labor, from the rusty-iron similitude, the poem loses most of its moral; and in spite of the occasional whiffs of fresh air in the book, we turn back with pleasure to the far more artistic

way in which Clough treated his Scottish peasant scenes in the 'Tober-na-Vuolich.' After all, to create a work of art, one must write without a hobby. The author of this poem is understood to be Mr. A. J. Munby, previously known by a pretty little poem called "Doris," where there is also a shepherdess, who is quite of the conventional description and has not the rough hands; unless perhaps the line—

"She touched my shoulder with fearful finger"—

be an amusing premonition of them.

A bit of rough-cast like 'Dorothy' is at any rate a good preparation for an essentially ideal work like 'Pygmalion,' by Thomas Woolner (London: Macmillan). The poet is undoubtedly the well-known sculptor of that name, who was associated with Rossetti in the early pre-Raphaelite movement, and now takes up the lyre just as his friend has laid it down. Here we have something of the Keats flavor, and which even fulfils in a degree the modest ideal after which Keats sighed, as appears by his early letters. "I have heard Hunt say, and may be asked, 'Why endeavor after a long poem?' To which I should answer: 'Do not the lovers of poetry like to have a little region to wander in, where they may pick and choose, . . . which may be food for a week's stroll in the summer?'" This is what 'Pygmalion' certainly offers, and an attractive little region it is, with no great heights or depths, to be sure, but with many bosky by-ways for the summer stroll. The treatment of the legend is not wholly new, for the solution is simply that Pygmalion weds his model; but this easy rendering is set about with so many statuesque maidens and heroic youths as to seem very Greek and satisfying. The author is best when he is most himself; but there is in the ninth book a strange slipping aside into Browningisms, such as—

"Roundness remarked it was not well to rail
Too boldly at the Best: scoffs might by chance
Bounce to their ears; they might think well to shift
Their purchases, and other purses fill;
A change too horrible! Let well alone!" (P. 132.)

This reads like an intentional parody; but the general tone of the book is even and sustained, though rising too much into a tone of realistic tragedy before the end. Its art-maxims are good, and even its political philosophy, as in lines like these (spoken by the hero to his friend, who is for suppressing all civil commotions in soldier fashion):

"But steel, O friend! will scarce suppress
A rising tide, or backward push the sun
Because, forsooth, his beams too fiercely burn!
Against the tide we must protect our shores
By driven piles, and stones in sloping walls,
And quays of solid strength. Then tides become
The servants of our greatness, bearing ships
Exultingly to conquest, or, in peace,
Enriching us by gathered merchandise.
We must not throw sharp sand against the wind.
No; we must strive to guide, not stay, this growth."
(P. 89.)

Of shorter poems, we should certainly mention those of Mr. Francis Bennoch, 'Poems, Lyrics, Songs, and Sonnets' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). This volume is the authorized American edition of the works of one better known as the faithful friend of Hawthorne than through any present or probable renown of his verses; and his preface is perhaps the most interesting part of the book. He gives here the history of his poetic life, from the time when, as he says:

"As the son of a Scottish farmer, it was my delight, if not my duty, to assist the shepherd and servants for a long night in a terrible storm, the object being to keep the sheep on the windward side of the fold, lest, if left on the leeward side for shelter, they should be smothered in the drift and lost."

This little bit of prose description is more graphic and speaks more to the imagination than any of the poems in this thick volume; and it reminds us, for the thousandth time, how often men's unconscious work is their best. Of Hawthorne Mr. Bennoch says, with pardonable self-consciousness: "My house was as his own home, and to me more than to any living man was disclosed the inner working of his marvellous genius." The book has a portrait of Mr. Bennoch, and the American edition is inscribed to the memory of Hawthorne and of Fields.

Mrs. Pfeiffer, author of 'Under the Aspens: Lyrical and Dramatic' (London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.), is not the lady who carried that name to all parts of the world as a traveller, thirty years ago; her portrait at the beginning of the book would make that charge an anachronism. But she has carried her literary wanderings into many domains, and has published five previous volumes, all duly advertised, in English fashion, at the end of this volume, with copious puffs from the newspapers, including some kind words from Longfellow, Lowell, and Holmes. Poets are so apt to be generous to their younger sisters of the lyre, that these compliments must not be too closely construed. All that we can honestly say is, that Mrs. Pfeiffer seems a worthy follower in the school of Mrs. Hemans and Mrs. Norton—with feelings as facile and verse as flowing as theirs, but with less of melody than the one and less of hearty human feeling than the other. In the quality of vigor, for some reason or other, our American "poetesses" seem just now to take the lead; nor do they all suffer, as Mrs. Pfeiffer suffers, from too easy a fluency of honeyed words. Their number, too, is steadily increasing and their work improving, whereas Jean Ingelow and Christina Rossetti seem to have no spiritual successors of like promise.

THE WAR ON THE PACIFIC.

Histoire de la Guerre du Pacifique. Par Diego Barras Arana. 2 vols. Paris: J. Dumaine. 1882.

THE book before us is, we believe, the only complete history yet published of the war between Chili and Peru. Several reports of a technical, naval character were made by the officers of the United States squadron on the South Pacific Coast concerning the naval actions of the war, and they were made public about two years since. Lieut. Mason, who was then serving in the same squadron, has also contributed two papers on the war to the *United Service Magazine*. With these exceptions, we believe, the only accounts that have hitherto been made public are those which have been given in the current news of the daily papers. Señor Arana's history is from the Chilian standpoint, and it was not to be expected that it should be free from national prejudice; but it is clearly written, is free from bombast, is accompanied with a great number of maps which are in every way admirable, and is worthy of careful study.

Even after making all due allowance for partiality, it is evident from this book that the Chilians have gained their great victory over the Peruvians because they were the superior people: superior in intelligence, in industry, and in political stability. In discussing at length the causes of the war and the relative conditions of Chili, Peru, and Bolivia, numerous citations are made from the works of German, French, and English travellers and consuls in support of this claim to superiority; but no one of them is so convincing as the bare fact that, while her rivals have had constant revolutions, in Chili there has been no revolution in the past fifty years. It is only a minority of the governments of the world that can say as much. In Chili there were but four Presidents from 1831 to 1871, each being reëlected for a second term of five years; from 1871 to 1881 there were two Presidents, reëlection being prohibited. Every one of these men succeeded to his office with an unquestioned title. Among the many causes which have contributed to Chilian sobriety and industry, probably none have been more potent than that mentioned by Mr. Rumbold, for many years British Minister Resident at Santiago—viz., "the almost complete absence of those accidental sources of wealth which Providence has lavished so abundantly on some of the neighboring states, and the consequent necessity of resorting to agricultural labor, which is quickly rewarded by a generous soil.' As one result of this difference between the habits of a mining and an agricultural community, we find that at the beginning of the war Peru had a debt of $213,000,000 ($78 per capita), while Chili owed but $50,000,000 ($25 per capita).

The war found its origin, as is well known, in a dispute concerning boundary lines, complicated and made prominent by the discovery of the valuable nitrates. When the South American republics achieved their independence, it was agreed that their boundaries should be the same as those which had existed when they were provinces of Spain. This principle of their public law was known as the *uti possidetis* of 1810, that being the last year in which Spain had exercised unquestioned jurisdiction. It was supposed that this principle would afford an easy settlement of all boundary questions, but in fact it led to endless disputes on account of the vagueness of definition of the provinces. One of these disputes was in regard to the boundary between Chili and Bolivia in the desert of Atacama. Chili claimed, and until 1842 it was not disputed, that her territory extended to the twenty-third parallel of latitude. The Chilians, however, having discovered not only copper mines, but guano and saltpetre in this desert, Bolivia claimed that Chilian territory extended no further than the twenty-fourth parallel. During the fourteen years prior to 1879 the dispute continued without intermission, and more than once reached the verge of war. It would appear that the Chilian capital already invested in the disputed territory made Chili reluctant to proceed to extremities in support of her claims. In 1866 she entered into a treaty recognizing the twenty-fourth parallel as the boundary, but stipulating that the territory between the twenty-third and twenty-fifth degrees should be a sort of joint property, the revenues of which should be divided between the two countries. No portion of this revenue was ever received by Chili. In 1874 another treaty was made, in which all the concessions were on the side of Chili, who renounced all claim to revenues due under the treaty of 1866 and all joint ownership of territory, on condition only that during the space of twenty-five years no increase should be made in export duties or other contributions levied on Chilian capital and subjects engaged in the desert of Atacama. In 1878 the Government of the day in Bolivia repudiated the acts and treaties of its predecessors, and levied a new export duty on the nitrates, and when the Chilian company demurred to paying it, the Bolivian Government ordered its property (valued at $6,000,000) to be sold at auction. On the day fixed for the sale (February 14, 1879) 500 Chilian soldiers landed at Antofagasta to prevent it, and war was begun.

In all these proceedings Peru had openly taken no part, although it was suspected that she was secretly advising Bolivia in her course. Peru had succeeded, by a series of decrees of a most oppressive nature, in confiscating the Chilian nitrate property within her own province of Tarapaca, but had committed no overt act of hostility. When the war broke out, however, between Chili and Bolivia, it was discovered that a secret treaty of offensive and defensive alliance had existed for nearly six years between Peru

and Bolivia. This treaty was avowed by Peru, whereupon Chili forthwith declared war, on April 6, 1879.

A war between two countries having each a seacoast of 1,500 miles and an impassable range of mountains distant but 100 miles from the coast, and separated from it by sandy deserts where even water must be carried by an army—such a war must necessarily be of a peculiar and exceptional character. The base of operations and the means of transportation must always be by the sea, and for this the command of the sea is an indispensable prerequisite. The operations of the Chilians showed a very clear conception of these conditions, and during the first six months of the war their efforts were confined to the organization of their army and to a struggle for the naval supremacy. The Peruvians had undoubtedly the stronger navy; it consisted of four ironclads, two wooden corvettes, and a dozen smaller vessels—the entire armament being sixty-six guns. The ironclads were a frigate (*Independencia*), mounting twenty-two guns; a turreted ram (*Huascar*), with five guns; and two American monitors. The Chilian navy contained two ironclads, two wooden corvettes, and six smaller vessels, the number of guns being forty-four. The ironclads were English-built frigates (*Blanco Encalada* and *Almirante Cochrane*), mounting six guns each. The fighting strength of Peru was therefore about double that of Chili. In the first six months of the war this relative strength was exactly reversed, in two decisive battles, besides the ordinary skirmishes incident to the blockade. In the first of these battles, which took place off Iquique on May 21, the Peruvians had their two principal ironclads, and the Chilians two wooden vessels of less than 1,000 tons each. One of these vessels was sunk, and the greater part of her crew destroyed by the Peruvians, but the other, while being pursued by the *Independencia*, ran over a rocky shoal on which the larger vessel struck, and was completely lost. The second battle occurred on October 8, near Cape Angamos. It was between the *Huascar* and the *Cochrane*, assisted at the close of the action by the *Blanco*. In this battle, which lasted an hour and a half, Admiral Grau, commanding the *Huascar*, and sixty men of his crew were killed, and his vessel was captured. The result of these two battles left the Peruvians with no ironclads except the two monitors, which could not be trusted at sea without convoys, and the Chilians with three powerful ironclads, which were soon placed in excellent order. The control of the sea being thus secured, the invasion of Peru was at once begun.

The allied army of Peru and Bolivia, numbering about 20,000 men, then occupied the southern provinces of Peru, the principal seaports of which are Iquique, Pisagua, and Arica. The Chilians determined to divide the allies by striking their line in the centre at Pisagua; and a force of about 10,000 men of the army organized at Antofagasta was carried in transports and effected a landing at Pisagua on November 2. Then they penetrated to the interior and fought a battle at Dolores, in which the allies were defeated, and the Bolivians dispersed into the mountains. A week later another battle was fought with the Peruvians at Tarapaca, in which neither side could claim a victory, but which was followed by the hasty retreat of the Peruvians to the north. The result of this short campaign, in which the Chilians lost about 1,000 men, was to place the entire province of Tarapaca in their hands. It was followed by revolutions in Peru and Bolivia, and the instalment of Pierola as Peruvian Dictator.

Early in the year 1880 a new campaign was projected. The allies had a force of about 10,000 men at Tacna, and it was determined to land an army on the north of them, so as to cut off all retreat to Peru and force a decisive battle. The Chilian army, numbering about 14,000 men, was reëmbarked, landed about sixty miles north of Tacna, and, after some preliminary skirmishes, marched across the desert against the allies. A very severe battle was fought at Tacna on May 26, in which the Chilians lost one-fourth, and the allies three-fourths, of their numbers. The Chilians then turned to the neighboring town of Arica, which they carried in open assault on June 7, the greater part of the defenders losing their lives.

The first two campaigns had therefore given Chili the undisputed possession of the entire seacoast as far as the eighteenth parallel; had permanently dispersed the Bolivians, and inflicted a loss of over 10,000 men on the Peruvians; had destroyed one, and captured two, of the enemy's vessels; and had blockaded his principal port of Callao. Nothing now remained but to attack the enemy's capital. This, however, required a reorganization and an increase of their army; and while this was in progress two important events took place. In September an expedition was fitted out, under Admiral Lynch, comprising 2,600 men, including cavalry and artillery; they were embarked on two transports, escorted by two vessels of war, and during eight weeks this force roved up and down the entire coast of Peru, landing here and there to levy contributions of over $150,000 in hard money, destroying a vast amount of property, and capturing from a Panama steamer $7,000,000 of paper money on its way to Peru, with which the Chilians afterward paid a large portion of their expenses. In October the neutral governments offered their good offices for peace, and a conference took place on board the United States flagship in the bay of Arica. The Chilians offered the same terms which they now propose—viz., the cession of Tarapaca and Atacama, the payment of an indemnity of $20,000,000, and the occupation of Tacna and Arica until the indemnity was paid. The terms were rejected, and the war went on.

The expedition against Lima was organized as promptly as possible, and in the latter part of December the Chilian army of 26,500 men was disembarked near that place. Two severe battles were fought at Chorillos and Miraflores, on January 13 and 15, 1881, in which the Peruvians were defeated and dispersed, with a loss of more than half their force. The Chilians entered Lima on January 18, Pierola taking refuge in the mountains, and a provisional government being formed under Calderon.

With these events Señor Arana's history ends. It shows plainly that Chili has fairly achieved her conquest by means of serious work against people whose chief reliance seems to have been upon proclamations and threats, and who have wasted their strength in internal commotions at a time when every effort was needed to repel a foreign enemy. What terms policy and prudence, as well as her own sacrifices, require Chili to dictate to her conquered foes, it is for her to determine. There was little of novelty or interest in the military operations: the distances and the difficulties of the country were great and the armies were small. The Peruvian army at Lima is described by Lieut. Mason as worse than "the worst militia division in the worst militia days in the most peaceable part of our country." The Chilian army was composed of better material, and was fairly organized and equipped, but doubtless was far below the standard of regular troops in Europe or of our own volunteers of 1863–65. It was almost wholly raised during the progress of the war. The naval operations were interesting as testing the powers of the smaller class of ironclads, but the character of the officers and men on both sides was not such as to warrant any conclusions applicable to the navies of more highly organized powers.

Familiar Allusions: A Handbook of Miscellaneous Information. Begun by William A. Wheeler. Completed and edited by Charles G. Wheeler. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1882.

Words, Facts, and Phrases: A Dictionary of Curious, Quaint, and Out-of-the-Way Matter. By Eliezer Edwards. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

'Familiar Allusions,' of which the title has not been very happily chosen, though it might be hard to find a better, is the second posthumous work of the industrious author of the 'Dictionary of the Noted Names of Fiction.' His 'Who Wrote It?' had a very definite aim and scope. The present dictionary deals liberally with more or less famous places, streets, inns, churches, and other buildings, pictures, clubs, ships, trees, natural curiosities, etc., etc. A random selection will best show the range of it: Brook Farm, Charter Oak, Coliseum (Rome and Boston), Crepuscolo (Michael Angelo's statue), Ehrenbreitstein, Elgin Marbles, Five Points, Great Eastern, Great Peter (bell, at Exeter and York), Kremlin, Lear (West's), Leicester Square, Liber Studiorum, Mammoth Cave, Massachusetts Avenue (Washington), Mermaid Tavern, Merry Mount, Meta Sudans, Niagara (Church's), Père-la-Chaise, Piazzas (in great number), St. John Lateran and a very convenient lot of "Saints," Tarpeian Rock, Table Rock, Thames Embankment, Washington (a number of titles), and so forth. A large proportion of these have pertinent literary quotations appended to them.

As will be seen, the editor's intent to supply information which cannot be found in the common dictionary, or often in any dictionary, has been carried out within the limits which he more or less precisely set himself. It would be too much to expect entire consistency or perfect proportion. Telegraph Hill in San Francisco is unquestionably a much finer thing in nature than Murray Hill, New York; but as a "familiar allusion" (now, to be sure, in its decline) the latter outranks the former, and yet goes unnoticed, while room is found even for the Terrace in Central Park. Beacon Hill is recognized, and so is Beacon Street, but without any hint of the social significance of one-half the familiar allusions to this quarter of Boston. Hotels come within the editor's scheme, but the old, familiar Astor House is neglected; Delmonico's we find, but not Parker's. The Boston Somerset Club is not now so widely known or spoken of as its recent rival, St. Botolph's—a name which occurs in connection with the celebrated English church. Battles are sometimes in order—witness Cold Harbor and Five Forks. But where is Bull Run, to mention no others? Among the great streets of the world we miss, to match the Unter den Linden and the Max-Joseph-Platz, the Ring-Strasse of Vienna. An exception to the rule that names appropriate to the gazetteer, such as names of cities, are avoided, might have been made in favor of Canossa, for the sake of Bismarck's familiar allusion.

An unusual concession is made to consulters of this dictionary by such an alphabetical arrangement as Albert Dürer, Beatrice Cenci, Benjamin West, Death of Wolfe, Madame Tussaud (with cross-references from Dürer, Cenci, West, Wolfe, and Tussaud, respectively), Arsenal of Venice (no cross-reference), etc.; yet Bellini, Giovanni—not Giovanni Bellini. Running through the alphabet, we note also Alte Markt for Alt-Markt; Beatrice

Cenci—no allusion to the fact that the so-called portrait is neither by Guido nor, probably, of her (see the *Nation*, vol. xxx., 387); Bed of Justice — French *parlement* is mistranslated "parliament" in the modern sense (*cf.* Parliament House); Coppet "*now* belongs to Mme. de Staël's son-in-law, the Duc de Broglie," whereas this Broglie died in 1870, nor did Coppet ever belong to him; Élysée—no mention of its being the official residence of the Presidents of the Republic; Fernay (*sic*) "was built by Voltaire," but such was not the case; Hollenthal; Iron Crown—said to be still in Vienna; Jarvis Gallery; Kaiserstuhl — mistranslated "Cæsar's Seat"; Königgrätz-Strasse for Königgrätzer; Palais Bourbon—cross-reference to Palais du Corps Législatif, whereas the old name, which had been in disuse from 1852 to 1870, was restored in 1871; Palais Royal "is now used as a *royal* residence"; Parc aux Cerfs—innocently and literally described as "a park or preserve at Versailles, France"; Porta Westphalica—in "the mountain range called the Wiehen- [for Weser-] gebirge"; Quirinal, since 1870 the residence of the royal family, is called "the palace of the Pope"; Spielberg—"now a prison," but no longer so; Star and Garter—"an old tavern in Pall Mall," illustrated by a quotation from Thackeray having reference to the Star and Garter at Richmond; Tell's Chapel—with full credence in the Tell myth. As will have been remarked, many of these errors show that the late Mr. Wheeler's occupation or failing strength, or both, prevented him from giving any attention to this work after 1870—a fact which the present editor has not duly kept in mind. 'Familiar Allusions' is sufficiently trustworthy, however, to make it a decided acquisition among our minor books of reference, and may be easily improved in a second edition.

We shall not pay Mr. Edwards's dictionary the compliment of so minute an examination. It is in effect a scrap-book of notes and queries, and, indeed, under Newspapers in America, the entire article consists of a labelled extract from the London *Notes and Queries*. The province of Worcester and Webster is freely invaded—*e. g.*, Epilogue, Epithet, Optimist, etc.; not seldom Mr. Wheeler's lines are crossed—*e. g.*, Colosseum, Covent Garden, Seven Dials; Americanisms are recorded—*e. g.*, Sling and Smart Chance (it should be stated that this compilation is a foreign one)—and no discoverable principle of inclusion or exclusion is observed. Still, this work, too, would have its uses if it could reasonably be depended on, but authorities are rarely given, or are not of the best. In etymologies, particularly, Mr. Edwards is both weak and reckless. He denies that *couple* can be used of two objects not yoked or bound together; says, under Embowel, that disembowel means the same thing, "notwithstanding its negative prefix," as if *dis-* had only a negative function; makes *mammoth* "probably a corruption of Behemoth," when the most that can be said is that it comes to us by way of the Russian and Tatar; and follows an obsolete and palpably absurd explanation (Trench's) of the *mid-* in midwife. We cannot think it desirable that such medleys as this of 'Words, Facts, and Phrases,' even if better done, should be multiplied.

Opium-Smoking. By H. H. Kane, M.D. New York: Putnams. 1882. 18mo.

Opium-eating is an old and considerably-diffused habit in this country. Opium-smoking, on the other hand, is a novelty of very recent introduction; but the vice, or the accomplishment, is represented as rapidly spreading. The statistics upon this point are curiously definite. In the little book before us, the person is named who is reputed to have been the first American opium-smoker, "a sporting character named Clendennyn; this was in California, in 1868. The second, induced by the first, smoked in 1871. The practice spread rapidly until 1875, at which time the authorities, finding that many women and young girls, as also young men of respectable family, were induced to visit the dens, where they were ruined morally and otherwise, a city ordinance was passed forbidding the practice, under penalty of a heavy fine or imprisonment. Many arrests were made, and the punishment was prompt and thorough." The practice, however, spread eastward like an epidemic. In Virginia City, Nevada, it appeared among Americans in 1876, and was soon made a penitentiary offence. Had it not been for this heroic treatment, writes a local physician, "I am satisfied that the habit would have extended into the higher classes." Truckee, Carson, Reno, and other towns along the Pacific Railroad quickly fell into line. During the same year Americans in Chicago, St. Louis, and New Orleans began to smoke opium; and the first "opium-joint" or "smoking-den" for American customers was opened early in 1877.

It need not be said that the Chinese in our large cities have long had their opium-houses; Dr. Kane refers to what he calls a "carelessly-written and highly-colored description" of the Chinese dens in New York, published in *Scribner's Monthly* for July, 1880. "Joints" for the newly-developed American opium-smoker now exist not only in the Chinese quarter (Mott Street), but also in several up-town quarters. One of them, it seems, is kept by American women. This account of the spread of the practice is confirmed by the increasing importation of the drug in the particular form of smoking-opium. Of this (not a pound of which is used for medicine), 53,189 pounds were consumed in the United States in the fiscal year 1876, and 77,196 pounds in 1880, under a duty of $6 per pound; the values for the respective years being $577,288 and $773,796. As the Chinese population has remained nearly stationary since 1876, this increase is attributable to American smokers of opium. These are now estimated at 6,000 or more, and their average individual consumption at 100 grains per day.

This quantity seems enormous; but the fact is that to produce a given degree of narcotism the opium-smoker's dose must be several times greater than the opium-eater's. The contact of the narcotized smoke (when breathed into the lungs) with the absorbing pulmonary tissues is brief, and much of the narcotic principle is carried away with the expired smoke, while the "residual air" of the lungs forms an obstacle to the complete interpenetration of the tissues. Some 33 per cent. of the opium, again, is converted into an ash which is rich in morphia, six grains of it, administered hypodermically, being enough to paralyze a rabbit. The average consumption of the Chinese smoker is estimated by Sir Rutherford Alcock at one mace, or sixty grains, daily. The number of opium-smokers in China has been the subject of careful inquiry, but with greatly differing conclusions. It is probably from 3,000,000 to 6,000,000—one or two per cent., that is to say, of a population that exceeds 300,000,000. Inspector-General Hart, of Shanghai, says: "There is a deeply-rooted conviction in the Chinese mind that opium does unutterable harm to the country." There is a saying among the Chinese to this effect: "During the opium-war the English gave us balls of iron, and after the war balls of opium." In 1869, Bishop Shereshevsky was driven out of the capital of Honan province by a mob which shouted: "You burned our palace; you killed our Emperor; you sell poison to the people; and now you come to teach us virtue!"

Dr. Kane's summary of the effects of opium-smoking contrasts sharply in some points with the more familiar phenomena presented by the opium-eater and the victim of alcoholism. On the one hand, the opium-smoker suffers the most, both financially and morally: a great part of his time is spent at the "joint," where it seems a certain placid good-fellowship prevails; but his mind becomes lethargic, and both business and family cares are soon abandoned, while the cost of the large doses required is very considerable. No habit tends more surely to the destruction of female virtue, the drug acting, until tolerance of its effects is established, as an aphrodisiac. On the other hand, the opium-smoker is not so completely unfitted for work as the drunkard, and organic lesions rarely occur, though the constitutional disturbances are considerable; he is not violent, nor does he disgrace himself in public, and the opium-smoking habit can be cured with comparative painlessness and rapidity. The treatment consists in the use of capsicum, digitalis, and tincture of cannabis indica. Dr. Kane experimented upon himself at some length, having purchased a complete smoker's "lay out" or equipment, and his account of the etiology of opium-smoking, though brief, is an addition to our knowledge of the subject.

Money-Making for Ladies. By Ella Rodman Church. New York: Harper & Bros.

This book is not worth the handsome dress the publishers have given it. It is a silly little book, but unfortunately its power to do harm is in inverse proportion to its merit. It repeats the well-known catalogue of employments for women, and actually the only new suggestion in the list is the netting of silk hammocks for dolls. Such loose statements as the following prove its worthlessness as a practical guide: "Strawberries have been sold the first of April at five dollars a quart." This year they were plentiful at a dollar. "Copying for lawyers" is "very dirty, tiresome work, and poorly paid. Three cents for every hundred words is an exceptional rate, as it is oftener less." On the contrary, six cents is no more than the average, and eight cents is not an uncommon price for choice work. But the book goes from bad to worse, when advice is in question. "Within the last few years, when so many non-toilers have been compelled to consider more or less the subject of money-making, the discovery has been very generally made that literary work is the most agreeable and remunerative of the various occupations suitable for a lady." "Fiction is always a wide field for woman. It requires less time, less study, and less money." "So little outlay is required for literary work—pen, ink, and paper, and a few postage-stamps constituting the capital." In such nonsense are the seeds of unlimited mischief. It can only lead to wasted time, disappointed hope, and, at best or at worst, to gratified vanity in the dubious success of adding to the pile of trash from the cheap press.

Our gravest objection, however, is against the whole tone and motive of the book. There is not, there cannot be, any money-making for ladies in any distinctive sense. Work is work, of all kinds, of all people, and the laborer is worthy of his hire. Any good worker of high degree would scorn the presumption that her work differed from Bridget's because she herself was a *lady*. So illogical is much of the talk on this subject that the same breath that insists there shall be no difference between the work of men and women will blandly assert, as in this book, that such and such "is quite out of the question for a lady," or "teaching is one of the few

means of money-making in which a lady may openly engage without compromising her social standing." This brings us to the motive of the book—not an implied one, but most frankly stated. The distinction is not drawn between women and ladies, but between persons who devote themselves to a profession or trade thoroughly and perseveringly, and those who catch up anything which can be quickly learned and lightly used for the earning of money. The money—and here is the evil of the book—is wanted for finery and for pleasure. The introduction says: "What shall Isolte of the white hands do? Her case is undoubtedly hard—she is totally destitute of a new silk-dress, the means to purchase Christmas presents, and various other comforts and belongings of civilized life." Here is the beginning of "an account of actual experience to encourage the uninitiated": "Miss G— was a pretty, attractive girl, not at all accustomed to roughing it; but she found herself all at once most unpleasantly scant of money, and with an inconvenient fondness for the velvet and roses of life. Being enterprising, and having no guardians to restrain her," etc., etc.—on to her success as a book-agent.

We submit that *any* work from such motives not only "compromises social standing," but lowers the moral nature. The scale may be a very long one, and Isolte may be at the head of it; but lower down are the crowds of girls who flock to the shops and work-rooms of the cities from the very same motives of love of dress and dainties; and beneath, there are yet deeper, unspoken depths.

Studies in English History. By James Gairdner, editor of 'The Parton Letters,' and James Spedding, editor of 'Letters and Life of Lord Bacon.' Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1881. 8vo, pp. 324.

This volume, edited by Mr. Gairdner, contains two articles by the late Mr. Spedding, which, shortly before his death, he had agreed to publish in a volume of joint essays. Growing directly out of his studies upon Lord Bacon, and being distinctly of an historical character, they had not been included in the volume of 'Essays, Literary, Political, and Philosophical.' These two papers are the longest in the volume. The longest, of seventy pages, is the "Review of the evidence respecting the conduct of James I. in the case of Sir Thomas Overbury." *Causes célèbres* always form fascinating reading, from the element of mystery that attaches to them, and the ingenuity and intellectual grasp displayed in their investigation; and the murder of Sir Thomas Overbury has cast almost as dark a shadow upon the character of James I. as that of Darnley upon the character of his mother. Mr. Spedding's paper is devoted to examining the relation of James to this case in the light of certain newly-discovered evidence. He remarks (p. 177) that the evidence does not affect the case against the Earl of Somerset, which at the time "was hunted out with the greatest diligence, studied and sifted with the greatest care, and set forth with the greatest skill and clearness"; nor is it "likely that any new evidence will be discovered by which the aspect of his case will be materially altered. Not so with regard to the charges against the King—charges not only not sifted by judicial process at the time, but not made or thought of till long after the time when any sifting was possible." The case against the King consists, first, in the fact that Somerset's trial came just at the time that Villiers was rising to the position of favorite, so that the King has been suspected of "seeking a pretext to get rid of his old favorite"; and, secondly, in a threat made by Somerset, that he would divulge some secret discreditable to the King, which has been supposed to be the cause of the pardon extended to Somerset and his wife after conviction. The new evidence—part of it discovered some years ago, but "the true bearing of which upon these questions does not appear to have been understood"—is reviewed and examined by Mr. Spedding in a very lucid manner; and he appears to be wholly justified in a conclusion favorable to the King. The correspondence examined in this paper witnesses, not to a cooling of affection on the King's part before the Overbury affair, but to an affection "painfully alive, passionately loyal, bitterly resenting the inadequacy of the affection with which it is requited, and earnestly desiring to be restored to its former condition" (p. 187). And for the other and more damaging charge, "there is not a single movement, from the beginning to the end, such as you would have expected from him had he been acting under a guilty consciousness that he was in Somerset's power" (p. 235)—"if you suppose him guilty, it is impossible to explain the facts."

Mr. Spedding's other paper is entitled "Negotiations with Spain in the fifteenth century—Katharine of Arragon's first marriage," to which Mr. Gairdner's paper upon "Katharine of Arragon's second marriage" is a sort of sequel. Both papers originally appeared in *Fraser's Magazine*. The twelve years of the negotiations described by Mr. Spedding (from 1489 to 1501) have all the interest of a game for high stakes between two accomplished gamblers, in which Henry fairly held his own against the most astute King in Christendom. The events described in Mr. Gairdner's article possess more human interest, which is centred about the poor girl left a widow in a strange land, neglected alike by her father—who no doubt "would have been happy . . . if Katharine could have been relieved without any sacrifice on his own part"—and her father-in-law, who nevertheless showed a certain compassion for her deserted situation. Of Henry's conscientious scruples in the matter, Mr. Gairdner says: "It was no high question of what was best and noblest, suggested by a delicate moral sense which refused to take counsel with personal desire. It was the scruple of a conscience that regarded nothing but legality, . . . the conscience of a statesman of the age of Machiavelli, who thought even heaven and hell depended on the construction of a code of criminal law, and was quite as ready to cheat his Creator as his fellow-creature, by doing the shabbiest act that would not be visited with damnation." "Altogether," he says, "the negotiations on the subject do not leave a very agreeable impression of diplomacy in the days of Henry VII."

Mr. Gairdner has five other papers in the volume. Two are upon the "Lollards," the republication of articles in the *Fortnightly Review* upon "Bible Study in the Fifteenth Century," but considerably altered, as having expressed sentiments which he no longer holds, being "only too much in harmony with the sceptical spirit of the age." This is followed by an interesting paper, also bearing upon Lollardy, "On the Historical Element in Shakespeare's *Falstaff*." That the character of *Falstaff* had some connection with the Lollard martyr, Sir John Oldcastle, has been generally admitted; the paper in question undertakes to show that the general in the French wars of Henry VI., Sir John Fastolf, also formed an element in the tradition, and that he too was a Lollard. He sums up, at the end, by saying that "the *Falstaff* of Shakespeare, much as it undoubtedly owed to the rich imagination and incomparable wit of the dramatist, was an embodiment of traditions respecting two distinct historical personages—traditions largely tinged with prejudice, but still not unworthy to be considered, as reflecting the opinions of the age, and preserving, at the same time, some little details of genuine historic fact which, if they had not been stereotyped by genius, would by this time have perished irrecoverably" (p. 77).

The two closing papers are perhaps as interesting and important as any. That upon "The Divine Right of Kings" traces the origin of this doctrine, in the peculiar circumstances under which James I. ascended the throne of England, and its history down to the publication of Filmer's 'Patriarcha.' In connection with this, Filmer's other writings are briefly described—"it is not mere sagacity, but shrewd common sense that strikes one as their principal characteristic"—and his theory of civil government discussed. This theory, says Mr. Gairdner (p. 284), "it seems to me quite as easy unduly to depreciate as it proved possible to over-magnify it in the seventeenth century." The last article, "Sundays, Ancient and Modern," gives an interesting account of the way in which the Puritanic observance of the Sabbath came into existence. Here we are told (p. 313):

> "Though based on principles the most erroneous, the Puritan Sunday has been of undoubted service to us in the organization of our social life. Dull and cheerless as it was, and cruelly as its heavy discipline was maintained, it has been attended with an amount of good which has more than compensated the worst evils it has wrought. . . . The great boon of the Puritanic Sunday has been a lesson of self-denying earnestness, which sprang from strong and well-defined convictions transmitted from father to son during the last two hundred years—a rich inheritance, which I trust we may yet preserve amid the growth of new ideas and the remodelling of opinions. . . . It will not do to imagine we are doing God service in putting down Sunday trains or fining Sunday haymakers. Let us diminish Sunday labor as much as possible; but for man's sake, not for God's."

Robert Hall. By the Rev. E. Paxton Hood. [Heroes of Christian History.] New York: A. C. Armstrong and Son. 1881.

"No adequate life of him has ever been written," writes the author of this latest attempt to set Robert Hall before the public, in the last chapter of his work. As he himself charitably supposes of Hall's other friends, he, too, may have done his best. But he must have had a poor conception of the proper function of a biographer when he sat down to execute one of the most ill-digested and imperfect biographies ever offered in such a form. The outlines of Mr. Hall's public life are barely indicated; hardly even a skeleton of him has been constructed; and there is little or no attempt to portray the living, breathing figure of the man, to trace the development of his inner, spiritual life, or to analyze its secret springs. Nearly one-half of the book is padding, in the shape of extracts from previous biographies or Hall's own works, out of all proportion to the limits of such a composition. And, in a volume of 192 pages, fifty pages are devoted to a consideration of Hall as a public speaker, as if that were his chief claim to public regard.

With an almost ludicrous simplicity, the author shows how possible it is for sectarian prejudice so to warp the judgment as completely to invert the true relations of things. "Hall was probably the greatest sacred orator of all time." He even disputes the palm with Demosthenes himself; as the ancient world produced but one Demosthenes, so the modern world has produced but one Hall, compared with whom "all other of our sacred speakers seem good common-sense talkers, or speakers through whose thin veil of artificial rhetoric and clumsy climax the mechanical preparation may be too obviously and painfully seen." From such a point of view he stands far above Bossuet and even Massillon; and Shakspere, "our great modern German master,

Goethe," and Thomas Carlyle are all employed as foils to set off Hall's greatness as an original thinker, possessed of "the mighty gift of the first-rate order of intelligences by which they draw out our own nature, and set forth in the light of our own knowledge that which had been in us all along." That Robert Hall was an heroic man, all will admit who know anything of his life of constant suffering; that he was a great preacher many even now will not dispute. But the interest of his works was mainly temporary: they do not possess much human and universal and permanent interest. Questions unknown to his age are now pressing for solution, and the whole mental attitude of the time has changed. It is, therefore, a gross caricature of Hall to speak of him in the fulsome and uncritical fashion of these pages.

The author has formed a juster estimate of his life and work; an estimate, however, which it would be impossible for any reader to arrive at independently, from a perusal of the present compilation:

"Hall is a study. He was a Baptist minister, but he does not fit very nicely into the groove of any ecclesiastical sect. He had an objection to unions, and was altogether too magnanimously free to permit himself to be the mere mouthpiece of any human notions. In Protestantism he was unsound. He was so strong a Protestant that he was opposed to the claim of the Papal hierarchy for political place and privilege. Like John Milton, Andrew Marvell, and many other great Englishmen warmly attached to civil and religious liberty, he dreaded the power of Rome as inimical to both; but he was hostile to priestism in every form, whether found in the gown of Calvin, the cassock of Horsley, or beneath the cope of the Papacy.

"He bowed before the majesty of his powers the most exalted men of his time who heard him, and perhaps by his mingled enchantments of logic and eloquence hushed captious and thoughtless scepticism; but, after every eulogy, no sermon, even of Robert Hall's, was equal to his own personal character, and the majesty and dignity of his greatest words were not equal to his brave endurance of sharpest suffering, the sublime faith which sustained him through severest trials, and the extraordinary unconsciousness which, while acclamations on every hand acknowledged him as the prince of preachers, led him to regard himself as one of the most ordinary children of men." (Pp. 192, 151.)

Schule und Heer. Von Aug. Guhl. ["Deutsche Zeit- und Streit-Fragen," Nos. 159, 160.] Berlin. 1881.

THE German school system, admirable as it appears to foreigners, gives rise to much dissatisfaction at home. There is a general complaint of half culture and superficial knowledge, and much difference of opinion as to the remedy. Writers distinguished in various walks of life, as well as professional pedagogues, have taken part in the discussion, which is but a renewal of the old controversy between classical and non-classical studies. The special form which it now takes is a direct attack on the real-schools. These schools were originally intended for that section of the middle class of the population which did not aspire to enter one of the learned professions or the higher branches of the public service, and therefore was not obliged to pass through a university, but which, nevertheless, did aim at a higher degree of culture than the elementary schools could offer. The Government, which in Germany regulates everything relating to education, occupied itself with these schools as far back as 1832, and in 1859 promulgated a system of instruction and examination which fixed the status of the real-schools permanently. As now constituted, they have, like the gymnasiums, six classes, of which the highest is called "Prima," and the lowest "Sexta." The entire course covers nine years, each of the three lower classes occupying one year, and each of the three upper classes two years, the age of entrance being from nine to ten years, and of graduation from eighteen to nineteen. There are also real-schools of the second rank, which omit the highest class. The course of studies differs from that of the gymnasiums in omitting Greek, giving fewer hours to Latin and more hours to mathematics and the natural sciences, and adding English.

These schools have been largely patronized, and have owed much of their patronage to an important privilege enjoyed by their pupils in common with those of the gymnasiums—the privilege, namely, of serving in the army for one year as volunteers, in place of the compulsory three years' service of the masses of the population. This privilege can be acquired either by passing an examination or (without an examination) by producing a certificate from a gymnasium or a real-school of having attended for six years and having passed all the school examinations for promotion. The natural consequence is, that every parent who can afford it sends his boys to the real-school, so as to have their term of military service curtailed, and as soon as this point is gained, many of the boys leave school and go into business; in other words, their schooling stops at the age of sixteen instead of eighteen, and remains fragmentary. This practice accounts for the circumstance that while in the gymnasiums about one-fourth of those who enter complete the course, in the real-schools the proportion is reduced to one-tenth. Even this is the artificial product of a fresh privilege acquired in 1870 (as stated in No. 860 of the *Nation*)—the admission of graduates of the real-schools to the universities.

It is this state of things that is deplored and sought to be remedied. The advocates of the classical training, who are strong in official and professional circles, accuse the real-schools of being neither the one thing nor the other; of not preparing their pupils for practical life any more than for the university; of sending out a mass of boys who are half educated, filled with crude ideas, and puffed up with self-conceit. These writers would remodel the real-schools by dropping Latin and cutting down the course so that it should reach its termination at the age of sixteen, the scholars entering at six.

Of course the question has two sides. The teachers of the real-schools, a large and intelligent body of men, naturally resist any attempt to reduce them to a lower plane. They admit the need of reform, and—what may seem singular—in a convention held in 1874, they adopted resolutions demanding, among other things, that no one should be admitted to the privilege of one year's military service without passing a special examination.

The present pamphlet, although written by an officer of the German army, and avowedly treating the subject from a military point of view, takes its stand with the extreme wing of the classical school. The author agrees with Karl Hillebrand in dividing the German nation into three classes. Leaving the aristocracy out of the question, he places in the first class all those whose labors constitute the mental activity and leadership of the state, including in this category not only the liberal professions, but also merchants, manufacturers, professors, artists, architects, army officers, writers, etc.; all of these should pursue the full course of studies of a gymnasium, supplemented, if necessary, by the university or some other appropriate professional or technical school. The second class includes the lower grade of the middle class, such as shopkeepers, mechanics, innkeepers, subordinate employees in the public service, etc.; for this class there should be middle-schools, covering a period of ten years, from the age of six to that of sixteen, as already referred to above; and those who completed the course should be admitted to the privilege of one year's military service instead of three. Finally, the third class embraces day-laborers and the masses of the population generally, and for them the popular or primary schools as now constituted answer every purpose.

Of course this is but a bald abstract of Colonel Guhl's argument, but it sufficiently reveals the one striking point that he aims at—viz., that every member of the educated class should be required to possess a collegiate education; for it is unnecessary to remark that a German gymnasium is on a level, to put it moderately, with an American college. The same view is advocated by Karl Hillebrand in an article already alluded to. The latter writer, who was for a number of years examiner or inspector of the French lycées, says that in France every large merchant sends his sons to college, not only to graduate, but in many cases even to study law afterward; and it has not been found that young men so educated are inferior as merchants to those who, from their sixteenth to their nineteenth year, copy letters, sweep the office, and run of errands.

Some of Hillebrand's suggestions for reform, though not strictly cognate to the subject, are of such general interest that it may be permissible to mention them here. First, he would reduce the hours of labor in and out of school to eight. At present the school-hours in a gymnasium are from 7 to 11 A.M. in summer, and 8 to 12 in winter, and from 2 to 4 P.M. all the year; besides which, two to three hours' study at home is necessary. To accomplish the curtailment, he would abolish some studies and shorten others. And here comes the strangest part of his scheme, and the one that will excite the most opposition. The study of German, the native language of the scholars, he would restrict to grammar and orthography; and he would abolish the study of literature, on the ground that it only supplies unformed minds with ready-made judgments, and instead of stimulating the study of great authors, produces a disinclination to read them. He is also much averse to any scientific teaching. His most practical suggestion is to drop all teaching of religion to boys over fourteen years of age. In view of the well-known attitude of indifferentism to religion of the educated classes in Germany, it may well seem that the time devoted to religious instruction is a sheer waste. The main point, however, is here again, that Hillebrand insists that the pure classical training has such virtue in rendering the mind vigorous and flexible that any one who pursues it up to his nineteenth year can then undertake any pursuit or any study he pleases, and will soon outstrip all competitors who have had any other sort of training.

Manuel d'Archéologie grecque. Par Maxime Collignon. 368 pp., 141 engravings.

La Mosaïque. Par Gerspach. 272 pp., 68 engravings.

Histoire de la Peinture hollandaise. Par Henry Havard. 288 pp., 92 engravings.

Précis d'Anatomie à l'usage des artistes. Par Mathias Duval. 336 pp., 77 engravings. All 8vo. Paris: A. Quantin; New York: J. W. Bouton. 1881.

WITH the above four treatises begins a series of school-books in art which promises to number, in time, not less than a hundred volumes, covering an immense variety of subjects, both general and special. The prospectus of the series observes that

"The youth of our schools, who devote ten years to the humanities, search the courses in history in vain for exact treatises touching upon the wonders of antique art or upon the

movement of the Renaissance. In the graduate's memory as he enters upon life there may remain a few names, more or less high-sounding, to which he attaches no clear idea either of the men or of their works. Later, when he is drawn into debates upon artistic matters, he will sadly recall the relative ignorance in which his classical studies left him. It will be too late to repair this gap in his education, and time will fail him to attack the great works which exist, but which are too complete or too special. . . . In view of this lack, action in other countries has not been wanting. Among our neighbors there is not a special school without its course in the history of art, and all this instruction, given by a multitude of experienced teachers, is encouraged by a host of publications of every sort. . . . In justice, it should be said that the Government has not neglected to begin a similar movement among us. . . . But an essential condition for all this new education is lacking: *the book*. Masters and pupils are unanimous in demanding it."

To meet the want in France thus lucidly set forth, M. Havard has undertaken, under the patronage of the Department of Arts, the editing of this extensive "library." There is to be a volume on the general history of art; one each upon painting, sculpture, architecture, ornamentation, engraving, and music; and special treatises upon French, Italian, Spanish, and English painting, Italian and French sculpture, ancient, Italian, and Gothic architecture; Etruscan, Roman, and Oriental archæology; Byzantine art, ceramics, tapestry, wood-carving, construction, jewelry, glass, ivories, bronzes, stuffs, costume, etc. Such an encyclopædic range of topics would, perhaps, inspire only distrust were it not for the competent writers to whom many of these works have been already assigned, for the distinct promise of a pervading "spirit of method and clearness, shorn of the trappings of useless erudition," and especially for the conspicuous excellence of the four volumes just published. The superficial attractiveness of these tastefully printed and covered octavos, their compactness and vividness of statement, their wise illustration, and their reasonable price (3.50 fr.) will combine to make them exceedingly popular. We could wish that some enterprising American house would arrange for the translation and publication, under competent editorial superintendence, of all or most of these manuals. We are sure that they would be widely used and appreciated.

The volume on Greek archæology, for instance, in the hands of an intelligent instructor or an inquiring student cannot fail to give a charming and correct idea of the indispensable outlines of that fertile field of historical study. We know of no other work which treats the subject with anything like the fairness, the clearness, the restrained enthusiasm, or the fulness of this. Questions which are still unsettled are stated simply and candidly. The vital point of every topic is seized and emphasized as such. The real attractiveness of the subject in hand is not spoiled for the reader by being continually insisted upon; it is simply implied and assumed, so that his curiosity is continually kept alive. The several divisions of architecture, sculpture, modelling in terra-cotta, vase-painting, coins and gems, bronzes and ornaments, are all taken up and set in that due relation to each other which it has taken archæologists so long to learn to appreciate. To the whole is prefixed a singularly good statement of the origins of Greek art. However the special student may regard the author's cautious statements upon disputed points, or may regret that greater space was not devoted to his specialty, he must grant that the general method and spirit of the book are excellent. We should think that for use in this country, or even in France, an extension of the lists of authorities given at the head of each chapter was desirable, if not necessary, to give the student a clew to the sources of the matter summarized in the text. The author is not infallible, as his bad blunder on p. 65, about the *module*, shows.

The 'Anatomie artistique' is an abridgment of lectures given for the last ten years to the students of the École des Beaux-Arts, and embodies those topics which experience and consultation with practical artists have proved to be important and interesting. It is supplied with an index of the parts of the body which are described. The 'Peinture hollandaise' is of course both generally historical and biographical. The extent of its range appears from the long list of artists to whom reference is made. The history of 'La Mosaïque' begins with the works mentioned in classical literature, and comes down, century by century, to the present time. It has indexes both of places and of artists.

The Rose. By H. B. Ellwanger. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

THIS capital little book is the work of a writer who has a thorough knowledge of his subject, and knows how to convey it to others in sound and clear English. The amateur rose-grower will find here, in small space, a great amount of safe information and useful suggestion. On the vexed question of the classification of roses, Mr. Ellwanger takes very sensible views. The grouping found in the catalogues of nurserymen is becoming too complex for the average brain, and, as it has only very partially a scientific basis, it is high time that the complicated divisions and subdivisions with which many rosarians delight to perplex mankind should be reduced to something like simplicity. The chapter on typical roses is excellent. The description of varieties in the latter part of the volume, though in some cases the writer's experience does not answer to ours, is, as a whole, the best we know, and we advise all who are making a collection of roses to take counsel of it.

The Classics for the Million: Being an Epitome, in English, of the Works of the Principal Greek and Latin Authors. By Henry Grey. Second edition, revised and enlarged. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1881. 12mo, pp. 348.

OF the numerous popular books prepared of late years to introduce the classical authors to non-classical readers, Mr. Grey's 'Classics for the Million' is a fair example, with some merits of its own. It consists for the most part of epitomes of the several works of the authors, sometimes with examples; and this work—if it is worth doing at all, for general readers—is done very well. There is not much satisfaction or real profit in reading an outline of a story or a drama; but some readers have a fancy for this, and for these this book may be recommended. Other merits it does not aim at. It makes no pretence to literary criticism or history, and the lives of the authors are exceedingly brief. The date of death is given (how, by the way, is it known that Homer died B.C. 850, Herodotus B.C. 413, and Tacitus A.D. 118?), but that of birth regularly omitted. In the list of translators in the appendix, the names of Bryant and Cowper are omitted.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, C. C. The Bible: a Scientific Revelation. James Pott. 75 cents.
Björnson, B. The Fisher-Maiden. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexikon. 13th ed. Parts 14-15. L. W. Schmidt.
Clement, Clara Erskine. Charlotte Cushman. [American Actor Series.] Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
D'Anvers, N. An Elementary History of Art: Architecture—Sculpture—Painting—Music. 2d ed. Scribner & Welford.
Dorothea. [Round-Robin Series.] Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Hailstone, H. Homer's Iliad, Book vi. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Hamerton, P. G. The Graphic Arts: a Treatise on the Varieties of Drawing, Painting, and Engraving. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.
Hawley, F. B. Capital and Population: a Study of the Economic Effects of their Relations to Each Other. D. Appleton & Co.
Hay, Mary Cecil. Dorothy's Venture. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Ingersoll, E. Birds'-Nesting: a Handbook of Instruction. Salem, Mass.: George Bates.
Jackson, Lady. The Old Régime: Courts, Salons, and Theatres. Henry Holt & Co. $2 25.
Jerram, C. S. The Helena of Euripides. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Keary, C. F. Outlines of Primitive Belief among the Indo-European Races. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2 50.
Kiepert, H. Neue General-Karte von Unter-Italien, mit den Inseln Sicilien und Sardinien. Berlin: D. Reimer; New York: L. W. Schmidt.
Kimball, H. "Joshua": Twenty Years in Gotham. American News Co.
Lillie, Lucy C. Prudence: a Story of Æsthetic London. Harper & Brothers.
Lodge, H. C. Alexander Hamilton. [American Statesmen Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.
Longfellow, H. W. Hyperion. John W. Lovell Co.
Mahaffy, Rev. J. P. The Decay of Modern Preaching. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Martin, Kate B. Belgian Days. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.
Martin, F. Statesman's Year-Book, for 1882. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Miss Slimmens's Window. J. S. Ogilvie & Co. 25 cents.
Muir, Thomas. A Treatise on the Theory of Determinants. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. $1 90.
Norris, W. E. Heaps of Money. Leisure-Hour Series. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Onesimus: Memoirs of a Disciple of Paul. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 50.
Oswald, F. L. Physical Education; or, The Health-Laws of Nature. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Peard, Frances Mary. Castle and Town. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.
Post, J. J. Old Streets, Roads, Lanes, Piers, and Wharves in New York. New York: R. D. Cooke.
Report of the Life-Saving Service for 1881. Washington: Government Printing-office.
Schaff, P. The International Revision Commentary on the New Testament. Vol. i.: Matthew. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Scheffel, J. V. von. Mountain Psalms. London: Trübner & Co.
Schouler, J. A Treatise on the Law of Husband and Wife. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Fine Arts.

THE TWO OIL-COLOR EXHIBITIONS.—II.

BEFORE commenting in detail upon a few of the works in these exhibitions, it will be well to premise that we assume the criterion of truth to nature to be a fundamental one. All painting, save that of a purely abstract and decorative kind, represents natural objects more or less fully, and is to be judged according to its veracity of representation—which is the true basis for all higher principles of design. Without this basis art inevitably wanders off into meaningless vagaries. But by truth to nature we do not mean exact imitation of physical facts, with which, as such, an artist has nothing whatever to do; we mean, rather, truth to visual impressions. It is a painter's business to know how things look, and to portray their appearances. We cannot attempt anything like a thorough review of either exhibition; we shall simply offer such remarks as suggest themselves on a few of the pictures in each. We will speak first of some of those in the Academy.

Mr. George Inness is represented here by two landscapes, Nos. 298 and 517. The first, called "Under the Greenwood," is one of this artist's most mannered works. Two beech (?) trunks, ungraceful in line and awkward in arrangement, occupy the middle of the canvas. Beyond them is a dead, blank mass of green paint—of that unnatural and unpleasant quality, in which something like Prussian-blue predominates, peculiar to Mr. Inness—which stands for a background of woodland. There is no characterization, hardly even a suggestion, of form or of parts in it, save one rigid, vertical tree-trunk without ramification. The masses are unrelated and scattered, the greens of one quality, and the execution the same for near and distant parts alike. Mr. Inness never gives us a decisive form, never a well-defined contour. Everything with him is softened, and is, as it were, melting away. His work lacks a firm basis of drawing. No. 517, "A Winter Morning—Environs of Montclair, N. J," is of different, and more interesting,

character. It represents an expanse of characteristic American winter landscape, with patches of snow lying about here and there. It is not a graceful design; indeed, it cannot be called a design at all. It is a simple portrait of a passage of open pasture-ground and thin woodland, with a distant house or two of bald and staring American type, and some vaguely-drawn logs and stumps in the foreground. In broad effect it is, however, very true, with a look of open winter daylight. Mr. Inness frequently exaggerates his light and shade, but in this picture, and in others like it, he is temperate and exemplary.

Mr. Eastman Johnson has two portraits, Nos. 173 and 210. These are quiet and natural in conception, and are firmly and well drawn. But the execution is slight and sketchy, and wanting in solidity; and in the flesh there is an unpleasant and untrue quality of pink and purple, and a want of correspondence between the parts in light and the parts in shade. Mr. Johnson seems to have acquired a settled manner, which he employs for everything. In each subject that he treats he seems not to observe sufficiently what the actual visual conditions are, but rather to proceed in the same way, and with the same pallet, for everything. In Mr. Huntington's "Portrait of a Lady," No. 290, which occupies one of the best places on the line, there is a conventional rather than a true grace of pose and figure. The hand which falls from the arm of the chair is weakly sentimental in this regard. The color, too, is unnatural; it is conventional studio color. In painting the lady's dress and the red cover of the chair, Mr. Huntington did not truly observe the plain facts of their relative values. Mr. John F. Weir exhibits a large painting, No. 267, "The Theological Faculty of Yale College," in which all the personages represented have precisely the same complexion and the same quality of gray hair. This sameness is remarkable, if it be true. The picture is unpleasantly dark, as if everything had been painted into a freshly laid ground of ivory-black. Gravity of key might, indeed, be suitably chosen for such a subject; but gravity of key does not necessitate the suffusing every part of a design with ivory-black. Mr. B. C. Porter's "Portrait of a Lady," No. 189, is, for the most part, a good and finished piece of painting. It is injured, however, by excessive use of black and brown in the shadows, and the points of highest light in the eyes are a little too sparkling, and those on the nose and forehead a little too much emphasized for quiet effect.

No. 82, by Mr. Elihu Vedder, "Waves off Pier Head," is an excellent piece of chiaroscuro; but the color is wanting in purity and variety, and the drawing of the waves is hard and lifeless. No. 181, "The Golden Net," by the same artist, is a somewhat elaborate work, but is too equally and even mechanically elaborated. The drapery is unpleasantly cut up, and is very ungraceful in fold. The color is monotonous and untrue—an unpleasant yellow-brown hue running through every part. No. 371, a portrait by Mr. J. Alden Weir, hangs where it cannot be fairly examined; but it appears to have excellent qualities, not unlike those which are characteristic of Velasquez. These are much injured, however, by excessively strong brown shadows on the nose and cheek. Mr. Vinton's portrait of Wendell Phillips, No. 380, has strong qualities, but it lacks refinement. Mr. Vinton catches the outside, obvious characteristics of his subject; but he seems to get little beyond these.

Mr. F. D. Millet's "Milkmaid," No. 463, is an admirably-drawn and natural figure of a young woman walking forward on a meadow foot-path, with a pail of milk in her hand. It is a good subject, conceived without affectation. Mr. Millet is a plain realist; but he has not here done himself justice in all respects. The chiaroscuro of the picture is very untrue, and there is a want of decision and of significance in accessory parts which bespeaks insufficient acquaintance with the objects—weeds and grass—which the artist would fain represent. The figure is in shadow against a light sky, which, in nature, would make it tell as a decidedly dark mass; but Mr. Millet has not made it dark. A part of the arm which holds the pail falls against the slightly rosy lower sky, and is almost precisely of the same value and the same hue. This is both impossible and untrue. The picture has not the look of having been studied out of doors. The figure appears, rather, to have been painted from a model in the studio, and the landscape background to have been thrown in from memory without sufficient reference to the relation which would actually exist between the one and the other in point of chiaroscuro. There is a picture in the South gallery, No. 270, "Feeling the Edge," by Mr. E. M. Ward, which illustrates the true effect of a figure in shadow against open sky.

Mr. J. G. Brown's works this year are about the same in character as usual. Mr. Brown is a conscientious and faithful worker; but, apart from the interest which attaches to the incidents of street-boy life, and other commonplace subjects (in depicting which he is very entertaining and successful), there is little of essential excellence in his painting. He regards his subject with a view to some incident or story, rather than with a true painter's eye. As a painter, he dwells too much upon a common sort of realism, and not enough upon the beauty of the aspect of things. Take No. 413, "The Neighbors," for example. Two old ladies sit chatting together, and one of them wears a white kerchief about her neck and over her shoulders. A true painter would have felt the value of this white kerchief as a total mass, and would have retained its breadth through whatever modifications of its local color the expression of its folds and the influence of neighboring objects might have required. But Mr. Brown, in seeking to make its folds look real, has emphasized their markings too strongly, and thus has lost breadth and the relation of the whole drapery to other masses. The shadows in it are wrought with the same brown color that is used in the flesh and other parts.

Of works by others of the older Academicians there are few which call for special comment. Mr. J. F. Cropsey exhibits a large landscape, No. 69, "Lago Maggiore, Italy," which is highly conventional and false in color. The broken foreground of grass and earth is rendered with crude green and vivid orange hues, totally uninfluenced by the modifications which nature could not fail to exhibit under the conditions of light and air represented. A group of figures to the right of the composition are unfeeling and untrue in this crudeness of untempered paint.

Mr. Casilear exhibits a landscape of the same conventional type with which he long ago made us familiar. Mr. S. Coleman and Mr. A. D. Shattuck have largely lost what fresh integrity they showed formerly, and have adopted the prevailing French manner without having taken firm hold of the good qualities of French art. The case is much the same with the rest of that group of men who were the recognized leaders in our exhibitions a quarter of a century ago. There is one picture in the corridor, No. 664, "Study of Trap Rock," by J. Henry Hill, which contains more good painting than any other picture in the galleries. It represents a passage of rocky ravine, with light cascades leaping from ledge to ledge. The picture is quiet and true in all respects. Everything in it is perfectly and felicitously characterized, yet it is broad and true in total effect. Such sincere and affectionate rendering of simple nature is the best outcome of all our artistic activities thus far.

On entering the gallery of the Society of American Artists one notices a pervading harmony of tone in all the pictures. This has been commented on as a sign of excellence unusual in exhibitions of American pictures. But such harmony as this is attained largely by a method of subduing all colors by a uniform tone of gray or brown. It is not the harmony of living and ever-varying color, which is attained by simple veracity as regards their mutual values. We want, in painting, the harmony which consists with nature's beauty and variety of color, not a uniform harmony of this conventional kind. No. 1, "Winter," by Mr. E. A. Abbey, is a remarkably good piece of drawing, and there is more in it of grace, in general pose and movement of the figure, than one often sees; but it is too slight and sloppy in execution to be considered as anything more than a sketch for effect. No. 8, "Autumn," by Mr. Edwin H. Blashfield, is also a gracefully posed, firmly drawn, and forcibly painted figure. No. 29, "Girl Reading," by Mr. William M. Chase, is one of those bizarre and ungraceful subjects of which we have already expressed our disapproval. There is some good chiaroscuro in this picture, but the execution is slovenly and meaningless in the extreme. The drawing of the gown of the figure, with its pattern, is quite beneath criticism from any point of view. In No. 33, "Portrait of a Lady," by Mr. Frank Duveneck, the head seems out of relation with the surrounding parts in point of chiaroscuro. It tells as a strong spot of light, while the remaining parts of the picture are not illuminated in a corresponding degree.

No. 42, "Evening—Lorette," and No. 43, "Priscilla Fauntleroy," are by Mr. George Fuller. Beyond a certain vague sweetness of expression, we cannot find much to admire in these pictures. The misty obscurity which enshrouds them is altogether untrue to any known effects of nature, save, possibly, those which occur in the densest of London fogs. The figures are bad in drawing, indeterminate in handling, and impure and monotonous in color. It seems as if the artist, in a state of but partial wakefulness, were vaguely striving to embody some half-forgotten dreams. Mr. A. Quartley's pictures, Nos. 79 and 80, while apparently aiming at true color-values, are frequently faulty in this respect. In No. 79 a distant steamer to the right hardly differs in quality or in density from one of the nearest dark objects in the picture. The same may be said of No. 114, "City of Dort," by Mr. J. H. Twachtman, in which some of the most distant objects are presented in strongest force. No. 120, "Portrait of a Lady," by Mr. J. Alden Weir, is a picture which, we think, possesses few of the qualities of good painting. The execution is unfeeling and painty in the highest degree. A heap of flowers (?) are laid on as with a bricklayer's trowel, and the result is simply a repulsive mass of thick paint. Nor can we detect greater merit in the two or three other pictures exhibited here by Mr. Weir. The bizarre in method seems to be his chief aim in them all, and we find few excellent qualities underlying it.

It is hardly necessary to extend our remarks. We have selected for comment a few of those pictures which seemed most to call for it. If we have pointed out more faults than good qualities, it is because we feel that such good qualities as exist are already widely and sufficiently appreciated, and that the right direction of public taste in the future calls urgently for clear showing of the dangerous tendencies which are so rapidly gaining ground in what is now called our new art movement.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 4, 1882.

The Week.

MR. BLAINE'S friends seem to take Mr. Belmont's "jumping on Jim Blaine"—their technical name for criticism of that statesman's performances—very much to heart. The *Tribune* reproduces a number of editorial articles in which Mr. Belmont is pronounced a "little blackguard," "an ass," a "presumptuous little cur," a "poltroon," a "woodchuck," a "catspaw," a "servile parrot," a "pigmy," a "young jackanapes," with much other severity of the same sort. This, however, is not interesting to the public, which is not curious about Mr. Belmont. The person it wants to know about is Mr. Blaine; and the Washington correspondent of the *Herald* intimates that the Senate Committee on Foreign Affairs will probably try its hand at examining him about his Peruvian troubles, and may find him more tractable. Among the things which he did not tell Mr. Belmont, but which we should all like to hear, are, according to this authority, how he came to compel Mr. Christiancy to recognize as a *de facto* Government Señor Calderon, who had so little *de facto* about him that he was arrested by a policeman? What "the personal talk" was which General Hurlbut said he had with him, and which supplied him (Hurlbut) with "the motive for his action"? Why he rebuked Kilpatrick when he had obtained from Chili everything he was instructed to demand? Why he never wrote to Hurlbut about anything but the Landreau claim? Why he thought the mild concurrent resolution of the House about the Landreau claim mandatory when the Senate had refused to concur? It would also be well to ask him what he means by "*res adjudicata*," a phrase in which he evidently finds much balm. If there be any mode of addressing these questions to Mr. Blaine which he will not consider offensive, they ought to be put by some elderly man.

Nothing has been more entertaining in Mr. Blaine's examination than the part the British bondholders and fleet play in his imagination. The payments Chili proposes to make to the bondholders out of the guano already pledged to them as security, he treats as simple plunder, having apparently the Kearney notion of a bondholder. The Chilian war against Peru was a "put-up job" of the bondholders, of much the same character as that "in which Clive and Hastings subdued India," undertaken for "loot and spoil." Moreover, he said with much solemnity in the little stump-speech on this subject which he injected into his examination, that he "saw by the morning paper that there was an English war fleet of seven great iron-clads along the coast from Callao to Valparaiso, and that they had been there all the time." In fact, he seems hardly ever to look out of his window just now without seeing the British fleet anchored to a guano bed, like Little Billee in Thackeray's ballad, who, when he went to the masthead, discovered, to his astonishment and relief,

> "Jerusalem and Madagascar,
> And North and South Amerikee,
> The British flag a-riding at anchor
> With Admiral Napier, K. C. B."

Senator Blair came forward with his Peruvian testimony on Monday, and read a statement which he said was "prepared in a somewhat hurried manner," though why it should have been, seeing that it is two months since the investigation was ordered, we fail to see. He acknowledged that he took a "retainer" from Shipherd, but did not explain what it was for. The claim of Shipherd to the Peruvian guano could not be prosecuted in the courts of the United States. It would have to be prosecuted either in the Peruvian or Chilian courts, if in any—in neither of which is Mr. Blair a recognized practitioner—or through the active intervention of the Government of the United States. But of this Government Mr. Blair was, when he took the retainer, himself a part. If it was proper to push Shipherd's claim through American diplomacy, Mr. Blair would have been bound to aid it as Senator; and in approaching the question whether it should be pushed or not, he should have had his mind clear of any bias arising out of personal interest. Otherwise, the retainer might operate as hire for driving the United States into war. When retained in August he first asked Shipherd for a fee in money, but Shipherd was better supplied with scrip of the Company than cash, and though he said that the counsel might have money if he preferred it, he only gave him scrip, and this in October, after a long delay. During the interval Mr. Blair appears to have gone on encouraging him, and urged him on one occasion to act as "though American ships-of-war were on their way" to Peru. Soon after getting the scrip, however, he seems to have lost heart, or had his scrupulousness increased, for he threw up his retainer, and on the 25th of November sent back the scrip. November was a bad month for poor Shipherd, for it was on the 17th of that month that Mr. Blaine threw him overboard, and on the 23d that General Hurlbut declined further correspondence with him. Mr. Blair now explains that what he meant by American ships-of-war being "on their way" was that they were to be sent there, the same as "the English ships had been." But then English ships, as Mr. Blaine has bitterly observed, had been there all along, watching that guano, and if the American ships were to accomplish any good by going down, it would be by driving the English away from the guano, and loading it up themselves as return cargoes. Mr. Blair will evidently richly repay cross-examination.

Senator Ingalls dealt a stunning blow to the Anti-Chinese Bill in the Senate on Wednesday by asking Senator Farley, who was very eloquently describing the Chinese as a horde of loathsome lepers, the simple question why it was, if the Chinese were such repulsive and worthless wretches, that the people of California insisted upon employing them, and thus keeping them in the country? The California Senator found this a very hard question to answer. We do not wonder it staggered him. As we are told, the people of the Pacific Coast are unanimous and uncompromising in their determination that the Chinese are a nuisance and must go. And yet the same people of the Pacific Coast are doing all they can to keep the Chinese among them by employing them and paying them good wages, and by trading with them and giving them good profits. The very moment the people of the Pacific Coast cease to employ the Chinese or to trade with them, the Chinese will go of themselves, without any compulsion, and they will stay away without any law to keep them out. The people of the Pacific Coast therefore have the matter entirely in their own hands.

The Anti-Chinese Bill in its new form has passed, but it is melancholy to relate that the Republicans get no political capital out of it. In the House there were eight more Republicans than Democrats in the majority which passed it, but then there were thirty-one more Republicans than Democrats in the minority which voted against it. In the Senate nine Republicans only have voted for it, while fifteen voted against it, so that it is substantially a Democratic measure, and entitles the Democrats to whatever gratitude the Pacific Coast pays for measures of this character. It is, moreover, very distinctly Democratic both in its ideas and processes. It carries out, as against the Chinese, the doctrines which the Democrats upheld for thirty years before 1865—such as the unfitness of particular races for social or political rights, and the compatibility of the passport system and fugitive and expulsion laws with American institutions.

The present bill reduces the period of suspension from twenty to ten years. Even ten years must, however, be considered a very liberal construction of the clause of the treaty which provides against prohibition. The passport and registration feature has been modified, but not greatly modified, and the skilled laborers have been joined with the unskilled in the exclusion. In fact, the Chinese must be a good deal puzzled about the source of the hostility to them. On one day they hear that they must "go" because they are so barbarous and uncivilized; on the next, because they are so skilful and intelligent. The treaty permits the United States Government to exclude Chinese "laborers." The term "laborers" was undoubtedly used in the sense in which it is ordinarily used here, to designate unskilled laborers. It has, however, in the bill been made to cover artisans and mechanics, and there can be little doubt that the Chinese will consider this a quibble, and will wonder if Christian morality sanctions such things. An attempt to prohibit expressly the naturalization of the Chinese now in the country was luckily defeated in the Senate, but there was something very characteristic about it.

It is natural that those who desire to expel the Chinese both because they are barbarous and because they are civilized, and who desire to expel them because they refuse to be naturalized or "assimilated," should also desire to forbid their being naturalized or assimilated if they wished it. Everything about this Chinese agitation is characterized by the most delightful absurdity.

General Chalmers, of Mississippi, has been deprived of the seat he wrongfully occupied in the House of Representatives, and Mr. Lynch, a colored man, who has served in Congress before, has been declared entitled to that seat after a thorough inquiry. The evidence laid before the Committee on Elections was so conclusive in proving him to have received a large majority of votes in his district, that the friends of General Chalmers seemed to have absolutely no ground to stand upon, if they paid any regard to the principle that a majority of lawful ballots in the box is to determine an election. As is reported, a good many Democrats privately admitted that they could not conscientiously vote to give the seat to General Chalmers. The frauds by which Lynch had been kept out of his right had been of too gross and barefaced a nature to be denied or seriously defended. And yet, in spite of all this, every Democrat in the House of Representatives who voted on this question, except Mr. Ellis, of Louisiana, voted to keep in General Chalmers, and to deprive Mr. Lynch of the seat to which he was so clearly entitled. Some, who were ashamed to put themselves openly on record against their convictions of right, abstained from voting; but only one had a sense of justice strong and courageous enough to vote "against the ticket." This, however, is no new thing. It is only the latest illustration of the most detestable and demoralizing practice followed for many years by both parties in Congress, Republicans as well as Democrats, to vote in deciding contested-election cases simply the party ticket, without any regard to right or wrong. This is done in so cynical a manner that it seems as if members of Congress had lost all feeling of the moral obliquity of it, and as if the strongest appeals to higher motives of action were and would remain unavailing. It is very evident that under such circumstances Congress is not the proper authority to decide contested-election cases, and that in order to secure justice and to arrest the infection of such demoralizing practices, it will be necessary to look for some judicial tribunal outside of Congress, to which such cases can be submitted with the assurance that evidence will receive its due weight, and that the man justly entitled to the seat will have it, no matter whether his party is in a majority in Congress or not. In England, such contests about seats in Parliament have for many years been decided by the ordinary courts, like the title to any other office, to everybody's satisfaction.

The *Independent* last week gave an account of the attitude of the religious world toward Darwinism which will seem strange reading to those who remember the way in which the 'Origin of Species' was first received. It says "the attitude of the Church toward him" at that time, "more hostile than suspicious, is an occasion for deep mortification." . . . "No man of the age was so feared and hated by the large body of Christian teachers—we will not say all—as was Darwin." "The attitude of the great mass of religious dogmatism to this new philosophy was no less than scandalous." "At the meeting of the Evangelical Alliance in New York, Dr. Hodge read a paper to prove that 'Darwinism is Atheism'; but now there is probably not a professor in Princeton Seminary who would dare to make the assertion"—and much more of the same sort. And yet there never has been a scientific man whose character, and temper, and manner were so little calculated to exasperate opponents, or create doubts about his single-mindedness, as Darwin. Unfortunately, he was not the first investigator, whose conclusions are now universally accepted, who at the outset incurred the hatred of religious people, but surely he ought to be the last; and we think there is every reason to believe that he will be the last. It is hardly possible that so striking an example of the tremendous mistakes into which pious men may fall regarding danger to their faith, can fail to impress them with the necessity of greater caution and courage in their attitude toward the explorations of the physical universe which are now going on in every direction.

It ought also to put an end to the curious attempts, of which one every now and then hears from religious bodies, to make some kind of treaty between Religion and Science, in which each shall lay down certain limits beyond which it will agree not to go. All such schemes are based on the theory of which Darwin was the victim, that there is somebody competent to answer for Science, and say where it shall stop and what it shall examine. There is no such person. There never was and never can be. Religious men can draw up platforms on which they can agree to stand, and can trace the boundaries of their own beliefs, but a scientific man can do nothing of the kind. In fact, he is bound not to do it. Continued inquiry is to him a condition of progress. It is his duty to treat nothing in the physical field as settled, and nothing as beyond question. Science, too, for him does not mean what he believes, but what is; and therefore he never can tell to-day what he will believe to-morrow. Another lesson which we trust the Church has learned from Darwin's career is the folly and injustice of holding scientific discoverers responsible for what seem the probable moral or social consequences of their discoveries. Half the odium heaped on Darwin was due to this. It was thought, apparently, by many people that he ought to have kept the result of his inquiries to himself, lest it should unsettle some people's religious faith or loosen in others the bonds of social obligation. It now appears by the confession of his revilers that had he done so he would have committed a great mistake even from their point of view. They acknowledge that what they once thought were necessary or very probable consequences of his revelations were not necessary or probable consequences at all; that, on the contrary, these revelations were simply a flood of light on "the world's great altar stairs."

The President has sent a new message to Congress on the subject of the Arizona cowboys, who are still plundering and robbing along the Mexican border. He again recommends that operations of this kind—*i. e.*, what the late Mr. James, of Missouri, was in the habit of calling "scouts" across the border—be made punishable as an offence against the United States, and that the *posse comitatus* act of 1878 be repealed. This act, which was passed as a party measure to prevent the use of troops in the South, provides that no part of the Army shall be used as a *posse* for the purpose of executing the laws, "except in such cases and under such circumstances as such employment of said force may be expressly authorized by the Constitution or by act of Congress," under a penalty of fine and imprisonment. The penal character of the statute makes the risk of its violation a serious one for anybody, and there would seem to be every reason for its repeal. If it ever had any utility as a party measure, this can be the case no longer, for the day of "troops" in the South is over; while the use of them in the thinly-settled Territories, where society is in a half-organized condition, is a plain necessity. As General Sherman, in a telegram on the subject to the Attorney-General, says: "It is idle to expect of the miners and scattered ranchmen the difficult and dangerous service of a *posse* to arrest desperate cattle-thieves, smugglers, and robbers, well mounted and well armed, with thorough organization and sympathy of some of the people." The fact is, that in communities of this sort the *posse comitatus* is found too often in the hands of the very desperadoes it is called upon to disperse.

All domestic influences continue to favor an extremely easy loan market, and the surplus reserve of the New York banks was run up during the last week to nearly $11,000,000. The foreign imports continue so large that the revenues of the Government are accumulating much beyond the needs of the Treasury, and on Monday another call for the redemption of extended 6 per cent. bonds was issued by the Secretary of the Treasury, the amount covered by the call being between $10,000,000 and $11,000,000. At the Stock Exchange, United States bonds lost a fractional part of their recent advance. The low rates which can be obtained for money, either for short or long-date loans, is causing a great demand for choice railroad investments not subject to speculation. The share speculation during the week was characterized by a further decline in the Vanderbilt stocks, notably Lake Shore, which fell to 98¾, and New York Central, which fell to 123⅝, and by strength in the remainder of the stock list. The breakdown in the Vanderbilt stocks was helped, if not caused, by the publication of the annual report of the Lake Shore, which showed a heavy increase in tonnage, a large decrease in net income, and an increase of $1,250,000 in bonded debt. During the time covered by the report all the trunk-line companies suffered by the bitter war of rates which was waged. The condition of the crops thus far was never better. Immigration continues on a scale of unprece-

dented magnitude. In the foreign markets American securities have been nearly steady, but the buying here for foreign account has ceased for the time, and in its place there has been some selling.

The Cincinnati *Gazette* makes some pointed observations on the results of Prince Bismarck's protective tariff in Germany and its bearings upon American agriculture. The cost of wheat flour has been advanced to the German consumer 10 per cent., that of American bacon 20 per cent., butter 10 per cent., lard 40 per cent., beans and peas 10 per cent., and so on. There has been no corresponding increase in the wages of German workingmen. Consequently the conditions of life have been made harder in Germany. The importation of American farm products has been curtailed, and the exportation of German manufactures diminished, by the new tariff policy. The *Gazette* wonders how the American protectionists would like to have this policy adopted by European countries generally—a very pertinent inquiry, and one which they will be in no haste to answer. The first effect of such a policy would be to reduce the profits of farming in this country, in consequence of the foreign duty on American agricultural products. The next effect would be to set the Western farmer to studying the philosophy of tariffs. The pressure upon his pocket-nerve would cause him to master the subject in a very short space of time. He would then wax exceeding wroth, and his members of Congress would take a death-hug at the tariff. Whenever the Western farmers lift their finger in the way of admonition, protection in this country is doomed. Perhaps Bismarck's tariff will help some of them to see where their interests lie. If so, it will not be without its uses on this side of the water, whatever may be its effect at home.

Mr. Gladstone has made the announcement, which has been expected for some days, ever since the resignation of Earl Cowper, the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, that the policy of the Government toward Ireland is to undergo a change; that the Coercion Act, which expires, we believe, in September, is not to be renewed; that the three imprisoned members of Parliament are to be released, and that the release of the other suspects will soon follow; but that there has been no bargain with the Parnellites, and that the payment of the arrears of rents will be provided for. All this was foreshadowed last week by the unusual suavity of tone in which Mr. Sexton, who is now the leader of the Home Rulers, spoke of Mr. Gladstone, and he has formally received the Premier's last statement as the first step toward the establishment of permanent peace and good-will between England and Ireland. Mr. Forster's resignation is part of the programme, the reason assigned for it being his unwillingness to share the responsibility of the new departure. But, of course, his withdrawal was a necessary condition of the change. No policy of conciliation could be carried out through him even if he were ready to try it, owing to the way in which, whether justly or unjustly, his administration of the Coercion Act has made him obnoxious. He has, however, in addition to this, fatal defects of manner and temper for any Irish office. He is one of those excellent Englishmen whom no foreigner can abide in any place of authority, simply because they are so good and conscientious that they feel they cannot make a mistake, and that there is a certain depravity in resisting them.

There is some talk of putting an Irishman in his place, and Mr. Shaw, one of the members for Cork, and a man of very high character, has been mentioned for it; but he has probably, as all other Irish members of his way of thinking have, the defect of not being sure of his seat. Any one who accepts the Chief Secretaryship would have to be reëlected, and it is generally believed that those Irish members who refused to accept the Parnell programme have no chance of being returned again, at least by any constituency in the south or west. This consideration, if well founded, would restrict the choice of the Ministry, if they determined to put an Irishman in the place, to the immediate followers of Mr. Parnell, and for one of these English opinion is probably not prepared. Consequently there is some danger that the process of conciliation may not be as thorough as any such process should always be. Half-hearted, grudging, and distrustful conciliation is hardly ever successful, and probably the happiest stroke Mr. Gladstone could now make would be the offer of the Chief Secretaryship to Mr. Parnell. If Ireland were governed simply for herself, this stroke he would probably make; but the great curse of Ireland is, and has been for centuries, that she has to be governed, not in the manner which will please Irish constituencies, but in the manner which will please English constituencies, so that the office will probably be again given to an Englishman. It is very questionable, too, whether Mr. Shaw, or any other Irish member of his type, would lose his seat if he took office under a régime of conciliation. At all events the experiment would be worth trying, and there can be no real turning over of a new leaf without it.

Lord Spencer takes the Lord-Lieutenancy for the present, having filled the office already when Mr. Gladstone was last in power, but there are rumors that it will be eventually offered to Lord Dufferin. Lord Dufferin has the merit for the place of being an Irishman, and a very clever and agreeable one, but he has for the present crisis the fatal defect of being a landlord who has spoken and written much against the Land Act, and is hostile to the Ulster Tenant Right, and has not been thought very generous or considerate in the management of his own property. There was a period in Irish politics when it was enough for a gentleman to be genial in his manners in order to be popular, but that time has long gone by. The Irish temper has changed much within forty years. It is now somewhat sour and suspicious, and allows nothing to excuse any unwillingness to meet the requirements of the prevailing political creed. The Catholic clergy have already had plenty of rather startling experience on this point, and no layman need look for allowances which have been denied to priests.

It looks now as if there was to be a race between the Conservatives and Liberals for the favor of the Irish tenants. The Ministry has admitted that the failure of the Land Act to deal with the arrears of rent in existence at its passage is a serious obstacle to the pacification of the country, and that these arrears will probably have to be paid by the Government from some source—admissions which seem to be working a reconciliation between Mr. Gladstone and the Parnellites. But now come the Tories, in the person of Mr. Smith, and propose to do better than this—namely, to advance any tenant all the money he needs to buy his farm from his landlord in fee, leaving him to make his own bargain, on such terms as to interest and repayment of the principal that he shall not in any one year have to pay back more than his present annual rent. This goes far beyond the purchase clauses of the Land Act, which only provide for the advance of one-third of the purchase money, and fix the number of years' rental on which the price shall be based. It is more than probable now that some grand and very revolutionary settlement is at hand, but it is both melancholy and true, that, if this great deliverance of the Irish tenant comes to pass, he will feel that he owes it, like so many other good things, to persistent murder, outrage and intimidation. These are the arguments, he perceives, which tell on the English mind. His groans and moans and entreaties and denunciations amuse the Saxon, who never believes that he means business till he gets a gun and begins popping at his enemies from behind hedges.

Mr. Montagu Williams, the counsel in the Lamson case, has written to the papers alleging that no suggestion of the prisoner's insanity was made to him by any one before the trial; that his instructions were simply to deny the murder and contest the conclusions of the medical chemists. This has been drawn forth by a suggestion of negligence in not pleading insanity which the unhappy father has made in his agony. It is obvious that if counsel were to be called to account for not pleading insanity every time a murderer who did plead insanity was hanged, even though his client never mentioned it, no other defence would ever be made, and the risks of the accused would be greatly increased. A plea of insanity is virtually confession and avoidance. In other words, a prisoner who makes it acknowledges the killing, but says he was not responsible when he did it. No counsel now dares to make such a defence without positive instructions from his client or the client's family, for it is essentially the plea of desperation. The assertion of one of our contemporaries here, that Mr. Williams's failure to plead insanity was due to the English usage which keeps barristers from communicating with their clients, would hardly have been made by one whose knowledge of English procedure had any better source than the report of Bardell *versus* Pickwick. No barrister ever defends a murderer without seeing his client.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

MR. BLAINE continued his testimony before the House Investigating Committee on Wednesday. He stated that in the diary of President Garfield no mention whatever was ever made of Shipherd, the Cochet claim, or the Peruvian Company. He produced the draft of the Trescot instructions, which was shown to President Arthur and amended at the President's suggestion, and denied that he had ever "interpolated a word, or a line, or a syllable, or an idea." He also denied that he had assumed to act as President *de facto*, or that he was engaged during the President's illness in "blocking out a great foreign policy and precipitating it on the country between the lives of two Presidents." Mr. Perry Belmont then proceeded to question Mr. Blaine, with a view to finding out what led him to press the Landreau claim, and a wordy sparring match ensued between the two. Mr. Blaine was witty but evasive, and did little to clear the matter up. On Thursday the examination was continued by Mr. Belmont, and an extraordinary scene ensued. Mr. Blaine complained that Mr. Belmont had misquoted his despatches, which Mr. Belmont refused to admit, saying that certain quotation marks were the mistake of the printer, but that the language of the despatches bore the construction which he (Mr. Belmont) had put upon it. After a few more words had passed between the two, Mr. Belmont said that Mr. Blaine's conduct had been such as to relieve him of all the consideration which he had intended to show to him as a man who had held the high position of Secretary of State, and that Mr. Blaine had now put himself on a level with any witness who might appear before the Committee, and he would proceed to examine him in that light. This inauspicious beginning of the examination led to an altercation—which was but the first of a series—in which Mr. Blaine said the "insolence of this young man (Mr. Belmont) is intolerable," and that he had no more regard for his insolence than "he would have for that of a garbage boy in the street"; and Mr. Belmont retorted that Mr. Blaine had had experience before committees, and had acted in the same way and for a like purpose, but that he would not do it again with him. The examination then continued, interspersed with scenes like the above, until Mr. Belmont remarked that he had finished his questions. Mr. Blaine then rose to make a statement, in the course of which he asserted that Mr. Belmont had intentionally misinterpreted his despatches, and requested that he should apologize therefor, and finished by saying that Mr. Belmont had stated "that which is not the truth, absolutely not the truth, and without any semblance of truth." Mr. Belmont then rose, considerably excited, and repeated that he was not responsible for the printer's mistake in regard to the quotation marks, but that the construction which he had put on the despatch was the correct one, and that he would leave it to those who "chose to read the despatch carefully" to decide between them. Mr. Blaine then repeated his statement in a different form, and Mr. Belmont, after repeating his explanation, said: "As to your reassertion about the character of my statement, my course of action in that regard will be conveyed to you in private. I do not propose to make any scene with you, or to make any capital one way or the other. You may do that if you please. I think that that is your method. I think that is what you are usually guilty of. I think you are a bully and a coward." To which Mr. Blaine replied: "Mr. Chairman, this man has disgraced his place. He is the organ of men who are behind him. He was put here to insult me. I beg to say that he cannot do it. I recognize that he is speaking for men behind him." After a few more words from Mr. Belmont, this extraordinary scene ended. It created considerable excitement in Washington, and rumors of challenges were rife. On Friday Mr. Belmont addressed a letter to the chairman of the Committee, in which he said that during the two days of the examination "provocation so gross and persistent was offered to me by the witness, that I was led to use language which, though unparliamentary, did properly describe his conduct and my appreciation of his character," and suggested that "these unparliamentary personalities be expunged from the records of the Committee."

On Monday Senator Blair, whom Shipherd had stated to be the counsel for the Peruvian Company, read a long statement before the Committee, largely devoted to a recital of the considerations of public policy which had caused him to take an interest in a project such as Shipherd's had appeared to him to be, for the advancement of American interests in South America. He said he had agreed to act as counsel for the company on the condition that if it seemed probable at any time that there would be Congressional action affecting the interests of the company, he should be allowed to sever his connection. In explanation of the letters which he was said by Shipherd to have written him, in which he told the latter, in effect, to act as if American ships-of-war were already on their way to South America, and made statements which, it was thought, must have been made in pursuance of assurances from the State Department that the Government was to lend its influence to aid the claims of the company, Mr. Blair said that these expressions were based upon his own ideas of what the Government ought to do and what it would do.

The Anti-Chinese Immigration Bill was passed by the Senate on Friday, but will have to go back to the House for concurrence in the amendments made by the Senate. These amendments are unimportant.

Senator Edmunds made an oral report, by instruction of the Senate Committee on the Judiciary, on Monday, upon the President's message concerning the cowboy disturbances in Arizona, which suggested certain enabling legislation for the use of the Army as a *posse comitatus*. Mr. Edmunds said he had been instructed to say that in the opinion of the Committee there was no need of any further legislation, for the reason that the President had ample power, under the existing laws, to put down the disturbances referred to in his message.

On Saturday the House of Representatives declared, by a vote of 124 to 71, that John R. Lynch was entitled to the seat in the House from the Sixth District of Mississippi in the place of General James R. Chalmers. It was proved conclusively that there had been gross frauds perpetrated to give General Chalmers the seat. Mr. Lynch, who is colored, made an eloquent speech in support of his claim on Thursday.

The House of Representatives on Monday, by a vote of 150 to 65, fixed Tuesday of next week for the consideration of the bill to provide that the charters of nationa banks may be extended.

President Arthur has addressed a communication to our representative at St. Petersburg, directing him to invite the attention of the Czar to the atrocities committed upon the Jews in his dominion, to express the horror that was felt in this country in relation to their perpetration, and to ask him to exercise his authority to prevent their recurrence.

Ralph Waldo Emerson died at Concord, Massachusetts, on Thursday morning, of acute pneumonia.

The Republican State Convention of Tennessee met on Thursday and adopted a platform declaring against the repudiation of the State bonds, and favoring the acceptance of the proposition of the holders of the bonds to take sixty cents on the dollar and a lower rate of interest; opposing convict labor; declaring that the improvement of the navigation of the Mississippi, the Tennessee, and Cumberland Rivers and their tributaries is a proper matter for Congressional action; denouncing the Democratic opposition to internal improvement as Bourbonism not in harmony with the spirit of the new South; calling upon the Senators and Representatives in Congress to protect the coal, iron, cotton, and tobacco interests of the State by appropriate legislation; and declaring that President Arthur "has proved himself fully worthy of the confidence of the Republican party." Governor Hawkins was unanimously renominated for Governor.

At an Anti-Chinese State Convention in San Francisco, on Wednesday night, resolutions were adopted providing for boycotting the Chinese and all who deal with them, and pledging the members to assist when called upon in an overwhelming demonstration of public opinion and the power of numbers to prevent the landing of Chinese after a reasonable notice has been given. The delegates to the Convention were from trades assemblies.

Montford C. Rerdell, the indictment against whom was quashed last week, on account of a small technical error, was brought up for trial in the police court on Wednesday. Rerdell was ex-Senator Dorsey's secretary and agent, and as his case is inextricably mixed up with the cases against the other Star-route conspirators, the hearing was of great importance. Ex-Attorney-General Wayne MacVeagh and ex-Postmaster-General James appeared as witnesses for the Government. Mr. MacVeagh testified that Rerdell had voluntarily made important confessions to him at various times. He had told him that he had kept certain books and accounts which would show that Second Assistant Postmaster-General Brady was to receive a very large percentage of the money secured by any increase or expedition in the Star-routes, and that large sums were put down in the accounts as having been paid to Brady under an assumed name. Rerdell said that during the Congressional investigation which followed Brady's demand for $2,000,000, there was great alarm lest these books should be called for, and he pleaded sickness in order to postpone his examination by the Committee until a new set of books could be made in which these entries would not appear, and such new books were made under his direction. Rerdell described the money arrangements between Brady and the Dorsey combination, which he said were well understood by all the parties interested. These "money arrangements" were nothing more nor less than a system by which Brady got appropriations for the Post-office Department, and divided with the Dorsey combination. Mr. MacVeagh's testimony in regard to Rerdell's confession to him, of which the above is but a small part, was of great interest and importance. Mr. James testified that Rerdell had made a statement to him similar to that made to Mr MacVeagh, and that he afterward met Rerdell on the train between New York and Washington. At Trenton the conductor came in with two telegrams for Rerdell, who read them and handed them to Mr. James. They were from Dorsey, and in the first one, as far as Mr. James could recollect, he said, "We should not part in anger. Get off at Philadelphia and return." In the second he said, "You must not ruin my wife and family. Be sure and get off at Philadelphia and return." Rerdell said he would not get off, but would come to Washington and show the books to Mr. MacVeagh. On Thursday, Inspector P. H. Woodward, of the Post-office Department, testified in regard to Rerdell's confession. His testimony coincided in all particulars with the statements made by Mr. MacVeagh and Mr. James, but he testified in addition that Rerdell had said that the Dorsey combination had paid shares of mining stock to First Assistant Postmaster-General Tyner and Mr. A. M. Gibson, who was for some time a special officer of the Department of Justice. Mr. Gibson has denied that any mining stock was ever given or sold to him by Dorsey or the combination. Friday was taken up with record

evidence concerning one of the Dorsey routes, and Inspector Woodward was again a witness. The hearing was then adjourned until Thurs day, May 4, which is the day set for the beginning of the main trials.

The New York *Times* published on Thursday an account of the general condition of the crops throughout the country, from which it appears that the small grains promise well. Winter wheat will give an increased yield in nearly every State except Indiana, Ohio, and New York ; the last-named will produce much less than usual. The crop of spring wheat will be much larger than usual. In the great grain States west of the Mississippi the increase is especially marked, being in some cases as much as 50 per cent. In some of the old grain States, other grains—barley, oats, and rye especially—are replacing wheat, but in all of these States a large increase in acreage is reported and a large crop probable. Corn shows a very large increase in nearly every State in which it is cultivated at all. Cotton is expected to give at least an average crop, although the area devoted to it, owing to the floods, the partial abandonment of the "all-cotton" system, and the inability of the planters to obtain sufficient supplies, is much smaller than usual. The sugar-cane crop is looking exceedingly well, except, of course, in the flooded districts, where it has been killed. An average crop of tobacco and rice will be secured. Hay and grass crops have been much injured throughout the country, and a light yield is expected. The high price of potatoes has led farmers to devote an increased acreage to that vegetable this year. The fruit crop looks bad. Frosts have greatly injured peaches and small fruit in Virginia, Maryland, Delaware, and the Hudson valley. The great cattle-raising interests in the West are very flourishing, owing to the mild winter.

A great monopoly has been created by the union of the Edison Electric Light Company with the Gramme Electrical Company. By this combination the several large companies that control all the patents applying to existing systems of lighting by electricity are formed into one organization.

FOREIGN.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday Mr. Redmond, moving the second reading of the Land Law of Ireland Act Amendment Bill, drafted by Mr. Parnell, said he believed the necessity for amendment of the act is recognized by everybody both in and out of the House, and he believed the bill to be a crushing answer to the accusation that the Irish party desires to deprive tenants of the benefits of the Land Act. Mr. Gladstone, although he said the Government could not support the bill, praised the system for settling arrears sketched in it. He said he considered that relief should take the form of a gift and not of a loan. He saw in the Irish Bill the first gleam of hope on a dark subject; for, although he was confident of the power of the Empire, compulsion, he declared, was completely alien to the spirit of the Constitution. Mr. Gladstone referred to the proposals which he said it might be the duty of the Government to introduce during the present session for the direct purpose of maintaining peace in Ireland, and said he approved the application of the Irish Church Surplus Fund to aiding tenants in arrears, but feared the fund was not large enough for the purpose. Messrs. Healy, O'Shea, and Macfarlane expressed satisfaction with Mr. Gladstone's statement, and Mr. Healy said he believed the intentions of the Government, as indicated by Mr. Gladstone, were sincere. Lord Fitz-Maurice, Liberal, maintained that any plan for dealing with arrears should be compulsory. He declared that unless this question was dealt with, and a state of things introduced enabling the parties affected to start afresh, there would never be any peace or quiet in Ireland. He suggested that Griffith's valuation be established as the basis of rents until the Land Court should be able to fix them. Mr. Forster then announced that the Land Commission would issue a circular giving notice that it is ready to send a valuator to farms where landlords and tenants agree to accept his decision. This speech of Mr. Gladstone's, and the interchange of civilities between him and the Land Leaguers, were considered as indicating a change of policy in Irish affairs, an impression which was strengthened by the resignation of Earl Cowper, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, and the appointment of Earl Spencer in his place. On Friday, when Mr. Joseph Cowen asked, in the House of Commons, whether the imprisoned members of Parliament, who had been arrested because they obstructed the Land Act, would now be released, since Mr. Gladstone had approved the bill drafted by Mr. Parnell, Mr. Gladstone replied that Mr. Forster would soon enter fully into the subject, as the question could not be answered in the scope of a simple reply to a question.

In the House of Lords on Monday evening, Earl Granville, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, announced the resignation of Mr. W. E. Forster, Chief Secretary for Ireland, and the intention of the Government to release the three imprisoned members of Parliament. He explained that Earl Cowper had not resigned the Lord-Lieutenancy on account of any differences with the Government in regard to its policy. He added that the Government had no new policy to announce in regard to Ireland, but that the Coercion Act would not be renewed, and that the Government intended to deal with the question of arrears of rent and the Bright clauses of the Land Act. He said that the cases of the other suspects would be reconsidered with a view to their ultimate release, but that this reconsideration would not be extended to the case of Michael Davitt. In the House of Commons Mr. Gladstone made an announcement similar to that of Earl Granville in the House of Lords. He said that the Government, instead of renewing the Coercion Act, would introduce a measure remedying the administration of justice in Ireland, which measure, he said, would deal with the protection of life and property. In regard to coercion, however, he said that if peace and security should be jeopardized by the action of secret societies, the Government would consider it its duty to propose counteracting measures. He declared that the Government did not think the Coercion Act had failed, as it had served an important purpose in a great crisis. Mr. Forster, he said, had resigned because he was not willing to share the responsibility of the release of the suspects. Mr. Gladstone warmly praised the manner in which Mr. Forster had performed his duties, and expressed regret at his retirement. He declared further that none of the measures announced in the Queen's speech at the opening of the session, except the resolutions in regard to the rules of parliamentary procedure, would be allowed to stand in the way of the measures which the Government would introduce for restoring peace and order in Ireland.

Mr. Sexton, at the conclusion of Mr. Gladstone's speech, said that the Government had taken the first step in a policy that would crown its administration with glory, and would produce ties of mutual interest between Ireland and England, while Sir Stafford Northcote compared the Government to a pendulum swinging from one side back to another. The London *Times* says that this new policy now to be tried in Ireland is to be one of concession and conciliation pure and simple.

Messrs. Parnell, Dillon, and O'Kelly were released from Kilmainham jail on Tuesday night. There was great excitement in Dublin on the reception of the news of the resignation of Mr. Forster. Crowds gathered in the streets, and cheered for Mr. Parnell and groaned for Mr. Forster, and bands paraded the city playing the national airs. It is said that the Right Hon. Joseph Chamberlain, President of the Board of Trade, or Mr. George Shaw-Lefevre, Commissioner of Works and Buildings, will probably succeed Mr. Forster.

The Lords' Committee on the Land Act has made a preliminary report, in which exception is taken to the manner in which the decisions of the sub-commissions in regard to fair rent are given. The report declares the purchase clauses of the Land Act to be a failure, and specially recommends that purchase money be advanced by the state at 3 per cent. interest, repayment to be made in instalments of 3¼ per cent. for sixty-six years, or of 4 per cent. for forty-six years ; that the cost of the scheme be defrayed by the Church Surplus Fund ; that a special department be created to carry out this scheme, and that all arrears accrued before 1878 be cancelled, and those accrued since be capitalized and added to the purchase money.

Mr. Darwin's funeral and interment took place in Westminster Abbey on Wednesday. The pall-bearers were Mr. Lowell, the Duke of Argyll, Lord Derby, Professor Huxley, Sir Joseph Hooker, Sir John Lubbock, Alfred Russel Wallace, and William Spottiswoode. Many other distinguished men were present.

Prince Leopold was married to Princess Helena of Waldeck, on Thursday, with great pomp, at St. George's Chapel, in Windsor. The Archbishop of Canterbury was the chief officiating clergyman, and was assisted by the Bishops of London, Oxford, Worcester, and Winchester and the Dean of Windsor. There was a great crowd of distinguished and titled persons present.

Dr. Lamson was hung for the murder of his brother-in-law, Percy Malcolm John, a student at Blenheim House School, on Friday morning. He showed great nervousness at the gallows.

An imperial order has been promulgated in Russia directing extraordinary measures to be taken for the public safety in the Government of Nicolaieff and the city of Sebastapol, and placing both under the jurisdiction of General Gurko. It is also stated that the details have been settled of a plan for the construction of new forts at Warsaw, Kovno, and Gonionds. The forts are to be completed in 1892, and will cost sixty million rubles.

Another plot to kill the Czar has been discovered. A man named Bogdanovitsch recently submitted to the authorities a plan for the illumination of the Kremlin by electric light. Inquiries were instituted, and it was discovered that the intention was to blow up the whole Kremlin during the festivities attending the coronation of the Czar. At Bogdanovitsch's residence there were found a number of peasants' caps, the crowns of which were filled with explosive material. It is supposed that these caps were intended to be thrown into the air in greeting to the Czar, and that on falling to the ground their contents would have the effect of bombs. Bogdanovitsch and 300 Nihilists have been arrested.

Many shops and houses belonging to the Jews were destroyed by fire on Tuesday, the 26th, in the town of Kamenetz, in the Government of Podolsk. The damage is estimated at 500,000 rubles. In the House of Commons Thursday evening, Sir Charles Dilke, Under Foreign Secretary, replying to Baron de Worms, stated that the British Consul at Odessa had confirmed the reports of anti-Jewish atrocities at Balta. One person was killed and many others wounded.

Premier de Freycinet received the *bureau* of the Committee on the Franco-American treaty on Monday. One of the spokesmen stated that American opinion seemed to be veering from the system of high tariffs, and he thought the present was an opportune moment for endeavoring to improve commercial relations with the United States. M. de Freycinet replied that he was favorable to the idea of a treaty of commerce between the two republics.

TUESDAY, May 2, 1882.

BLAINE-BELMONT.

THE quarrel between Mr. Blaine and Mr. Belmont was a very unseemly exhibition, the occurrence of which every good citizen will sincerely deplore. But it was not a mere encounter of insignificant persons pelting each other with unsavory epithets; and, being connected with an affair of great moment, it cannot be passed over as an ordinary brawl would be. Mr. Blaine had asked to be heard by the House Committee on Foreign Affairs about his official conduct as Secretary of State with regard to the Peruvian difficulty, his evident object being to disarm the criticism that conduct had met with. Mr. Blaine is one of the most skilful public speakers in the country, and understands to perfection the art of arranging light and shade in the presentation of a subject. He made an elaborate statement before the Committee in his own peculiar way, and the Committee did not seem disposed to subject his statements to any further examination, when Mr. Belmont, its youngest member, undertook that task. It was a somewhat risky venture, for Mr. Blaine is also known as a parliamentary pugilist of careful training and large experience—full of resource, quick at repartee, and a perfect master of every trick of the trade, from the explosion of indignant wrath and of defiant patriotism down to a cajoling smile or even the blush of modesty. Mr. Belmont, on the other hand, is a young man, of scarcely any experience on the political stage, very little parliamentary training and practice, and but a limited knowledge of affairs. But he is said to take his duties as a member of Congress in very solemn earnest, to work hard to inform himself, and generally to devote himself with great energy and singleness of purpose to the business before him. That in an encounter of wit and repartee he would prove no match for Mr. Blaine was to be expected; but he seems to have undertaken the perilous task of getting at the bottom truth, which would have discouraged other people, simply because other members of the Committee did not undertake it, but seemed rather inclined to let Mr. Blaine off on his own showing.

This sort of courage deserves respect. There is no doubt that Mr. Belmont honestly believed that Mr. Blaine had used the Landreau claim to force a difficulty between the United States and Chili by making demands which notoriously could not be complied with, and that a certain passage in one of Mr. Blaine's despatches would bear out such a construction if rightly interpreted. Mr. Blaine employed all his art to evade the point and to envelop the question in clouds of words, but Mr. Belmont, with dogged perseverance, would always return to the same sore spot and try to push the probe into it. This is what irritated Mr. Blaine so that he actually lost his temper. He has gone through too many experiences to lose his temper easily. He apparently lets it go sometimes, when, in fact, he has it under perfect control; but this time he actually lost it. When he saw that neither wit, nor sarcasm, nor the loftiest assertion of superiority, nor the profoundest patriotic indignation the most experienced stump-speaker can express, nor the most skilful feints and thrusts of the dialectic fencer, could divert this stubborn young man from that one point, he got actually angry, and used expressions which a man advanced in years, with the consciousness of a perfectly clear cause and the feeling of true moral superiority in him, would probably not have used against one so much younger, so little experienced, and having the sympathy of the bystanders against him.

The real trouble, and the true cause of Mr. Blaine's anger, was that Mr. Belmont, in his construction of the meaning of the despatch, was substantially right. Other acts of Mr. Blaine concerning the same subject, taken in connection with the despatch, will only strengthen that impression with every candid mind. But it receives especial strength from the extraordinary variety of expedients Mr. Blaine resorted to under Mr. Belmont's stubborn examination. Now he asserted that everything he did was inspired by the most ardent devotion to the cause of peace; and then he represented the war in South America as an attack, not by Chili, but by England upon Peru for the sake of plunder, and gave us to understand that, if he had had his way, England would not have got that plunder without fighting for it. Now by a most wonderful perversion of technical terms he spoke of the Landreau claim as a thing he was in duty bound to take up without further inquiry—*res adjudicata*—because one House of Congress had recommended it while the other refused to notice it, and because the State Department had declared it to be deserving inquiry, without passing upon its merits and without expressing the least inclination to enforce it—the most marvellous doctrine of *res adjudicata* ever heard of; and then again he represented the same Landreau claim as a thing of no importance, which had absolutely no influence upon his diplomatic action. Mr. Blaine has, in this very examination, been on so many sides of every question that he authorizes us to use our discretion in judging where he really was. And looking calmly at the whole case, most people will come to the conclusion that Mr. Belmont was not far out of the way.

It should be remembered also, to Mr. Belmont's credit, that he is the only member of the Committee who from the first showed any desire to make the Peruvian investigation thorough. When Shipherd first appeared before the Committee he seems to have so frightened them by a vague intimation that he would, if called upon, make unpleasant revelations about the share of Congressmen in his business, that they promptly resolved that the investigation should not include Congressmen. Mr. Belmont defeated this little plan by introducing a resolution into the House, against which no one dared to vote, directing the Committee to inquire with respect to all persons whatsoever.

FRENCH FINANCE.

WE called attention last September to a very sharp attack made on the financial system of the French Republic, by M. Cucheval-Clarigny in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, in which he pronounced the budgets for several years back wholly deceptive. He maintained that there had really been a deficit in every year since 1875 for which a surplus had been announced, owing to the growth of the floating debt under the baneful system of opening "supplemental credits," on the mere decree of the Executive, which the Republic has inherited from the Empire. The weight of M. Cucheval-Clarigny's attack was, however, much diminished by the fact that he was an old Bonapartist, and was therefore, like all the Bonapartists, open to the suspicion of being ready to say anything to damage the Republic.

Another and more damaging criticism has now made its appearance in the same magazine, from the pen of an economist, M. Leroy-Beaulieu, whose loyalty to the established régime is unquestioned, and whose authority as a financier is very high. He declares that French finances are in a condition which, if not critical, is one from which serious injury to the public credit might any day result. One has only to read his statement to understand the rapidity with which M. Léon Say reversed the foreign policy of Gambetta's ministry, and withdrew France completely from everything having an appearance of foreign adventure. In fact, it explains the aversion with which nearly all French politicians at this moment regard war, and makes it almost certain that no European complication, involving France in the smallest degree, is likely to be brought about at present with her consent or connivance.

The situation as described by M. Leroy-Beaulieu is in brief this: There is a floating debt of nearly $600,000,000; ordinary annual appropriations of $600,000,000 more; a burden of taxation, including that of the Departments and Communes, of $800,000,000; and an annual outlay of one sort or another of about $1,000,000,000. This enormous floating debt is created in very much the manner described by M. Cucheval-Clarigny. Owing to a long-established and very bad practice of French finance, the budget of each year is made up and passed before the accounts of the previous year have been settled. The estimates consequently are always based, not on the result of the previous year, but on that of the year before. If the year before has shown a surplus, it is assumed that the succeeding year did so also, when it may really have shown a deficit. In this way errors of the grossest kind are carried forward, increasing as they go. This would perhaps be of less consequence if when discovered they were dealt with in the ordinary budget. But they are not. In the ordinary budget nothing is allowed to appear which does not look pleasant. The errors and deficits of past years are thrust aside into the floating debt, and this is nearly every year increased by supplemental credits opened after the regular budget has been passed, for all sorts of purposes, and of late years with a recklessness which has been by no means heretofore a characteristic of French finance even in the Imperial days.

One great cause of this recklessness is the gradual substitution in the Chambers of the American for the English method of dealing with the estimates. From the Restoration down to 1875, the budget had been left in France, as in England, completely in charge of the Ministry, which was held in the main

responsible for it, and had to stand or fall by it. Individual members undoubtedly criticised it, as they do in the British House of Commons, and moved the reduction or erasure of this or that item. But the English rule, that the budget as a whole must not be attacked so as to upset it, or disturb its equilibrium, unless with the view of declaring the total incompetence of the Ministry, and their expulsion from office, was, on the whole, followed. Lately, however, and notably since 1875, the year in which the tide began to turn after the confusion and distress of the war, the individual members have broken through this rule, and, like our Representatives, have no hesitation in making any breaches they please in the Minister's scheme, and seizing on as much of his resources as they can reach, either for the benefit of "the deestreect," or for any interest which each happens to have taken under his special protection. One demands an increase of salaries for the Custom-house officers or the letter-carriers; another wants to have more done for the schools, or for the roads, or the museums, and so on. The result of this system in 1881 was that an apparent surplus of $47,000,000 ended in a real deficit of $2,500,000. In fact, the Minister, as soon as the years of prosperity began, practically lost control of the finances, or had to share it with the whole Chamber. It was no wonder that under these circumstances M. Léon Say, when he took office, peremptorily abandoned the enterprising foreign policy of his predecessors, set aside their extensive scheme of public improvements, and refused to consider the purchase of the great railroads.

What adds to the difficulty of the situation is that the Government owes the savings-banks an enormous sum—about $285,000,000, a large part of which it has used in public improvements, and of which $100,000,000 has not been funded in any way, and really constitutes an item in the floating debt—on which it is paying four per cent. interest, which the depositors could not on similar security get anywhere. Nevertheless, nothing is done to reduce this interest, for the same reason which prevents the refunding of the five per cent. loans raised during the war, and which, like the savings-bank deposits, are widely distributed among the peasantry and workingmen, whom the Republic does not care to offend. But, as M. Leroy-Beaulieu points out, suppose there should come another cataclysm like the war of 1870, and the Treasury should be plunged in difficulties, and become even temporarily unable to take care of the savings-bank deposits which it now holds in cash, how terribly the alarm and discontent inseparable from such a situation would be aggravated.

As to the remedy, to fund the floating debt at once would need a loan of at least $300,000,000, and this it is not supposed the money market would bear at present, except on terms which would be very injurious to the public credit, and M. Léon Say virtually pledged himself, on taking office, not to make a new loan. So he proposes to get out of his difficulties by distributing a part of the floating debt through the appropriations of several years, and by funding, in non-negotiable three per cents, the amount the Government owes as trustee, or about $240,000,000. This of course looks very like a new loan, and many critics ask, What is it but a loan? But M. Léon Say maintains that inasmuch as it will not go on the market, and be bought or sold or transferred, it will have none of the bad features of a loan, and will have the great merit of bringing something like order into the existing confusion. It is quite certain, however, that no matter how well he may manage, we shall not for some years see any revival of the old French love of adventure, and shall probably not see any revival of Gambetta's influence until the financial horizon is clearer, for he represents, more than any other man of prominence in France, the unknown and the expensive, both in home and foreign policy.

EMERSON.

THE almost simultaneous deaths of Adams and Jefferson seemed scarcely more remarkable to their contemporaries than is the closeness in time between the funerals of the two authors who have most contributed to the literary fame of the United States during the last half century. And, looking across the water, the nearness between the deaths of Darwin and of Emerson reminds us that each was in his way the founder of a school of thought, and that by this joint bereavement both England and America lose their recognized intellectual leaders.

It is sometimes doubtful whether one who initiates a fresh impulse, whether in literature or in life, does it with full and conscious purpose. There can be no such doubt in the case of Emerson. From the beginning to the end of his first volume ('Nature'), the fact is clear that it was consciously and deliberately a new departure. Those ninety brief pages were an undisguised challenge to the world. On the very first page the author complains that our age is retrospective—that others have "beheld God and nature face to face; we only through their eyes. Why should not we," he says, "also enjoy an original relation to the universe? Why should not we have a poetry and philosophy of insight and not of tradition?" Thus the book begins, and on the very last page it ends, "Build, therefore, your own world!" At any time, and under any conditions, the first reading of such words by any young person would be a great event in life, but in the comparative conventionalism of the literature of that period it was a new heaven and a new earth. And it was soon followed by other similar appeals. On the very first page of the first number of the *Dial* (July, 1840) the editors speak of "the strong current of thought and feeling which for a few years past has led many sincere persons in New England to make new demands on literature, and to repudiate that rigor of our conventions of religion and education which is turning us to stone."

Emerson's "Thoughts on Modern Literature," contained in the second number of the *Dial* (October, 1840), struck the keynote of a wholly new demand. In this he has a frank criticism of Goethe, whom he boldly arraigns for not rising above the sphere of the conventional. Goethe, he says, tamely takes life as it is, "accepts the base doctrine of Fate, and gleans what straggling joys may yet remain out of its ban."

"He was content to fall into the track of vulgar poets, and spend on common aims his splendid endowments, and has declined the office proffered now and then a man in many centuries in the power of his genius—of a Redeemer of the human mind . . . Let him pass. Humanity must wait for its physician still, at the side of the road, and confess as this man goes out that they have served it better who assured it out of the innocent hope in their hearts that a Physician will come, than this majestic Artist, with all the treasures of wit, of science, and of power at his command."

Again, Emerson says, in the same paper:

"He who doubts whether this age or this country can yield any contribution to the literature of the world only betrays his blindness to the necessities of the human soul." . . . "What shall hinder the Genius of the Time from speaking its thought? It cannot be silent if it would. It will write in a higher spirit, and a wider knowledge, and with a grander practical aim, than ever yet guided the pen of poet; . . . and that which was ecstasy shall become daily bread."

It was the direct influence of words like these to arouse what is the first great need in a new literature—self-reliance. It is said by Plutarch that when Cicero as a young man consulted the oracle at Delphi the advice given him was to make his own genius, and not the opinion of others, the guide of his life. Niebuhr thinks that, if so, this is one of the answers which might tempt one to believe in the actual inspiration of the priestess. The impulse to intellectual self-reliance given in the so-called Transcendental period was responsible for many of the excesses of that time, but it was the only way to make strong men and women. The *Dial* itself revealed liberally some of the follies of the movement it represented, but nothing can ever deprive it of its significance as offering the first distinctly American impulse in literature. And while it is difficult, in this period of perhaps temporary reaction against the ideal school of thought, to fix Emerson's permanent standing among thinkers, his influence as a stimulus was quite unequalled during the era when our original literature was taking form.

It will be remembered by many that during Kossuth's very remarkable tour in this country—when he adapted himself to the local traditions and records of every village as if he had just been editing the local annals of each town—he had the tact to identify Emerson, in his fine way, with Concord, and said in his speech there, turning to him, "You, sir, are a philosopher. Lend me, I pray you, the aid of your philosophical analysis," etc., etc. He addressed him, in short, as if he had been Kant or Hegel. But in reality nothing could be remoter from Emerson than such a philosophic type as this. He was only a philosopher in that ancient sense of which his friend Alcott still offers a fainter adumbration: his mission was to sit, like Socrates, beneath the plane-trees, and offer profound and beautiful aphorisms, without even the vague thread of the Socratic method to tie them together. Once, and once only, in his life he seemed to be approaching the attitude of continuous analysis—that was in his course of lectures on "The Natural Method of Intellectual Philosophy," given in 1858 or thereabouts; the fundamental proposition of these lectures being that "every law of nature is a law of mind," and all material laws are symbolical statements. These few lectures certainly inspired his admirers with the belief that their great poetic seer might commend himself to the systematizers also. But for some reason these lectures have never been published; and Mr. Emerson's latest books had the same detached and fragmentary character as his earliest. He remains still among the poets, not among the philosophic doctors, and must be permanently classified in that manner.

Yet it may be fearlessly said that, within the limits of a single sentence, no man who ever wrote the English tongue has put more meaning into words than Emerson. In his hands, to adopt Ben Jonson's vigorous phrase, words "are

rammed with thought." No one has reverenced the divine art of speech more than Emerson, or practised it more nobly. "The Greeks," he once said in an unpublished lecture, "anticipated by their very language what the best orator could say"; and neither Greek precision nor Roman vigor could produce a phrase that Emerson could not match. Who stands in all literature as the master of condensation if not Tacitus? Yet Emerson, in his speech at the anti-Kansas meeting in Cambridge, quoted that celebrated remark by Tacitus when mentioning that the effigies of Brutus and Cassius were not carried at a certain state funeral; and in translating it, bettered the original. The indignant phrase of Tacitus is, "Præfulgebant . . . eo ipso quod . . . non visebantur," thus giving a grand moral lesson in six words; but Emerson gives it in five, and translates it, even more powerfully: "They glared through their absences." Look through all Emerson's writings, and then consider whether in all literature you can find a man who has better fulfilled that aspiration stated in such condensed words by Joubert, "to put a whole book into a page, a whole page into a phrase, and that phrase into a word." After all, it is phrases and words won like this which give immortality. And if you say that, nevertheless, this is nothing, so long as an author has not given us a system of the universe, it can only be said that Emerson never desired to do this, but left on record the opinion that "it is too young by some ages yet to form a creed." The system-makers have their place, no doubt; but when we consider how many of them have risen and fallen since Emerson began to write—Coleridge, Schelling, Cousin, Comte, Mill, and so on, down to the Hegel of yesterday and the Spencer of to-day—it is really evident that the absence of a system cannot prove much more short-lived than the possession of that commodity.

It must be left for future generations to determine Emerson's precise position even as a poet. There is seen in him the tantalizing combination of the profoundest thoughts with the greatest possible variation in artistic work—sometimes mere boldness and almost waywardness, while at other times he achieves the most exquisite melody touched with a certain wild grace. He has been likened to an æolian harp, which now gives and then perversely withholds its music. Nothing can exceed the perfection of

> "Thou canst not wave thy staff in air
> Nor dip thy paddle in the lake
> But it carves the bow of beauty there,
> And the ripples in rhymes the oar forsake."

Yet within the compass of this same fine poem ("Wood Notes") there are passages which elicited from Theodore Parker, one of the poet's most unfaltering admirers, the opinion that a pine-tree which should talk as Mr. Emerson's tree talks would deserve to be plucked up and cast into the sea. His poetic reputation was distinctly later in time than his fame as an essayist and lecturer; and Horace Greeley was one of the first, if not the first, to claim for him a rank at the very head of our American bards. Like Wordsworth and Tennyson, he educated the public mind to himself. The same verses which were received with shouts of laughter when they first appeared in the *Dial* were treated with respectful attention when collected into a volume, and it was ultimately discovered that they were among the classic poems of all literature. In part this was due to the fact that Emerson actually did what Margaret Fuller had reproached Longfellow for not doing—he took his allusions and his poetic material from the woods and waters around him, and wrote fearlessly even of the humble-bee. This was called by some critics "a foolish affectation of the familiar," but it was recognized by degrees as true art. There was thus a gradual change in the public mind, and it turned out that in the poems of Emerson, not less than in his prose, the birth of a literature was in progress.

It must, on the other hand, be remembered, in justice to the public mind, that Emerson disarmed his critics by some revision of his poems, and they appeared, and actually were, less crude and whimsical when transplanted into the volume. In the very case just mentioned, the original opening,

> "Fine humble-bee! fine humble-bee!"

had a flavor of affectation, whereas the substituted line,

> "Burly, dozing humble-bee,"

added two very effective adjectives to the original description. Again, in the pretty verses about the maiden and the acorn, the lines as originally published stood thus:

> "Pluck it now! In vain—thou canst not!
> It has shot its rootlets down'rd.
> Toy no longer, it has duties;
> It is anchored in the ground."

There probably is not a rougher rhyme in English poetry than that between "down'rd" and "ground"; but, after revision, this softer line was substituted,

> "Its roots have pierced yon shady mound,"

which, if less vigorous, at least propitiates the ear. It is evident from Emerson's criticisms in the *Dial*—as that on Ellery Channing's poems—that he had a horror of what he calls "French correctness," and could more easily pardon what was rough than what was tame. Perhaps he never stated his poetic creed with more delicate felicity than in a letter which he once wrote to a very young aspirant, who sent some juvenile verses to the *Dial* during its last year, and received the following terse and pregnant reply:

> "To ——. Perhaps I shall not print the 'Sunset Thoughts' in the *Dial*. They have truth and earnestness; and a happier hour may add that external perfection which can neither be commanded nor described. Yours,
> "R. W. Emerson."

"Neither commanded nor described"! Never was there a more delicate and suggestive characterization, yet with such a fine evasiveness of meaning that we can fancy the youth to whom it was addressed as meditating on it for months and years without exhausting its flavor. The whole four hundred and seventy-six lines of Horace's "De Arte Poetica" are summed up in those half-dozen words. When it came to passing judgment on the details of poetry, he was sometimes a whimsical critic; his personal favorites were apt to be swans. He undoubtedly felt some recoil from his first ardent praise of Whitman, for instance, and at any rate was wont to protest against his "priapism," as he tersely called it. On the other hand, there were whole classes of writers whom he scarcely recognized at all. This was true of Shelley, for example, about whom he wrote: "Though uniformly a poetic mind, he is never a poet." His estimate of prose authors seemed more definite and trustworthy than of poets, yet he probably never quite appreciated Hawthorne, and certainly discouraged young people from reading his books.

"Of all writers," says Sir Philip Sidney, "the poet is the least liar"; and we might almost say that of all poets Emerson is the most direct and unfaltering in his search for truth. To this must be added, as his highest gift, a nature so noble and so calm that he was never misled for one instant by temper, by antagonism, by controversy. The spirit in which he received and disarmed the criticisms of his colleague, Henry Ware, on the publication of his Divinity Hall address, was the spirit of his whole life; it was "first pure, then peaceable." The final verdict of posterity upon him must be essentially that epitaph which he himself placed upon the grave of the friend and brother-poet who but just preceded him. On his return from Mr. Longfellow's funeral he said to a friend—with that vague oblivion of names which alone beclouded his closing years—"That gentleman whose funeral we have been attending was a sweet and beautiful soul, but I forget his name." These high words of praise might fitly be applied to the speaker himself; and his is a name that will not easily be forgotten.

SUGGESTIONS FOR DEALING WITH THE IRISH PROBLEM.

London, April 13, 1882.

During the last eight months English statesmen have felt themselves in the position of a merchant who, while carrying on his ordinary business in his ordinary way, knows that he has risked his fortunes in an investment from which it is now impossible to escape, which he watches with breathless anxiety from day to day, and which may at any moment bring him, if it continues to sink, to the verge of insolvency. While our political struggles and recriminations go on as usual in England, we are always listening and, so to speak, looking round, to see what is happening in Ireland, doubting whether the great investment which was made in passing the Land Act may not turn out a failure after all. That Act was passed in August last, under a triple pressure—the pressure of the misery and bitterness which had produced a crop of agrarian outrages, the pressure of those outrages which it became necessary to render inexcusable, and the pressure of the Coercion Act, which had been meant to check them till remedial measures could be devised. It was passed in the hope that the peasantry of Ireland would receive it as a message of peace, and find in it a relief from their sufferings, a satisfaction of the claims they had so long urged. Violence, it was trusted, would abate when the justice that had been demanded in vain, and (as Englishmen thought) something more than that justice, was freely offered. When it came into operation, a vehement attempt was made by the irreconcilable section of the Irish Nationalist party to induce the people to have nothing to do with it, and to insist on getting the land at a merely nominal rent. This was met by throwing some of the leaders into prison. The Land Court which the Land Act created was set to work, and applications poured in from the tenants till more than seventy thousand had been received, a number which years would be needed to dispose of. It was assumed that the agrarian outrages would, therefore, begin to decrease. All through the autumn and the winter the returns of crime from Ireland were anxiously watched. For a time they declined, but afterward they rose again, and during the last two months they have been as bad, possibly worse, than they were in the winter of 1880, when the Coercion Bill was decided on. Two or three atrocious murders, and especially that of Mrs. Smythe, a lady killed by three men who, wishing to shoot her brother-in-law, fired recklessly into a carriage in which he was sitting with three friends, have quite recently excited the horror of the English public, and brought the question of what can be done to maintain order in Ireland to the front once more. The existing appliances have evidently failed. The Land Act, although one may hope with Mr. Gladstone that it will ultimately produce contentment, is not working fast enough in that direction. The Preservation of Person and Property Act has enabled the Irish Government

to throw into prison and keep there without trial more than six hundred persons. But it has not extinguished, it has not even diminished, the number of agrarian offences, and though one man may say that things would have been even worse without the terror which it has inspired, another may answer that they might have been better without the exasperation it has provoked.

Thus altogether the general sense of disquietude has ripened in these last weeks into a feeling that something must be done, that we can't go on longer in Ireland as we are doing now, keeping the ordinary law suspended and yet apparently gaining nothing thereby; in a word, that we must have a new departure. But if people are agreed on this, they are agreed on nothing else. The new departure may be in the direction of leniency and concession, or of increased severity. It may change the machinery of administration in Ireland, or it may merely change the men who direct that machinery, and in particular the official head among those men, the Chief Secretary for Ireland. It is such an obvious suggestion, when a campaign is not prospering, to put a new general in command, that no one has been surprised to hear voices raised against Mr. Forster. When he took the place of Chief Secretary just two years ago, every one thought the appointment a good one, and praised him for the public spirit which accepted an office lower in rank than he might have claimed. He has shown many fine qualities in it—industry, patience, honesty, earnestness, humanity, courage. He has worked so hard and been so grossly abused as to have gained much sympathy from Tories as well as Liberals. Even those who blame his methods speak tenderly of himself. But it is undeniable that he has not succeeded, either in Ireland or in the House of Commons. Some complain of his want of tact, others of a disposition to be led by his subordinates, others of an undue aversion to bloodshed; others of a tendency to resort to temporary expedients, instead of governing on fixed principles with an eye to the future. Some who can't indicate any distinct defect observe that he is too much of a commercially-trained Englishman to do for Ireland, and urge that at all hazards an Irishman should be chosen to replace him. Perfectly true; but where is the Irishman? It would be well, no doubt, that, pending the settlement of the Home-Rule question, everything possible should be done to let Ireland be managed, or even mismanaged, rather by her own children than by Englishmen. But no one can point out the man among members from Ireland who unites talents, energy, and high character to a safe seat. And the only persons whom rumor has put forward as possible successors to Mr. Forster are Englishmen—Mr. Chamberlain, Mr. Lefevre, Sir Charles Dilke.

Graver even than the question of bringing in new men is that of proposing new measures. Those who seek a cause for the recrudescence of agrarian outrage during the last month or two have mostly found it in the fact that a great part of the Irish peasantry are still hopelessly in arrears with their rent, unable to pay what the owners demand, and therefore driven to resist by shooting landlords and maltreating such tenants as have, by paying their rent, made it harder for others to refuse to pay. This load of arrears, itself due to the bad harvests of 1878 and 1879, prevents (it is said) the Land Act from having a fair chance, and disposes the people to listen to the no-rent doctrines of the Land League. One proposal, therefore, is to deal with these arrears, either by wiping off a part of them, or by giving time to the tenants, or by some contribution from public funds. The difficulties in the way of such a measure are obvious—one of the greatest being to distinguish between cases in which the tenant cannot, and others in which he merely will not, pay; and its insufficiency to deal with the whole evil appears also from the fact that the outrages are by no means confined to, are not even worst in, the districts where the people are worst off. Hence another scheme is put forward: that of extending and strengthening what are called the purchase clauses of the Land Act—those intended to help the tenant to buy his farm from the landlord. This plan finds support in two opposite quarters—among the Land Leaguers and among the Tories. The former desire it because it would bring Irish real estate into the hands of the peasantry; the latter because it would deliver the Irish landlords from their present wretched position, in which many of them can get no rents from the present tenants because they are either unable or unwilling to pay, and can find no new tenants for the farms from which they evict the present tenants, because the fear of violence or murder prevents new tenants from offering. Within the last week or two the Tories, who even last year were disposed to look favorably on this solution, have begun to throw themselves into it, and have thus given it an importance which the advocacy of the Land Leaguers (had they even been heartily in favor of any solution whatever short of Irish independence) would never have secured for it. Lord Salisbury, in a speech just made at Liverpool, has formally adopted it. The difficulty is to find the money. The peasantry cannot buy out the landlords by their own funds, for they have not enough. If the landlords are to get a fair price for their estates, the money must be either lent or given by, must at any rate come out of, the imperial treasury of the United Kingdom. This is a serious matter, for the sum required, if the operation is to be conducted on a large scale, would be enormous. Mr. Gladstone is known to entertain great objections to it. But we are sure to hear so much more about it before long that I need not stop now to point out the dangers involved in making the Government the creditor and mortgagee of the whole peasantry of the island.

Meanwhile, what is to be done to restore order, to put down outrage and assassination? Those who ask least ask for a strengthening reorganization of the administrative machinery in Ireland. Others demand the suspension of trial by jury for agrarian offences—a suggestion which would have more weight were it not that the difficulty of punishing agrarian crime lies not so much in the reluctance of juries to convict as in the reluctance of witnesses to appear. Even a judge sitting without a jury cannot convict in the absence of evidence. People say that evidence would be forthcoming if the criminals were sure to be convicted, but, unhappily, there is little ground for expecting this. Any witness in an agrarian case is regarded as an informer, and the informer is in Ireland more detested than any criminal: he is shunned, he is threatened; his life is not safe; nothing remains for him but to quit the country. Some Tory organs go so far as to call for the proclamation of martial law, but without showing how even so desperate an expedient would succeed in discovering the perpetrators of crimes which the whole population desires to conceal. Even now people can be arrested and detained on mere suspicion; yet murders continue and the murderers escape. Those who know Ireland best fear to give such an opportunity for the passions of race-hatred and class-hatred as martial law would open up.

Comparatively little sensation has been made in England by the reports of the New York mass-meeting and other American demonstrations on behalf of the imprisoned suspects who claim American citizenship. Many of us are indeed ashamed that the detention of prisoners without trial should furnish an apparent justification for remonstrances on the part of a friendly power, for we remember the *civis Romanus* doctrines of Lord Palmerston. But it is generally understood in this country that these demonstrations emanate, not from the Irish population in the United States, but from a section only of that population and those who seek to humor it, and that even a vote in Congress would not necessarily express the sentiments of the American people. No one thinks of allowing the good feeling which exists toward America to be disturbed by anything which Irish disaffection can do. It is bad enough that it should cause so much trouble at home, without suffering it to cause trouble abroad also. Y.

THE DEATH OF MR. DARWIN.

LONDON, April 22, 1882.

EUROPE has just lost her greatest man of science. Three days ago Mr. Darwin passed away suddenly, calmly, almost painlessly, in the quiet country village where the later years of his life had been spent. The impression produced in England by the extinction of so great a light, the brightest by far in our firmament, is perhaps less than might have been expected, and indeed not greater here than in Germany, where he was known and honored as no foreigner has been for generations past. To Englishmen Mr. Darwin was merely a name. Of those who knew that he was the author of the 'Origin of Species,' comparatively few could have told whether he was living or dead, or where he lived, or what were his occupations. No famous man has remained in such complete seclusion, rarely coming even to London, and then seen by few persons, engaging in no controversies, never putting himself before the public. This was due partly to his health, which had been weak for nearly his whole life, and was so uncertain even twelve years ago that he was then forbidden to come to Oxford to receive an honorary degree lest the excitement of an appearance in a crowd should prove too much for him. (A curious indication of the popular ignorance regarding his personality was afforded by one of our leading evening papers, which announced his death as that of "Professor" Darwin, though he had—so far as I recollect—never been a professor anywhere, and certainly not for many years before his death.) It was due, also, however, to the singular modesty and simplicity of his character. No one cared less for popular applause, or was more absolutely devoted to the pursuit of truth for its own sake. There was nothing morose or proud or ungenial about his seclusion. It was that of a man who knew where his duty and functions lay, and understood that stillness and concentration were necessary as well for the prosecution of his researches as for his own personal well-being; a man, too, whose pleasures were those best and simple pleasures which depend on the affection of family and friends and the enjoyment of nature.

Down, where he lived and died, is a hamlet, rather than a village, in Kent, some fifteen miles to the southeast of London, about half an hour's walk from the station of Orpington, on the South Eastern Railroad. The district is purely agricultural, thinly peopled, not unbeautiful in a quiet way. It is a plateau of chalk, some 400 feet above sea level, interrupted by those wavy hollows which characterize our chalk country, and with beech woods here and there on the slopes—a country eminently English in its scenery no less than in its people. His dwelling stands less than half a mile from the village, a plain but comfortable brick house in a few acres of pleasure-ground—a pleasantly old-fashioned

air about it, with a sense of peace and silence. A little way off are the greenhouses, where he kept the plants on which he experimented. Those who have read his book on insectivorous plants will remember its account of the sundews, with which so many experiments were tried; there were whole ranges of pots of them in these houses.

I saw him at his home in Down last January, and could not remember to have ever before seen him so bright, so cheerful, so full of talk. Feeble as his health had long been, he looked younger than his age, and had a freshness, an alertness of eye and mind, an interest in all passing affairs, which one seldom sees in men who are well past seventy. It was hard to believe that one was in the presence of so great and splendid a genius, for his manner was simple and natural as a child's. He did not speak with any air of authority, much less dogmatism, even on his own topics; and on other subjects, politics for instance, he talked as one who was only anxious to hear what others had to say and resolve his own doubts. One remark struck particularly the two friends who had come to see him. He mentioned that Mr. Gladstone had, some months before, while spending a Sunday in the neighborhood, walked over to call on him; and speaking with lively admiration of the Prime Minister's powers, he added: "It was delightful to see so great a man so simple and natural. He talked to us as one of ourselves: you would never have known what he was." We looked at one another, and thought that there were other great men of whom this was no less true, and in whom such self-forgetful simplicity was no less beautiful.

That self-forgetfulness shines through his books also, and was really one of the causes which have made them so influential. He had so little vanity, and so much sweetness, as never to care for a view merely because it was his own, and never to resent opposition as an attack upon himself. No one who had so surprising a talent for broad generalizations ever stated them more cautiously, or was so absolutely candid in modifying them when new facts showed their incompleteness. There is, therefore, little or nothing polemical in his writings: he does not suffer his scrutiny of nature to be interrupted by anything which involves controversy. It was largely for this reason that so little of that invective and obloquy which is apt to be poured on those who first propound doctrines inconsistent with the prevailing theological views, was directed against or incurred by him. The propositions advanced in his treatises on the 'Origin of Species' and the 'Descent of Man,' although now generally accepted, not only by the scientific world but by educated men generally, and not held to be opposed to revealed religion, excited much alarm and hostility when those books first appeared. Everybody saw that they could not be reconciled with the Mosaic cosmogony as heretofore understood: some people thought them dangerous to theism itself. But their author had so carefully abstained—if one can call what was natural to him by the name of abstention—from any attack on received theological opinions, his tone was so entirely impersonal, so obviously that of one who was seeking for truth, and truth only, that nobody attacked him, and his name was scarcely mentioned, except by the comic papers, when they humorously placed his striking head, caricatured, of course, on the body of an ape. It seems worth while to dwell upon this point, because it is an instance of the way in which a man's character may affect his scientific work and influence.

In purity, elevation, single-mindedness, Darwin was a worthy successor of Newton and Faraday. No more perfect scientific life, nor one which has done more to raise the respect of the outer world for science, has been lived in these later centuries. And it may be doubted whether any one since Newton has done work likely to have a more abiding influence. It is not only that he has shown how the methods of experiment may be applied far more exactly than was attempted before to the animal and vegetable kingdoms, he has given the world new ideas as to the causes which are at work in those kingdoms; he has displayed an unequalled gift for bringing into relation with one another vast masses of phenomena, large regions of research, which no one had previously thought of connecting. The fact that his death-day (the 19th of April) was the same as that on which Lord Beaconsfield died a year ago, suggests a curious comparison between the two men. The politician's departure produced a profound sensation in these islands: it was regarded as the great event of the year. His admirers have been commemorating him by appearing with bunches of primrose—his favorite flower—on the 19th of April. The death of Mr. Darwin has made scarcely a ripple outside the small circle of those who knew him personally, or who were occupied in the same researches. Yet the time may come when the nineteenth century will be remembered among men not least by this, that it was the century in which Darwin lived and wrote. Y.

RENAN'S ECCLESIASTES.

PARIS, April 14, 1882.

So much interest attaches to whatever comes from the pen of M. Renan, that his publisher offers sometimes to the public volumes which are mere chapters of a volume. The book Ecclesiastes is not very long, and its translation, printed in the largest characters and with as few lines as can be decently put on a page, with a long preface, only makes in all 150 pages. The publishers of old could not have conceived of an octavo volume with so few pages; but "nous avons changé tout cela," as Molière says.

The preface to this new version of Ecclesiastes is well worth reading; it is a study of the age and the character of the book. M. Renan has already translated the Song of Solomon, and written an analysis of it. He tried to examine and to solve some of the questions involved in it. The obscurities are not so great in Ecclesiastes as in Job and in the Song of Solomon, and it is easier to determine with some certainty the age of the work. It has on its title a singular word composed of four letters, QHLT, and is a series of speeches, a sort of confession, placed in the mouth of a certain QHLT, supposed to be a son of David and King of Jerusalem. This abbreviated name, says M. Renan, is a designation of Solomon. "There is no doubt that the author, who surely knew the Proverbs attributed to Solomon, wished to represent the successor of David. This celebrated king seemed to him a good personage for the object he had in view—that is, the demonstration of the vanity of all things."

M. Renan asks himself if Ecclesiastes is an apocryphal writing—one of the productions of that great pseudepigraphic literature which extends from Judas Maccabæus to Bar-Cokheba. It does not seem to him quite apocryphal. The author of such a composition is always a fanatic who forgets himself, and who writes in the interest of a certain cause; he has no literary pretension, he has a religious object. "When," says Renan, "a Jewish writer of the centuries which approach our era took, in order to inculcate some great thought to his contemporaries, the mantle of a celebrated man or of an ancient prophet, like Moses, Enoch, Baruch, Ezra, he really meant to have his work admitted as that of those ancient personages; and generally the fraud succeeded, for in those times there was no notion of literary criticism." The author of Ecclesiastes does not wish to deceive the reader; he does not really give himself out as Solomon, or the son of Solomon: he makes the son of Solomon speak, but he occasionally comes out himself, in his own person. He acts as Plato did when he placed in the mouth of Parmenides or of Timæus words which really expressed his own thought.

The abbreviated name given to the son of Solomon really means *Koheleth*, or preacher. M. Renan enters into a long philological explanation in order to justify this interpretation. The philosophy of the Koheleth is extremely simple: "All is vanity," is the continual thought expressed in it, in a series of small paragraphs. There is no progress; the present resembles the past, the future will resemble the present—they are all equally bad; all attempts to ameliorate the human destiny are frivolous. The author speaks like one who has gone the round of all human sensations and emotions; he has seen everything with his own eyes, and he gives the result of his sad experience.

"What is," says Renan, "true wisdom in the eyes of Koheleth? To enjoy quietly a fortune conquered by labor; to live happy with the woman beloved in our youth; to avoid all excesses; not to be overwise, and not to think that our efforts can alter fate; not to be too rich, as great wealth gives too much trouble, nor too poor, as the poor are despised; to accept the prejudices of the world as they are, without struggling against them, and without trying to reform anything—in one word, to live according to the rules of a moderate philosophy, without zeal, without mysticism. Our author is a gentleman, devoid of prejudices, good and generous of heart, but discouraged by the meanness of the times and the sad conditions of human life."

Such a doctrine, among the old Greeks, and even among ourselves, would seem almost impious. But Koheleth is not a materialist nor an atheist—he is a firm believer in the Divinity. But he seems to think that the Divinity cares little for man; he does not believe in a future life, and in this respect his ideas, according to Renan, do not differ from those of the enlightened Jews of his time. The author has a great sentiment of justice; he is often revolted by the contrast between the laws of morality and the accidents of human life; but he is resigned—he knows that life, after all, has its good hours, and why should we not enjoy them, though we know that we shall have to pay afterward for every joy? He paints old age and its sorrows, its consciousness of impotence, its disillusions, with the most admirable color. The author of Ecclesiastes, says Renan, is the author of Job prolonged some six or seven hundred years.

"The eloquent and terrible wailings of the old Hebrew book, the protests, which become almost blasphemous, of the old patriarch, are now the sadly resigned and clever remarks of a worldly literary man. Koheleth has not even the strength to get angry—it is so useless! Like Job, he bows before an unknown power whose acts do not depend on any appreciable reason. But he gets consoled; and if women were a little less deceitful, judges less corrupt, heirs a little less ungrateful, governors of mankind a little more serious, he would reconcile himself with life."

Ecclesiastes makes no allusion to any particular dogma, to any catechism, to any religious hierarchy. The Jews were, in reality, at the same time the most religious people and the people who had the simplest religion.

"It is," says Renan, "the glory of the people of Israel to have first perceived the vanity of superstition and of religious chimeras. . . . When a Jew saw Egypt, visited the σύριγγες of Thebes, the Memnonium, the ὑπόγεια of the Serapeum—all these houses of the dead rather than the houses of the living—the sentiment he expe-

rienced was that of the pity which is excited by the sight of absurdity. God appeared to him great, single, laughing at man and his follies. The first of these follies was, in his eyes, the pretension to immortality. 'God alone lasts,' was always the fundamental basis of Semitic and monotheistic theology. Man is a transient being, and the worst act of pride in him would be to make himself equal to God by attributing to himself immortality. The Pharaoh who built pyramids in view of an indefinite existence, instead of being considered by the wise Israelite as a religious man, seemed to him impious."

The people believed in sorcerers, in ghosts; but the wise, the doctors, rejected such a belief. Still, if there was no after-life, how could the doctors reconcile the justice of God with the sight of the injustice of human destiny? This terrible problem was the cause of all the revolutions which took place in Israel. The "day of Jehovah"—the day when this antinomy should cease to exist—became a favorite dream, a fixed idea; it is the germ of all the apocalyptic writings. Was not a special recompense a necessity for all the martyrs? Would there not be for them a millennium? If they could not hope for an eternity of happiness, could they not hope for some definite period of glorification? Christianity gave the solution: it promised eternity to the poor, the suffering, the martyrs, the victims of the transient tyranny and corruption of the world. But this simple and triumphant theory was not accepted by the great mass of Israel. Koheleth represents one of the moments of the struggle between the old Semitic and the new Christian ideas. He does not allude to Messianism, to the resurrection; he has no fanaticism of any kind, neither religious nor political. Renan boldly says that he was an unbeliever: "The Song of Songs and the Koheleth are like a love-song, or a little pamphlet by Voltaire, lost among the folios of a theological library." This seems a trifle too bold; to compare Ecclesiastes with a writing of Voltaire seems a little outside the truth. The Ecclesiastic cannot be said to be an infidel in the sense of Voltaire; he was a moralist, if you like—a man of the world, it is possible. He does not speak with the fervor of the prophets; he has a resignation which gives him a place apart.

At what date ought the publication of Ecclesiastes to be fixed? "It is as easy," says Renan, "to classify ideally the Koheleth—that is to say, to assign to it its place in the moral history of Israel—as it is difficult to fix absolutely the century in which it was composed." He tries to prove that it was written under the Achæmenidæ, or during the domination of the Ptolemies in Palestine; but his inductions are very vague, as he himself confesses. "The Koheleth is a work of decrepitude; and this sceptical book, at the same time elegant and mournful, was written a little while before the Gospel and the Talmud." The book entered into the Jewish Bible toward the year 100 of our era. It was translated into Greek about 135. Neither Justin, nor Irenæus, nor Tertullian, nor Clement of Alexandria ever cites the Ecclesiastes. The Greek version slowly made its way, and the book furnished eloquent quotations to Saint John Chrysostom and to Saint Jerome. In short, Renan looks upon the Koheleth as one of the best Jewish books, though it has no unity nor any clear philosophy. The author is at times a materialist, at other times a sublime spiritualist. He is a candid egotist. Renan says, with his usual habit of pronouncing on the most doubtful points, "He certainly was an amiable man." The Koheleth is in many respects a very modern book: the pessimism of our time is expressed in it. "The author," says Renan, "appears to us like a resigned Schopenhauer—much superior to the Schopenhauer whom his unhappy fate tied to German lodging-houses."

Our critic ends by a denunciation of the modern Jew, who has become an accomplished man of the world, who enters so easily into all the folds of our modern civilization, who makes himself so necessary everywhere, who is a pure epicurean. This anti-Semitic page is very eloquent; but why should Renan be anti-Semitic? His genius, his soul, all he has, seems to be derived partly from his Celtic nature, and partly from his profound study of Semitic history. His fit of anger will not last long; it is a mere caprice.

Correspondence.

DR. BOYLAND AND DR. LAMSON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your sense of right will, I am sure, allow me sufficient of your valuable space to say that the criticism of my contribution to the Lamson case, contained in your issue of the 13th instant, was at least unfair, omitting as it did all the more important points of the letter, which has since been, by special request, legally embodied in an affidavit and forwarded by steamer to Dr. Lamson's solicitor, London: first, ignoring that the semi-syncope was due to "anæmia of the brain," and passing over the words, "slightly inclined to melancholia"; second, making no mention of his challenge to fight him with pistols for an imaginary offence; and, third, not stating the opinion that George Lamson cannot "be guilty of such a crime and sane."

The particular kind of mental malady by which Lamson was and doubtless is still affected, although insidious, is recognized, by physicians who have had much experience with the insane, as cerebral anæmia. One of the many symptoms of the group characterizing this form of encephalic disease is a tendency to homicidal mania. This he undoubtedly had, as evidenced by his desire to shoot me in 1870. This tendency has now culminated in murder. Cases similar to his find a place in our text-books and official reports on diseases of the mind and brain.

As you neither gave the text of the letter nor made reference to its appearance in the *Herald* of the 8th instant, you will doubtless make the *amende honorable* in permitting me to state my side of the matter, and greatly oblige,

Yours very truly,

G. Halsted Boyland, M.D., M.A.

P.S.—Your leader was only called to attention a few days ago.

29 North Ave., Baltimore, April 26, 1882.

THE CONVERSION OF JESSE JAMES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Southern Baptists lately refused to send to China as missionaries two of their best men—Bell and Stout—because they had enjoyed and profited by the instructions of Professor Toy. Now, the religious community would be glad to be told if they regard as in good and regular standing that pastor in Austin whose letter you published last week. Here is a case of truly damnable heresy. It does not appear that he was ignorant of the history of Jesse James, and yet, although he is a minister in that sect which professes special loyalty to the dictionary definition of Christ's words, he did not insist upon any other evidence of conversion than a desire to be baptized and a few prayers in public. It is as scandalous as anything in Italy before the Reformation. The only gospel which a minister of Christ had any commission to preach to Jesse James was—Believe and be hanged. Whatever we may think of old Dr. Emmons's doctrine that the test of fitness to be saved was willingness to be damned, it is certainly true that the only "credible profession" Jesse James could have made would have been submission to the authorities. It rouses indignation to hear Mr. Moody adding to the terms of salvation the necessity of believing the story of Eve as he reads it from the English Bible, but one readily forgives him for that when he exercises the rare theological virtue of sending his converts to jail to atone for their crimes. The Gospel is emasculated not only in the land of border-ruffianism but all over the country, and even in some of the chairs of theological seminaries. The 'Systematic Theology' of Charles Hodge, venerated as a classic by half the orthodox ministers of America, has not a chapter, nor a part of a chapter, nor any equivalent, on repentance. The Missouri bottoms need some of the preaching of the original Baptist. If the clergy there will do their stern duty in preaching the gospel of repentance, the value of real estate may be increased, and the much-to-be-desired extermination of both parties to the James controversy secured by the voluntary surrender of a large number of sincere Christians and hopeful converts to the hangman's rope.

J. P. C.

Ludlow, Mass., May 1, 1882.

COMPULSORY BOOK-BUYING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I want to call attention to a method of doing business on the part of certain publishers that might be called sharp practice, and to exhort my professional brethren not to submit to the imposition on the weak ground that it is the quietest way out of the difficulty. I refer to the habit of sending expensive books that have not been ordered, accompanied by a bill, and with express charges to pay. It may be the easiest way to avoid personal annoyance to foot the bill and accept the volumes, but it would be better for all concerned to put a stop to the practice by refusing to pay for all unauthorized shipments. If one chooses to give *carte blanche* to his bookseller, and in a splendid manner order all the new books, that is another matter. College professors, for example, are not likely to do that in this age of the world. And one should strengthen his weak courage by reflecting that every time he submits to a small imposition he helps to bring it upon others.

P. Q. R.

Cloyne College, Cal.

THE PROTECTIONISTS IN THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The opinions already expressed and which will be expressed by the Southern representatives in Congress during the discussion of the present Tariff Commission Bill will probably surprise many who are not thoroughly familiar with the course of affairs in this part of the country. No inconsiderable number will be found among the advocates of protection. Up to a very recent date the ideas of protection had secured no foothold whatever in the South, for the obvious reason that all the interests of the people were opposed to that system. The state of affairs is, however, somewhat different now. While the people are still mainly agricultural, new industries have sprung up in many localities, and with these have come new ideas.

Some of the newspapers have begun to remodel their views as to the tariff. They begin to see a little good in it, and are not nearly so firmly convinced that free trade is the wiser policy. Some, not yet prepared to "flop" unconditionally, are calling for "a tariff for revenue, with incidental protection." A few, having

carefully felt their way, support protection pure and simple. The cause of this is plain: we are beginning to produce certain commodities which the tariff protects. The Louisiana sugar-planters are the wealthiest and most influential class of that State. Alabama coal and iron mines and Georgia cotton mills are rapidly increasing in numbers and importance. Those interested in these industries are as rampant protectionists as are to be found in this country. They have already learned to use the sophistry so long used in the absence of arguments by protectionists elsewhere: they claim protection for the dear laborer from the competition of the paupers of England. These Louisiana planters are apparently very solicitous about the welfare of their negro "hands." It would be interesting to know what proportion of the sixty per cent. duty goes to the laborer.

Still another class of producers are supporters of the protectionist policy—the wool-growers of West Texas. Although proportionately few in number, they are as clamorous as any, and cry out loudly against any reduction in the duty on wool. Senator Coke, who, in view of the near approach of the expiration of his term and the election of his successor, wished to make some capital for the contest, has made the "greatest effort of his life" in a speech advocating free trade. This, while producing the effect intended with the majority of the people, called forth a howl from the sheep-men and their journals. They call it a "bitter pill," and say it ill becomes a representative to attack one of the growing industries of the State. They demand, in the new Congressional apportionment, a district to themselves, and purpose to elect a "representative who will represent" them.

Besides the classes already named who will oppose any reduction of the tariff, there are yet others who are equally opposed to free trade. These are the producers of articles taxed by the internal-revenue laws. Since the revenue receipts have so greatly exceeded the necessities of the Government, it has been evident that taxes could be safely reduced in the direction either of import duties or of internal revenue. Now the whiskey-distillers and tobacco-growers have become convinced that if the former taxes are reduced, the latter must produce the more revenue, and cannot be lessened. So they join the protectionists in opposing free trade. Thus it will be seen that a number of wealthy and influential classes are enlisted on the side of protection in the contest at present going on in Congress, and probably to be continued in the fall elections.

The result can be foreseen. The Southern delegation in the next Congress will have a larger proportion of protectionists. The people are ignorant of the merits of the question; they do not readily realize the oppression of the indirect taxation of the tariff on imports, but can all perceive and understand the tax on tobacco and whiskey. Protectionists and opposers of internal taxes will take a lively interest in elections, and will spend money and use influence to further their interests. At each recurring election their power will increase and their success become more complete, until a large majority of the Congressmen from the cotton States will be of the protectionist kind. When this is accomplished the Southern manufacturers will have occupied the markets of the South and driven out the Northern goods. These latter must, however, find some market to compensate for this loss, and they will seek to compete in foreign countries with England. Then will come the abolition of the tariff.

This is no mere speculation in regard to possibilities. The present labor troubles and depression among the manufacturing interests of New England show that our "infant industries" need more room than our markets present. The enormous increase in population, and consequent enlargement of home markets, have deferred the climax, but it cannot be delayed much longer.

B. W. Lockett.

Cleburne, Texas, April 20, 1882.

THE CHINESE QUESTION ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read your paper carefully for some five years. Your views on general public questions have so frequently coincided with my own on subjects that I thought I understood, that I have been willing to accept with faith those which I did not understand. I must say, however, that my confidence in both the *Nation's* knowledge and want of prejudice has been very much shaken by the position it has taken upon the Chinese question.

You asserted on March 16 that the sole cause of the legislation against them (the Chinese) is the prejudice of the 1,009,390 whites of the Pacific Coast, or of about one-fiftieth of the American people. This is assertion and special pleading only, I take the liberty of thinking. The subject is discussed from one side only. There is not a *prejudice* on this coast against the Chinese, but a firmly-planted, now ineradicable, intelligent conviction, very slowly arrived at by the best class of people, that either Chinese immigration to this coast must be checked, or it will soon run out *all* classes of white people here, a few millionaires alone excepted. At first manufacturers here were inclined to welcome the Chinese, because they effected a saving by their use and thus for a while made larger profits. It was then only the laborers' and mechanics' time to cry out, and for some fifteen or twenty years, as you are probably aware, they alone did cry, and for a long time little attention was paid to them; but within the past five or seven years John has been gradually advancing to the front as an employer, and is, more slowly but just as inevitably, crowding out employers in the manufacturing line, particularly in the manufacture of clothing, shirts, boots and shoes, slippers, cigars, the cutting of lumber for fire-wood, laundry-work, the growth of fruit and vegetables, etc., etc. The manufacturers and better classes of people have for some seven years been convinced that, though the Chinese may be used to manufacture, they cannot be used to consume—that is, they cannot be counted upon to any appreciable degree as customers. To displace white labor by Chinese is, therefore, to make goods for which there will be no buyers. At first the wages of the Chinese were nearly on a par with those of the white laborer, but wherever a reduction was called for, or brought about by the change of times and reduced cost of living, the white laborer always found that he was still underbid, and finally now underbid so completely that he cannot possibly compete with the Chinaman at all, unless he gets down to his standard of clothing, living, and sleeping accommodations; and this is simply out of the question. The ordinary Chinese laborer wears a coarse cotton overshirt and pantaloons only, a pair of boots and no socks, or a pair of wooden-soled pattens with a cotton attachment. Rice, boiled in water, and fish or refuse pork or meat, constitute his board-bill, while fifty Chinamen will sleep in a space that would be overcrowded to suffocation to ten white men.

Add to this standard of living (which is, I think, below that which prevailed among the hinds or villains of the feudal barons of the twelfth or thirteenth century) the fact that the Chinaman is a machine not wielded by himself, but by six of the closest of corporations, possessing the power to exclude his return to China alive, or the exportation of his bones to his home if he dies here. Omission to secure this latter, in his religious belief, would result in his spirit wandering for ever in the darkness of this country of the "foreign devil." He has only one object here, and that is to grow wealthy and leave just as soon as he has made a competence. The Six Companies administer the only law which the Chinese here either fear or respect. The Chinaman may evade the white man's laws, but he knows better than to even attempt to override those of the Six Companies.

But though these are the objections to the Chinese which are most plainly seen and most keenly felt, they are not really the strongest which a legislator is bound to consider. The traditions and unwritten law of the United States are to welcome the poor and the oppressed from every country who come to better their condition and to *make their homes here;* and the fact that the Chinese do not, in *any* case whatever, come to do this latter, is the objection at which the statesman must most fully pause. It forms the objection which the most ardent advocate of Chinese immigration cannot explain away or defend. All other immigrants come to stay, to marry and give in marriage, to raise children, to make homes, to buy land, to dress, sleep, and eat as the average native does, and to fight for and stand by the United States as the best country for the self-reliant laboring man on the face of the earth. But the Chinaman knows nothing—nothing, nothing, absolutely nothing—and cares less, about American institutions or the American Government. He is a freebooter who comes strictly and only on an industrial predatory tour, and to return as speedily as possible to his own country, which he thinks, in its government, people, and religion, is as far above this country as the heavens are above the earth. If the Chinaman came here to marry and to stay—to come singly when he is poor, and to send for a wife and settle down when he has become comfortable or rich—then, still undesirable as his presence might be, the vital difference between his immigration and that of all Europeans would be removed. The advocate of the latter could not then consistently oppose the Mongolian's coming. But he does not marry here, and he carries or sends all his surplus earnings to his own country.

There are no Chinese *wives* in California, except among an exclusive few of the rulers. All the rest of the Chinese women here are prostitutes of the lowest and most pitiable class. A white prostitute is a pitiable object, but she is in a position of wealth and honor compared with her Mongolian sister. The latter is kidnapped generally, and purchased always, in China, to be used as a prostitute here by persons regularly engaged in that business. Nor is this all. To own a prostitute is a luxury among the Chinese here, and, as such, is reckoned among luxuries like chickens, opium, pork, and Chinese brandy. There is not, I believe, even of Chinese prostitutes, more than one woman here to every twenty or thirty men. Judge, then, of the morals of the remainder of the poorest class of males of a nationality not celebrated, to say the least of it, for purity of morals or freedom from those vices for which the people of Canaan were by divine sentence ordered to be exterminated.

For all these and very many more reasons the Chinese are a non-assimilable dose in any civilized country. They have proved to be so in the Australian colonies, and, as such, have by statute been excluded. The human system is as capable, I think, of assimilating and digesting a dose of white lead or red ochre as this country is of assimilating the Chinese. And the main

point is, that they are not going to let you try to assimilate them. They come to be of, for, and by themselves strictly, exclusively, and solely in their quarters, living, habits, religion, ideas, vices, amusements, laws, feelings, aspirations, and longings. Their number is constantly on the increase, too. I do not think that such an immigration was ever heard of before. It comes to prey upon a country and to return, and to transmit to an endless chain of successors the hold it has upon the country which suffers from its presence.

Your statement that the "prejudice," as you are pleased to call it, of the people of this coast is shared by only about one-fiftieth of the American people, seems to me to border upon the absurd. How can the other forty-nine-fiftieths of the people of this country share in, much less understand, this "prejudice," if they have never had Chinese in throngs among them? Practically, nothing is known of the Chinese east of the State of Nevada and of the Territory of Idaho. The presence of one Chinaman to every thousand white men is not a taste of the Chinese at all. When you have one Chinaman to every three adult white men, then you will understand this question. Let me tell you, it is the great, live, undying, all-important question of this coast. It must and will be settled, and against Chinese immigration, too. The talk of the Atlantic papers about the Democratic party being insincere in its attitude on this question is true, I doubt not. I do not as yet expect any settlement in this coast's favor of this question at Washington on any basis of conviction and principle, for none of you understand the matter; nor can you fully unless the white population East is overshadowed, as it is here, by an immigration as proportionately great as it is here. The overwhelming unanimity of public sentiment here—a unanimity never before expressed so fully on any public question in any intelligent community in the United States—is as completely ignored by the majority of newspapers and people East as though it did not exist at all. No newspaper has, I regret to say, gone further than the *Nation* in this respect. Votes and political policy only are what each party is considering, and I can very decidedly assure you, and all interested, that, whether the Democrats voted from conviction or policy, they *did* vote and formed the majority in our favor on this question, and for this reason they will carry every Pacific State at the next Presidential election. When a man is in danger of drowning, and a hand is reached out to him, he takes and blesses it, no matter whether the motive which impelled the offering was the highest or not. Thousands of life-long Republicans, myself included, who never cast a Democratic vote in their lives, will swallow the next Democratic candidate at the Presidential election.

In conclusion, I would state that I am a friend of the Chinese, and as such I cheerfully contribute to Chinese homes for women and children, and to Chinese missions. I also most cordially detest Kearneyism, and all attempts to abuse the Chinese, or do them injustice in any way. But their coming here must be checked, or the coast will have to be given up to them. White labor must go down if Chinese labor is to have an unchecked right to enter this field. The Chinese question is now *the* question on this coast. The people who alone suffer from the evil surely ought to be allowed to claim that they understand it. Whether the second Chinese bill now pending passes or fails to pass, these facts, grouped together, should be known to the people of the Atlantic States. I trust, therefore, you will not refuse them space in your columns.

THOMAS MAGEE.

SAN FRANCISCO, April 18, 1882.

Notes.

A. WILLIAMS & Co., Boston, announce for speedy publication an edition of Mr. A. Bronson Alcott's Sonnets, printed on large paper and bound in half-vellum, and illustrated with some thirty photographs, which, like the sonnets themselves, have reference to the author's personal friends. The gallery, especially if the portraits are early, should be one of unusual interest and value.

Dodd, Mead & Co. are about to make what they call "the first venture of an American publisher with a cheap edition of a copyright book," by issuing 100,000 copies of E. P. Roe's 'Barriers Burned Away,' at twenty cents each. In the meantime circumstances have compelled Houghton, Mifflin & Co., as our readers already know, to make a similar experiment with Longfellow's 'Hyperion' and 'Outre-Mer.'

It is thirteen years since the first English translation of Björnson's 'Fisher Maiden' was given to the American public. Professor R. B. Anderson's version has now appeared in the uniform edition of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. The same publishers send us 'Tales of the Argonauts, and Eastern Sketches,' in their handsome new edition of Bret Harte's works, and Miss Hodgdon's 'Whittier Leaflets,' "for home, libraries, and schools."

After an interval of eight years, a second edition of the 'Elementary History of Art,' by N. D'Anvers, has been put forth (Scribner & Welford). Some revision and enlargement this too comprehensive work has undergone, but errors or inadequate statements of considerable importance have been allowed to remain. Special stress is laid on the improvement of the musical section; but it could not be relieved of dryness, and the rule imposed upon himself by the author of excluding living artists is felt here perhaps more disastrously than elsewhere. The engravings have been increased by seventy-six, and the book is in all respects comely and pleasant to the eye.

Funk & Wagnalls have issued in a peculiarly neat and handy form—a booklike box containing a number of thin pamphlets, intended by turns for the pocket—Dr. R. S. Rosenthal's 'Meisterschaft System' for French and for German. The author does not claim originality for this system, which has been known for many years as Prendergast's, but professes to have developed it much more thoroughly and naturally. Its peculiarity is that it begins with the complex instead of with the simple, starting off at once with a "foundation sentence" consisting of two or more members, and ringing the changes upon that till, by a gradual process, a vocabulary of upward of 2,000 words has been acquired and mastered in a great variety of relations. We believe that in the hands of a competent teacher this system is the best yet devised for learning to speak a foreign tongue in a short time. Its utility for self-instruction will depend upon individual character.

A 'Treatise on the Theory of Determinants,' by Thomas Muir, Mathematical Master in the Glasgow High School (Macmillan & Co.), is a contribution of great practical value to a branch of mathematics which is attracting continually increasing attention. It contains an unusually large number of exercises, and for those who are commencing the study of determinants it seems to us superior to any work that has yet appeared in the English language. We observe with pleasure that on page 234 Mr. Muir renders a small measure of tardy, but none the less welcome, justice to Hoïne Wronski, a man alike remarkable for his learning, his genius, and his unrivalled faculty of rendering himself and his works repulsive to his contemporaries.

Many a writer upon homiletics would find nothing to complain of and much to make merry over in a little reprint (from the Portsmouth, England, *Monitor*), entitled, 'Who Was Old Mother Hubbard? A Modern Sermon,' just published by G. P. Putnam's Sons. The torture by inflation which the ministerial mind is too prone to inflict on even commonplace texts is here very amusingly hit off.

A circular informs us that on account of the unfinished state of the mausoleum destined to receive the statue of Gen. Robert E. Lee, and for other reasons, the proposed centennial celebration of the Washington and Lee University, Virginia, in June, has been postponed.

The current monthly issue of the *Californian* contains a paper, by Mr. Reardon, on Petrarch, which implies study of that author to a degree seldom observable among Eastern scholars. The bibliographical note at the end bristles with misprints, but is not without its value.

Part 3 of vol. i. (New Series) of the Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society is fuller than ordinary of interesting papers. Most remarked would be Senator Hoar's account of the Massachusetts ancestors of the late President, beginning with the Edward Garfields, father and son, who "probably came over with Winthrop, and were among the first settlers of Watertown, in 1630." Two of the Garfield houses yet standing in Lincoln, Middlesex Co., and Westminster, Worcester Co., are pictured. The military tradition of the family is remarkable. An amusing and learned paper on Tithingmen, by Mr. Herbert B. Adams, of Johns Hopkins University, also deserves mention, as do the tributes to the memory of the late Mr. S. F. Haven, librarian of the Society since 1857.

In *Le Livre* for April, Champfleury celebrates a well-forgotten sensationalist of thirty years ago, Pétrus Borel, in order to prove that he deserved the oblivion that has overtaken him, and partly to revive a medallion portrait of him by Dusseigneur. The chief relish, however, is furnished by Eugène Forgues in what appears to be the first of a series on "The Book Illustrators of the Nineteenth Century." He leads off with the fertile and masterly Gavarni, whose life was such an unhappy anti-climax. Besides an interesting unpublished portrait of the artist, by himself, numerous samples of his work are given in the text, the 'Wandering Jew' furnishing not a few. Mr. Forgues remarks on the complete disappearance of certain Parisian types preserved for us by the pencil of Gavarni, such as the grisette, the student, the pupil of the Conservatoire.

The little English theatrical year-book called 'Dramatic Notes' (London: D. Bogue; New York: Scribner & Welford) has now appeared for the third time. The illustrations are still by Mr. T. W. Wilson, and are as effective as in the earlier volumes, and perhaps more abundant. The letter-press, formerly by Mr. C. E. Pascoe, and later by Mr. W. H. Rideing, is this time anonymous. Its critical quality is not very high, and at times its accuracy is at fault; but the arrangement of the pamphlet is convenient, it has a selection of "casts" of all the important productions, there is an index, and, in short, the book "fills a want." There are no less than five drawings of Mr. Henry Irving and three of Miss Ellen Terry. There is a sketch, also, of Mr. Edwin Booth as *Iago*.

We have received from B. Westermann & Co. parts 1–25 of the ornithological portion of A. E. Brehm's 'Thierleben,' now being published thus at Leipzig. Vols. iv.–vi. of this deservedly popular work are devoted to birds, and as the parts now in hand reach midway through vol. v., we presume about as many more will be required to complete this portion of the subject.

We have not been able to compare this edition directly with the original, which appeared several years ago, but the publisher's prospectus makes no mention of any textual modification, and we presume the text is a literal reprint. Aside from its appearance in successive parts, the feature of this "Chromo-Ausgabe" is the introduction of colored plates—the parts now in hand having each one or two, and 170 being the number advertised for the whole work. Owing to the absence of Dr. Brehm, the superintendence of the plates, which are executed by Winkler, devolves upon Dr. A. Girtanner, of St. Gall, as far as the parts of the work relating both to mammals and to birds are concerned, other collaborators being engaged for the lower vertebrates and the invertebrates. Great care has been taken to make the coloring true to nature, with a result far above the average of similar representations of natural-history objects in Germany—and, indeed, the interval needs be wide between even passably good pictures and the cheap, flashy prints we are accustomed to see from that quarter. The textual woodcut illustrations of the original are retained in the present edition, the form of which is substantially the same. The value of Brehm's text being notorious, and the position of this 'Thierleben,' as the best German popular-scientific treatise on the subject at large, being assured, the addition of colored plates cannot fail to render the work still more effectually instructive by making it more attractive; while the very reasonable price —about twenty-five cents per part—at which it is offered will further conduce to this end.

We receive from Amsterdam a new periodical entitled *Onze Volkstaal* (Our Native Language), of which the object is to do for Holland what the "Dialect Society" does for England—viz., to promote the systematic study of the various provincial dialects. In another Dutch periodical, *De Portefeuille*, we find an eloquent tribute to the memory of Longfellow.

Should the great disks of glass recently cast by M. Feil, of Paris, for the objective of the Lick telescope, prove to be optically perfect specimens, it is not impossible that the instrument may be ready for work on Mount Hamilton, California, as early as the autumn of 1884. The flint lens—a disk of thirty-eight inches diameter, which was four days in casting and a month in cooling—is said to have been found by optical tests "perfect in all its parts," and is now on its way to the establishment of the Messrs. Clark, of Cambridgeport, to whom was awarded by the Lick Trustees the contract for giving the lenses the proper figure. The crown lens was cast about the first of April.

—In the March issue of *Harper's Monthly*, Prof. Luigi Monti, after mention of well-known passages in "The Frogs" of Aristophanes, inquires: "Now, who could have supposed that our Mother Goose nursery-story of a cock-horse had such a venerable, classical, and archæological origin?" It would not, of course, have corroborated his proprietorship of the view therein implied if he had quoted from Liddell and Scott's Dictionary its definition of *hippalektruōn*, "a horse-cock (as we say cock-horse)," etc., latterly replaced by "a horse-cock or gryphon." As elements of our compound words, and also elsewhere, we find the names of divers animals, employed qualificatively, alluding to salient characteristics of those animals. Thus, in *bullfrog, bulrush, bull-trout, bull* stands for "large" or "sturdy"; and the provincial *bull-works* denotes "boisterous behavior." *Horse*, again, and for obvious reasons, is synonymous with *bull*, in *horse-ant, horse-chestnut, horse-laugh, horse-leech, horse-play*, and likewise in *horse-godmother*, a term not very unusual in literature. Similarly, our *cock-sure, cocky*, and *cock of the walk* (to go no further) refer to the *cock* in respect of his self-confident bearing. The *cock-horse* of infantine mythology is, then, most probably, a word devised to signify a lively or mettlesome horse. At all events, there is no proof whatever that it was suggested by the conception of a composite creature, half-cock and half-horse. Prof. Monti's "real cock-horse," as he designates a fantastic figure, a *horse-cock*, surviving ruinously on an ancient Etruscan vase, involves, from what Coleridge calls the factual point of view, a begging of the question. Our nursery *cock-horse*, if of "venerable, classical, and archæological origin" from the *hippalektruōn*, has sprung from its long-buried ashes in a manner so truly phenomenal that the metamorphosis which has transposed the horse and the cock may be counted as only a trifle. That a cock-horse should be utilized toward a new "tale of a cock and a bull" evinces, however, it must be admitted, a certain sense of congruity.

—While occupied in cataloguing the library of his deceased grandfather, once mayor of Plombières in France, the Abbé J. Parisot in 1879 found an anonymous manuscript written in a very small but quite legible hand. This manuscript proved to contain, on closer examination, a grammar, a vocabulary, and a rich collection of national songs of the Taensa language, once spoken on both sides of the Mississippi River, between Vicksburg and Natchez. M. Parisot's grandfather had previously translated the contents from a Spanish original, and on M. Parisot devolved the difficult task of combining the various grammatic notices into one systematic whole, of which he gave the first intimation, to those interested in linguistics, in the Paris *Revue de Linguistique* (vol. xiii., 1880). Encouraged by the favorable welcome accorded to this article, he and M. Lucien Adam set themselves about the publication of the whole treasure contained in the manuscript. From the volume now before us ('Grammaire et Vocabulaire de la Langue Taensa'), which forms the ninth in the "Bibliothèque linguistique américaine," it appears that this southern language, which seems to be extinct at the present epoch, was spoken in two dialects. The northern dialect was in use among the Taensa Indians inhabiting the woods, while the more euphonious southern dialect was the language spoken by the Taensas living on the banks of the "Great River." In colonial history the Taensas figure conspicuously, but we have no trace of any writings composed in their language except the material embodied in this volume, and the old French explorers erroneously considered the Taensas to be of the same race, kin, and language as the Natchez. This hitherto unknown language represents a new linguistic family by itself, and this is a fact of the highest importance for ethnology and linguistic topography, for it discloses to us a new racial subdivision among the numerous American nations.

—The eleven national songs appended to the grammar are provided with a French translation standing opposite and are highly valuable: it is very rare indeed that additions like these are found in works on aboriginal languages. They are not accompanied by the notes, which once served to express them in song, but they give us such a graphic idea of the sentiments, customs, and home life of the Taensa people, that ethnologists cannot afford to slight them. As to the structure of the language, it has many peculiarities which distinguish it from other tongues of the Gulf States. All nouns form a plural number; they divide themselves into two genders, which our grammarian calls male and female, but which from the description given of them ought to be called noble and ignoble. The verb is usually placed before the subject and the object, the direct object being, as a rule, introduced by the particle *me*. Adjectives in our sense of the term do not exist in Taensa: they are expressed either by an abstract noun connected with another standing in the possessive case, or by the participle of an attributive verb. Thus *a holy man* will be rendered: "the holiness of a man" or "a man holy-being." The words frequently end in consonants, and several sounds are peculiar to the language; it possesses the sounds *th, f*, and *r*, and pronounces the *w* as a flatus comparable to that of Algonkin and Iroquois. Other characteristics, which Taensa shares with all southern tongues, or a part of them, are the inflection of the verb by ten personal endings, the existence of numerous verbals, of three fundamental tenses, and of a passive voice (in *-i*); the inflection of the substantive by eight postpositions, and the vocalic ending of the syllable, which becomes consonantic only at the end of words. Laws of euphony exercise great sway in this language and render its study peculiarly difficult. The numeral series presents the decimal system of numeration; the simple numbers are mostly monosyllabic, and by their reduplication a distributive numeral is produced. In concluding this notice we call attention to the fact that to the collaborator of M. Parisot, Lucien Adam, scientists are indebted for no less than four linguistic publications within the short space of two years: on the Chiquito, on the Ba-ure, on the dialects of Guyana, and on the Taensa. The publishers, by the way, are Maisonneuve & Co.

—Probably never before has the republic of letters had so many representatives from among the crowned heads of Europe as in our time, when, to mention only the most prominent, the Queen of Rumania ("Carmen Sylva"), King Oscar II. of Sweden, and Prince George of Prussia may fairly be classed among professional authors, and scarcely ten years have elapsed since Queen Sophia of Holland, an accomplished linguist and essayist, King John of Saxony, the scholarly translator of Dante, and King Charles XV. of Sweden, an even more gifted poet than his brother and successor, were still among the living. King Louis II. of Bavaria and the Duke of Saxe-Meiningen continue to manifest a more than Medicean interest in music and the drama, respectively, and even science finds devoted disciples in princes of the blood. Thus Charles Theodore, Duke of Bavaria, and brother of the Empress of Austria, is a practising oculist of acknowledged ability, and his nephew, the Crown Prince Rudolph, who, under the guidance of the zoölogist Dr. Brehm, has pursued the study of the natural sciences, has published several interesting sketches of travels, besides various scientific papers. Another scion of the house of Austria, the Archduke Ludwig Salvator—son of the last Grand Duke of Tuscany—whose liking for the sea and literary aspirations recall his unfortunate kinsman Maximilian of Mexico, is the author of a series of works on the border lands of the Mediterranean, and has but lately returned from a tour around the world, an account of which he has published under the title 'Um die Welt, chne zu wollen.' Three of these books, intended only for private circulation, and sumptuously manufactured, are entitled: 'Der Golf von Buccari—Porto Ré,' 'Bilder und Skizzen, 1871,' 'Yacht-Reise in den Syrten, 1873,' 'Levkosia, die Haupstadt von Cypern, 1873.' The account of the visit to Lefkosha (Nicosia), if published by a less fortunately situated author, would be but a monograph of modest dimensions. As it is, it forms, like the two companion vol-

umes, a stately quarto. The numerous woodcuts of all three are reproductions of sketches by the author, who is certainly a clever draughtsman and, indeed, is in many ways well equipped for the life of a traveller and the profession of a writer. His love of nature is genuine, his scientific attainments appear to be considerable, and his knowledge of languages, like that of all Austrian princes, is very extensive. His style is clear and sober, generally almost matter-of-fact; reflections and generalizations are infrequent, and, perhaps for obvious reasons, never trench on political ground. The headings of the chapters of the work on Nicosia—"General Remarks on the City"; "The City Walls"; "Architecture, Gardens"; "Mosques, Tombs of Saints"; "Churches and Cloisters"; "Public Buildings, Baths, Khans, Bazaars"; "The People, their Customs and Amusements, Civil Authorities"; "Trade and Commerce"—will give an idea of the variety of subjects which the author's stay of two months in the capital of Cyprus enables him to treat of. His visit to the Croatian harbor Buccari (Porto Ré) was undertaken for the purpose of doing justice to a beautiful and neglected corner of Europe. The narrative of the Archduke's sail in the steam-yacht *Nixe* along the coasts of Tunis and Tripoli, consisting of extracts from his diary, occupies the 400 pages of the largest of these pleasant volumes.

—Of another work relating to the Levant, by the same author, an English translation was published last year by Chatto & Windus (London), with twenty-three full-page illustrations from the pencil of the Archduke, under the title of 'The Caravan Route between Egypt and Syria.' The opening of the Suez Canal has had the unexpected effect of destroying one of the oldest trade routes in the world. The traffic between Egypt and Syria, which had up to that time been carried on by caravans, is now almost entirely diverted to the vessels plying between Jaffa and Port Saïd. Only an occasional Bedouin and the Arabs having charge of the telegraph line are now to be seen on what was, from before the time of Abraham to our own days, a crowded thoroughfare for the people of two continents. This fact gives an interest to the unpretending account by the Archduke of his journey over the old caravan road, undertaken with the view of ascertaining "the feasibility of a railway connection round the coast." The starting point of the journey was El Kantara, where the road crosses the canal, and it ended at Gaza. The country passed through was an unbroken desert, with here and there a well and a few palm trees, but in places so destitute of water that the Bedouins themselves were perishing from thirst. El Harish, on the Egyptian frontier, once a place of considerable importance, but dependent entirely upon its carrying trade, is fast falling into decay. The same is true of Khanyunis, the first Syrian town, but this is owing to the frequent inroads of the Bedouins. The proposed railway was found to be "absolutely impracticable" on account of the shifting nature of the sands, which, after every violent storm, would completely bury it. The illustrations are spirited, and give a good idea of the monotonous scenery of the desert.

—Eduard von Hartmann, in an article in *Die Gegenwart* for April 1, proposes the total exclusion of art from the churches, or the complete separation of the æsthetic from the religious element in the ecclesiastic service. All the arts furnish their contingent to the complex emotion which goes by the name of religion: architecture, with its imposing structures, by evoking the feeling of the sublime; sculpture and painting, by a representation of subjects taken from sacred history; music, by means of chorals, hymns, masses, oratorios; dancing, in its higher dramatic forms, by processions and other observances. These last named mimic-symbolic representations have already completely disappeared from the Protestant service, and the fate of these most primitive observances foreshadows the fate which will attend all forms of religious art. Art has always been regarded as one of the strongest auxiliaries of religion. It puts the mind into a condition in which religious maxims are readily assimilated. Its influence is exemplified by the great impulse given to the Reformation by the Lutheran choral service; and it is evinced to-day by the fact that many of the conversions to Catholicism are due to the superior æsthetic attractiveness of its service. But nevertheless religion and art must be separated—not only because art distracts the attention from religious sentiments proper, but because a factitious or ideal emotion is allowed to take the place of a real emotion. Religion is a real emotion inspired by our aspirations and surroundings; but the emotion inspired by art relates to merely possible events and facts. To confound these emotions and allow the latter to take the place of the former is productive of mischief. But this is precisely the case in our modern churches. Many persons have become aware of the conflict between their religious and their scientific views of life, and, being unable to reconcile these conflicting views, take refuge in the mystic regions of religious art, mistaking the feelings aroused by it for true religious emotion. Thus not only a philosophic confusion arises, but the advent of the true monistic religion, as a substitute for Christianity, is retarded. This prevalence of art-culture in churches is always characteristic of a period of decay of a definite religion, whereas the creative periods of religious art always coincide with the periods of unshaken faith. To hasten the crisis, religious art should indeed be removed from the Church, but it should not be abandoned altogether. The proper place for religious pictures is in the museums, for oratorios and cantatas in the concert halls.

—The Norwegian popular tales collected by Asbjörnsen and Moe have become standard literature in well-nigh every tongue. Jörgen Ingebrektsen Moe, one of these Norse Grimms, died March 27, as Bishop of the diocese of Christiansand. He was born April 22, 1813, having reached his sixty-eighth year. Asbjörnsen and Moe became acquainted in their youth, and both had a peculiar fondness for popular literature. While spending their vacations in the country as private tutors, they began to collect nursery tales and ballads from the mouths of the peasants, and in 1842 they were able to announce the publication of the first collection. Besides the popular tales, Moe collected a large number of ballads and of the so-called "stevs," a kind of improvised dialogues in metric form, a characteristic element in the popular poetry of Norway. In 1853 Moe became a pastor in Sigdal, a rural parish in Norway, and from that time he transferred his interest in the popular tales to Asbjörnsen, giving him all his published manuscripts. The stories told by Asbjörnsen and Moe are so nearly alike in style that it is difficult to distinguish them, but on a more careful examination Asbjörnsen will be found to excel in plastic strength, while Moe's work is marked by a remarkable finish and elegance. From Moe's pen we also have several poems and a few original stories, both of which have been deservedly popular. His collected works appeared in two volumes in Christiania in 1877.

—Steinway Hall was well filled on Thursday by an audience eager to hear Mr. Joseffy's interpretation of two concertos and a number of other pieces which he had not previously played in this city. The solo pieces on the programme were Beethoven's Sonata op. 110, Allegretto vivace Sonata op. 31 No. 3, D flat major Nocturne by Chopin, and Liszt's twelfth Rhapsodie Hongroise. These pieces were all played in succession, but the insatiable and enthusiastic audience nevertheless insisted on an encore, and got it in the shape of a Chopin Polonaise. It was in the Chopin selections and in the concertos that Mr. Joseffy made the best impression. The concertos were by Mozart, in A major, and by Saint-Saëns, in G minor. To interpret correctly two such widely different works requires considerable versatility, but Mr. Joseffy proved himself equal to the emergency. In the Mozart concerto he had to contend not only against technical difficulties, but against the work itself, which, in its first movement, is bright and sprightly, but in the other movements so dreary and superannuated that neither his brilliant and smooth execution nor the delicate and finished phrasing of Mr. Thomas's orchestra could invest it with any charm. The Saint-Saëns concerto was more worthy of the occasion. It is full of dazzling effects and French *esprit*, and gave Mr. Joseffy every opportunity to display his thorough mastery of all the mechanical and most of the intellectual and emotional attributes we are accustomed to look for in a great pianist of this period. The orchestra alone played Gluck's immortal overture to "Iphigenia in Aulis" and Schumann's "Overture, Scherzo, and Finale." Mr. Thomas's musicians are not quite the same in these extra concerts that they are in the Philharmonic concerts. They seem to feel less put on their dignity, and play to some extent as if they were having a holiday. By this we do not at all mean that they play badly. On the contrary, although they are apt to pay a little less attention to shading than usual, there is a peculiar vigor, freshness, and *abandon* in their playing that inevitably affects the hearer and makes him feel equally fresh and happy.

THE ST. CLAIR PAPERS.

The Life and Public Services of Arthur St. Clair, with his Correspondence and other Papers, arranged and annotated by William Henry Smith. 2 vols., large 8vo, pp. 609 and 649. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1882.

THE existence in Kansas of a mass of papers in the handwriting of Arthur St. Clair, the first Governor of the Northwestern Territory, was made known to the State of Ohio in 1869 by a memorial presented to the Legislature by the Western Reserve Historical Society. At the special recommendation of Governor Hayes, the General Assembly voted an appropriation the following year for the purchase of the St. Clair manuscripts, which were finally secured for the State Library, where they were properly arranged. In order to make this mass of historical material available for research, and at the same time to remove all temptation from light-fingered antiquarians, autograph-stealers, and other kleptomaniacs, it was determined by the Library Commissioners to recommend publication, which was authorized in February, 1881. The papers were then entrusted to the editorial hands of William Henry Smith, formerly Secretary of the State of Ohio, who was known to have been engaged for several years in a special study of the life and times of Arthur St. Clair. The editor, after a critical collation of the purchased texts, with others existing in private collections (whereby first drafts were either corrected or eliminated), has, in a year's time, presented the public with a well-digested edition of the St.

Clair Papers, classified chronologically by subjects, and provided with a serviceable index. The first volume contains the editor's own study of the "Life and Public Services of Arthur St. Clair," occupying 256 pages, and more than one-third of the St. Clair Papers, this portion embracing St. Clair's correspondence during the period of the boundary troubles between Pennsylvania and Virginia, also during Lord Dunmore's Indian war and the entire Revolutionary struggle. The second volume is devoted entirely to papers touching the government and defence of the Northwestern Territory. Valuable as were St. Clair's military services in connection with the French and Indian wars and as an adviser of Washington during the Revolution, it is chiefly for his subsequent merits as the pioneer of law and institutions in the Northwest that he ought to be known; and it is perhaps the chief merit of Mr. Smith's work that he has laid special stress upon the above introduction of government by St. Clair under the Ordinance of 1787.

The origin of this famous Ordinance, which established free soil, land titles, townships, schools, civil and religious liberty, beyond the Ohio, and the idea of a growing system of federal States, gradually organized from the national domain under the sovereign control of Congress, is one of the most disputed questions of American constitutional history. Daniel Webster, in his speech against Hayne on the Western land question, took occasion to claim the authorship of the Ordinance for Nathan Dane, of Massachusetts, and said, moreover, that "it was carried by the North, and by the North alone." Hayne and Benton at once opposed this Northern view, and claimed for the South the chief credit in passing the Ordinance, and the honor of authorship for Thomas Jefferson (Benton, i., 133-6). Since that memorable debate, partisans of Massachusetts and Virginia, of the North and the South, have battled for the possession of historic ground, which in point of fact belongs to neither party, but to both. The side of Jefferson is best supported by Hon. Edward Coles, a Virginian, at one time Governor of Illinois, in a paper published in 1856 by the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, on the Ordinance of 1787. The Dane point of view is well presented, first, in Dane's own letter to Webster, printed in the Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society, February, 1869, and, secondly, in Spencer's 'History of the United States' (ii.,202-9), which contains a letter of Dane to Rufus King, written shortly after the passage of the Ordinance. Broader than these partisan views are the judgments of Peter Force in the *National Intelligencer*, August 26, 1847 (reprinted in the St. Clair Papers); of W. F. Poole, in the *North American Review*, April, 1876; and of the editor of the St. Clair Papers, who follows Mr. Poole in the view that the Ordinance was passed at the instance of Dr. Manasseh Cutler, Ministerial Agent for the Ohio Company, composed of New England men, and with power from them and others to negotiate the purchase of 5,000,000 acres of land, but suggests that Mr. Poole "gives too little consideration to the influence of others." Mr. Smith mentions the influence of St. Clair, who, by virtue of his position as President of Congress, appointed a committee favorable to Dr. Cutler's scheme, and thus supplemented the efforts of that estimable divine, from Ipswich, Massachusetts, who, in these degenerate times, would perhaps be called a lobbyist. Mr. Poole, if we understand him, does not claim that Dr. Cutler actually framed the Ordinance, but that he influenced its revision and successful passage. Mr. Smith's view that there were "many authors" is sound. The Ordinance of 1787, like all products of wise legislation, was created not by one man or one section of country, but by the concurrent wisdom of many men and by the unanimous vote of Congress. Jefferson and Dane, Pickering and King, of Massachusetts, Carrington and Lee, of Virginia, Kean, of South Carolina, and Smith, of New York, the moral and educational interests of New England (represented by Dr. Cutler), the economic interests of the whole country (providing for its public debts by the sale of public lands), the "private speculation" of "many of the principal characters in America" (Cutler's Diary), the personal popularity of St. Clair with the Southern party, which wished to reimburse the General for his Revolutionary losses by making him Governor of the Northwest—all these influences, and many more besides, entered into the formation and adoption of the Ordinance of 1787.

The germ of this Magna Charta of the West lay in Jefferson's idea of "a charter of compact," the articles of which should "stand as fundamental constitutions ["conditions" Mr. Smith and Peter Force have it, *cf.* Journals of Congress, iv., 380] between the thirteen original States, and each of the several States now newly described," which Jefferson, according to the first draft which Peter Force copied, would have named Sylvania, Michigania, Cheronesus, Assenisipia (from Assenisipi or Rock River), Metropotamia, Illinoia, Saratoga, Washington, Polypotamia, and Pelisipia! The country has escaped some of Jefferson's fancies, but his idea of a federal compact between the East and the West was good, and it was adopted by Congress April 23, 1784, and readopted July 13, 1787, in the so-called "articles of compact," which, as Nathan Dane said to Webster, are the most important part of the Ordinance and were made "to endure forever." Federal unity with the great West was a Jeffersonian idea, and it was the main idea of the Ordinance. The anti-slavery clause, which Jefferson would have applied to the entire West without any Ohio or Missouri compromise, was only a corollary to his main proposition. The fugitive-slave clause, introduced by the consent of the North into the noble Ordinance of 1787, was perhaps another corollary; but it was not drawn by Jefferson. The original idea of a compact grew, according to principles of natural selection, from its Congressional environment. The representatives of Virginia introduced a saving clause in favor of the laws and customs of the French villagers beyond the Ohio, who had "professed themselves citizens of Virginia." Massachusetts, through the legal knowledge of Nathan Dane and the diplomacy of Dr. Cutler, provided for the welfare of her colonists by incorporating principles from her own Constitution of 1780, which, like all State governments in America at that time, was based upon old English institutions, the Bill of Rights, and the Common Law. Such was the origin of the Ordinance of 1787—not a sudden creation, but a slow, historic growth, the product of many minds and many interests working toward a common end.

The experience of St. Clair as a fighter of Indians, and as a pioneer of civil institutions in western Pennsylvania, fitted him most admirably for the governmental conquest of Ohio. He had filled various grades of civic office, from surveyor and justice of the peace to membership of a Governor's Council, and now, as Governor of the Northwestern Territory, he was to introduce the Ordinance of 1787. The settlement of Ohio by colonists from New England began on the 7th of April, 1788, at Marietta, under the shelter of a military post, Fort Harmar. On the 15th of July, his Excellency Governor St. Clair, accompanied by Secretary Sargent and the Judges appointed by Congress, made their official entry into the village of Marietta, the first capital of the Northwest. The Ordinance for the institution of government and the commissions of the Governor and Judges were read by the Secretary. St. Clair then made a speech to the people, emphasizing the importance of "good government," and saying that the Judges, with his assistance, were empowered "to select from the codes of the mother States such laws as may be thought proper." As by a prætorian edict, government was proclaimed in this Territorial province. It is interesting to note that the first law actually instituted in Ohio was for the creation of a militia. This reminds one of the very first law enacted in Plymouth town meeting "for the establishing of military orders" (Dexter's 'Mourt's Relation,' 80). Measures for the common defence are always first in the history of Saxon civic communities. By the Ordinance of 1787 the Governor was made commander-in-chief of the militia, and invested with power of appointing county magistrates and local officers. Two days after the institution of militia, St. Clair ordered "the county of Washington" to be laid out, and issued commissions to "Rufus Putnam and Benjamin Tupper, Esquires," justices of the peace. A Court of Quarter Sessions, a County Court of Common Pleas, a Sheriff, a Court of Probate, oaths of office, fines and penalties, laws regulating marriages, etc., were soon instituted. The formal inauguration of the judiciary is graphically described by the editor of the St. Clair Papers:

"On that memorable first Tuesday of September the citizens, Governor St. Clair, and other Territorial officers and military from Fort Harmar being assembled at the Point, a procession was formed, and, as became the occasion, with Colonel Ebenezer Sproat, Sheriff, with drawn sword and wand of office at the head, marched up a path that had been cut through the forest to the hall in the northwest blockhouse of Campus Martius, where the whole countermarched, and the Judges, Putnam and Tupper, took their seats on the high bench. Prayer was fittingly offered by our friend, the Rev. Manasseh Cutler, who was on a visit to the new colony, after which the commissions of the Judges, Clerk, and Sheriff were read, and the opening proclaimed in deep tones by Colonel Sproat, in these words: 'O yes! a court is opened for the administration of even-handed justice, to the poor and the rich, to the guilty and the innocent, without respect of persons; none to be punished without trial by their peers, and then in pursuance of the laws and evidence in the case.' . . . This was the opening of the Court of Common Pleas. The Indian chiefs, who had been invited by Governor St. Clair to attend a convention, were curious witnesses of this impressive scene" (i., 148-9).

St. Clair is perhaps best known, not as the founder and civic organizer of the Northwest, but as an unfortunate general under whom the Western army suffered a terrible defeat by Indian savages. The popular verdict as to St. Clair's criminal responsibility in this matter is based upon the current tradition of his condemnation by George Washington, who, upon the authority of his Secretary, Colonel Lear, and of his biographers, Custis, Rush, and Irving, is reputed to have indulged himself in the most terrible profanity after hearing the news from St. Clair's messenger, although the wrath of the Father of his Country was restrained until after dinner, and, indeed, for several hours, until the close of an evening party. Mr. Smith treats the above story in a very matter-of-fact way by saying that Major Denny, St. Clair's messenger, delivered his despatches not to Washington, but to General Knox, the Secretary of War. Major Denny describes his call upon the President: "The morning after my arrival here [Philadelphia] General Knox called at my quarters, and took me to the President's, where we breakfasted with the family, and afterward had much talk on the subject of the campaign and defeat." If this was really the first interview of Major Denny with Washington, it would seem to throw some dis-

credit upon the old story of an officer in full uniform dismounting in front of the Presidential mansion, at the close of a winter's day, and proceeding to sound the knocker, whereupon opens a drama lasting the entire evening, and moving with all the dreary solemnity of a Greek play to its final "scene." It is a well-known fact that George Washington sometimes swore, although Jared Sparks eliminated everything that was improper in Washington's writings, but it is somewhat doubtful whether, on this occasion, St. Clair was really cursed in the name of widows and orphans and of the country at large. Chief-Justice Marshall says the defeated general "still retained the undiminished esteem and good opinion of Washington." Congress investigated the whole matter, and reported that it was simple justice to St. Clair to acknowledge that "the failure of the late expedition can in no respect be imputed to his conduct, either at any time before or during the action." The plain facts appear to be that St. Clair was not adequately supported by the War Department; he had for the most part only raw militia, with poor guns, poor powder, and insufficient supplies. The men, on half rations and without pay, deserted in large numbers, and St. Clair found himself left in the wilderness with only 1,400 troops, which were surrounded by a host of savages, supplied with arms and ammunition from British posts, and incited to repel all further invasion of the Northwest. Congress learned wisdom by St. Clair's defeat, and gave his successor, General Wayne, a well-disciplined army of five thousand men.

St. Clair's military reverse occurred in the fall of the year 1791. His work of civic construction, defended by military power, went on for eleven years, until 1802, when he was deposed from office because he was too staunch a Federalist to suit the Republican party of Jefferson. St. Clair now returned to his old home in western Pennsylvania, where he endeavored to gather together what remained of his family and fortune. Before the Revolution St. Clair was a wealthy man. Returning from service under Wolfe in Canada, the gallant young Scotchman had married a Boston heiress, of Bayard and Bowdoin blood, with £14,000 for her dowry. Instead of remaining amid the refinements of Boston society, where he was a great favorite, the young man removed with his wife to the Ligonier Valley, where he settled upon a large estate granted him by the Government for his military services. Much of his personal property was, however, sacrificed during the Revolutionary war in maintaining the troops of the Pennsylvania line, a sacrifice which the Governorship of the Northwest never made good. He returned from beyond the Ohio, embarrassed by debts amounting to more than $9,000, which had been incurred in furnishing supplies for military purposes. The Government, moved by party considerations, ignored his claims, and St. Clair's entire property was in consequence swept away by his creditors. The impoverished old general and his devoted daughter took refuge in a log hut, upon a bit of waste land, on the old State road from Bedford to Pittsburg, and supported themselves by selling provender to wagoners and westward-moving immigrants. Major-General Arthur St. Clair, the friend of Washington, once President of Congress and the first Governor of the Northwestern Territory, reduced to this wretched plight, while orators like Henry Clay, Charles Mercer, and William Henry Harrison (St. Clair's successor in the Northwest) were vainly pleading his cause, is a spectacle for pessimistic contemplation more notable perhaps than that of Robert Morris, the financier who made the combination at Yorktown possible, sitting in a debtor's prison at Philadelphia for three and a half years. But Robert Morris had been a reckless land-speculator, and perhaps St. Clair was not altogether wise in his business relations and public career. Circumstances often mitigate the passing ingratitude of republics; moreover, in the end, some States pay their debts of honor —for example, Ohio to the memory of St. Clair.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Fixed Period A Novel. By Anthony Trollope. Harper's Franklin Square Libary.

Prudence. By Lucy C. Lillie. Harper & Bros.

A Tallahassee Girl. [Round-Robin Series.] Boston : James R. Osgood & Co.

In the Distance. By George Parsons Lathrop. Boston : James R. Osgood & Co.

Exchange No Robbery. By M. Betham Edwards. Harper & Bros.

Bits from Blinkbonny. By John Strathesk. Robert Carter & Bros.

The Freres. By Mrs. Alexander. [Leisure-Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co.

The Lads and Lasses of Langley. By Charlotte M. Yonge. E. & J. B. Young & Co.

Beggar My Neighbor. By E. D. Gerard. Harper & Bros.

Spinoza. By Berthold Auerbach. Translated by E. Nicholson. [Leisure-Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co.

Genji Monogatari. London : Trübner & Co.

WHY Mr. Trollope should have taken to satire at this late day it is difficult to guess, and not less difficult after than before reading his 'Fixed Period.' The story appears to be intended to satirize the belief, so far as it can be said to have any existence, in euthanasia. For this purpose we are taken to an island in the Pacific called Britannula, originally a colony of Great Britain, but long since practically independent, where an extremely stupid but very popular President, named Neverbend, has succeeded in getting a law enacted by which, to spare the aged the pains and troubles of old age, and to save the community the expense involved in the support of those who are no longer able to support themselves, all old people who have reached a limit of age fixed by statute are to be "deposited" for a year in a senile retreat, known as "The College," where, after spending their last twelvemonth surrounded by every luxury and comfort which legislation can supply, they are to be disposed of in a painless and classical manner, by having their veins opened in a bath. The act, though adopted with enthusiasm, leads to trouble. The first Britannulist who reaches the fixed period is a hale and hearty old man. He feels that he has in him the capacity for many more years of active life, and wishes to devote them to the quiet accumulation of wealth and the enjoyment of a serene and happy old age, surrounded by his family. He has no desire to be "deposited" or to die before his time comes. The reluctance of this old gentleman to comply with the terms of the law is the only really humorous thing in the book. There is a love affair between his daughter and the son of the President, and in the end the custom of "deposition" is broken up through their unwillingness to have Eva's father sent to the "College." The powerful English naval vessel, aptly named the *John Bright*, appears off the island, and, with a 250-ton gun, threatens it with destruction. Great Britain resumes her authority in Britannula, puts a new governor in charge, and Mr. Neverbend is sent to England.

If any reformer had ever seriously proposed to introduce euthanasia as an actual practice of dealing with the old, satire of it might be amusing; but as "removing" the old has never been in civilized life anything but a fanciful idea with which people amuse themselves in conversation, satire is out of place in connection with it. For satire there must be somewhere a serious foundation of belief to be ridiculed and made light of. Here there is just the opposite. The result is that this book is like an elaborate elephantine attempt at a joke by a person without any sense of humor. As admirers of Mr. Trollope we feel that we must beg him to stop and not be deluded into imagining that the 'Fixed Period' is a success. The satire involved in the general conception of the story is weighed down and rendered still more ponderous by some cyclopean specimens of incidental humor. Everybody travels on bicycles going at the rate of a railroad train, and lighted with electric lamps; cricket matches are played with steam bowlers and catapults; telephonic communication between sea and shore is maintained by means of "hair" telephones, etc. All this is rather labored than amusing.

The readers of 'Prudence,' when it appeared as a serial, must have been conscious that it was a little belated. Its theme is the "æsthetic craze" in London. In the treatment of such a subject for purposes of fiction, there are only two standpoints—the one of whole-hearted enthusiasm, the other of satire. If the first had ever been tenable, it was no longer possible from the moment that *Patience* and *Bunthorne* appeared, while after the cleverness of that caricature any attempt at purely literary satire falls flat. The mind which had not logic enough to perceive the existence of these inevitable difficulties could have neither the force nor the originality to make a brilliant book. Hence it need be no surprise that 'Prudence' is dull in style and very scanty in material. Æsthetic parlors and studies would be fertile and delightful fields for a *real* "realist," but the best that Mrs. Lillie can do is to say of a drawing-room : "Whatever of art and decoration there is, is of the best." No one has ever forgotten the beautiful, suggestive description of the studio by the Thames in 'The Village on the Cliff.' So far as situation and traditions go, it might be in the same rooms that Prudence sits for her portrait, but Mrs. Lillie contents herself with such tame indefiniteness as : "Within, everything that a really good instinct for color and arrangement could do, he had done for the room. I cannot hope to describe the means employed for this wonderfully harmonious end."

The story is as improbable as it is simple. Prudence is a young American girl of exquisite beauty, who has her head—such a head as it is—turned by the frivolity and flattery of a fashionable set in London. She marries "a prosperous New Yorker, with a flavor of good society and cheerfulness," and so goes near to break the heart of her first lover, Fielding, who is represented as the incarnation of all the supposed New England virtues in an exterior of (equally supposed) New England plainness and dulness. It is all nearly absurd enough to refute itself, but there are two especial contradictions which seem to us to call for remark. Young ladies of such position as to command an entrance into good society in London, and of fortune sufficient for costumes of "creamy satin and careless lace," do not come out of "sober, ugly-colored parlors" wherein "the dull existence of American women grows grayer year by year." But a graver matter is the inconsistency in the character of Prudence. She was the darling of a brother of great intellectual power, of devotion equal to self-sacrifice and death in the yellow-fever epidemic, and all her girlhood the companion of the studies and thoughts of Fielding, a man of the highest, noblest aims. That a girl brought up under such influences would be carried off her feet by a mere glimpse of the gay world is

as unlikely as that a man like Fielding could have for so many years delighted in the sympathy of an empty-headed doll, such as the Prudence of the end of the tale. Either supposition degrades the ideal of life and cheapens the value of early influence and association. The illustrations are by Du Maurier; but if he had never done anything better, neither Postlethwaite nor Oscar Wilde would be as notorious as he is.

'A Tallahassee Girl' abounds in crudities of thought and absurdities of expression at which it is impossible not to smile; yet, for all that, it is quite the best of the "Round-Robin Series." Its sketches are broken, but one catches from them the charm of the faded dignity, the drowsy afternoon calm of the old Southern capital. Lucie, the heroine, is a gracious figure, and it is in her portrait and in the conception of the relations of the three men of the story to her and to each other, that the marked merit of the book lies.

"We dropped in there like strange beings from another planet. She looked curiously and inquiringly at us; she enjoyed us as somewhat new and interesting; but she loved Vance before she ever saw us, and she was, like a true, sweet woman the world over, faithful and loyal to her lord. The thing has its touch of pathos, its pang, its irony, but it also has the dewy freshness and tenderness and joyfulness of the old, old story. It ended in a happy marriage. What could be added? Is it not a perfectly rounded poem?"

The delicacy and reserve of handling with which the main idea is developed, even in the extravagance of style, suggest a musician who can compose a sweet and tender harmony and yet knows not quite how to manage the pedals. The surmise is obvious that the book is a first effort. If so, it is either a chance hit of unusual felicity, or else it is the evident promise of something better. Predilections for finished writing compel us to say that "Ind." and "Ark." and "jun." are out of place in a novel, and to inquire for the proof-reader who could let pass "wrung in" for "rung in," or "wreaked" for "wrecked."

It is Monadnoc which is 'In the Distance,' dominating the lives of the personages of the story, though the author, aware that this is not the effect of mountains upon the immediate dwellers thereby, imports his dramatis personæ, the keepers of a summer holiday and the young new minister of the village. This novel is totally unlike Auerbach's 'On the Heights,' and yet the one suggests the other—not, we are sorry to say, to the advantage of the New England story. This is not uninteresting, and some of the situations are almost thrilling; but there was a subtlety in the original conception which only a stronger imaginative power could realize. The hero has a force and a nobility which compel belief in him; but we could wish that he had been left to himself to discover the folly and selfishness of his very self-denial. A typhoid fever is a potent argument, but there would be more respect for a man capable of reasoning himself into reasonableness. A tendency to far-fetched conceits and similes gives a labored effect to the style, while proofs of keen and delicate observation are still not wanting. Of such is the description of "people whose riches were greater than themselves"; or this: "His manner was charged with a tenderness that tried to conceal itself under the deference and respect of a man who discusses some mere business detail with a woman upon whom great suffering has unexpectedly fallen." The best picture is that of the Divinity Professor, the last of a clerical family: "He represented one of the few kinds of hereditary aristocracy that receive a careless, grudging recognition in America; and it was with something like the pride of a waning aristocracy that for many years he had written, taught, and preached, dreaming of the restoration of his Pilgrim forefathers' faith to its ancient power."

'Exchange No Robbery' is a very pretty and very improbable story, yet very *vraisemblable*. It is of the sort that tempts a critic to tell it; but it would be a pity to reveal the secret of the mystification, innocent at first, but growing to a portentous and hazardous state secret. Grand kinsfolk are elated that the ducal house, "so particularly unendowed in the female line, should produce such a paragon"; and, for once, confession becomes no duty, and, in the end, a pair of true lovers are happily "fated by a jest."

'Bits from Blinkbonny' is a story unpretending enough, but with the inimitable Scotch flavor. If heroine there be, it is Bell Cameron, a faithful servant-woman; but the chief incident is the leaving of manse and kirk by her master, the minister, at the "Disruption" of forty years ago. That secession, and the formation of the Free Church of Scotland, will seem now, we fear, an episode obscure as well as remote; but this book will to some readers bring back days when the name of Mary Lundie Duncan was familiar in the household, and when childish hearts thrilled with the story from their elders (to whom it was a present reality) of how the four hundred ministers rose up in St. Andrew's Church, and, leaving their all behind them, went out from the General Assembly to poverty and to freedom.

Mrs. Alexander has put less plot than ever into 'The Freres.' A succession of lovers appear, and there might as well have been six of them as three before the right one, for there seems no lack yet of the mildly-interesting incidents with which she is wont to fill her pages. Much of the scene is laid in Germany, and if to some readers it is (in more senses than one) not a little after 'The Initials,' Grace Frere, as the faithful daughter and the sister devoted to a ne'er-do-weel brother, is of a type always welcome in a novel. There is an amusing consciousness of "elegance" in clothes, and the speeches are not always in perfect good taste; but one would not be captious over a book in the main so sweet and wholesome as this.

'The Lads and Lasses of Langley' relates the adventures of a dozen village children of high and low degree. The "Wolf" is a pretty instance of a genuine sensation made up from very simple material. However one may differ from Miss Yonge, all will agree that her stories for girls and boys inculcate sound principles of truth and honor. The children are naughty, not in proportion to the inconvenience they give, but because of the real right and wrong of things.

It would seem to imply some special influence in the air, that four novels come at once to our hands in which the central figures are Jews. 'Beggar My Neighbor' deals with country life in Poland. It is cast in the somewhat fantastic mould of the game of cards of that name. The villain of the plot is Lucyan Bielinski, the lord of the manor; but the arch-knave is Aitzig Majulik, the Jew—"one of that nation who are at once the slaves and the masters of Poland. Drawing gain out of the indolence of Polish character, the Jews have, little by little, got the strings of the whole national life into their hands. They have crept into the machinery of public life, and have wound and wormed themselves in behind the very veil of privacy. They cannot be kept away or pushed back; for you cannot fight them with their own weapons—they do not push, they crawl." Lucyan wins the first hand, but loses the honor. In the end both lose the last trick, and perforce the analogy breaks down; for it is the non-player who wins. The story has nothing to do with politics, and the action is wholly within the traditional lines of Polish life and manners; but to lovers of puzzling plots and unexpected catastrophes it must be attractive. Two other novels are translations, one from the French, the other from the Spanish, but both turn upon the intermarriage of Jew and Christian. The first is only sensational after the usual fashion, and ends in a happy marriage at last. The Spanish book is a tale of sin, misery, and death, the very name of which it is best to suppress.

The translator of 'Spinoza' calls it a novel. Auerbach himself named it "Ein Denkerleben," and it is in fact one of those imaginative biographies which attempt rather to embody the spirit of a life than to narrate an exact sequence of real events. It is a book of thirty years since, and many who have read Auerbach's later works can never have heard of it. The oblivion that fell upon it is hardly deserved, though it has nothing to attract the usual novel-reader; on the other hand, while a life so lofty in aim and so absolute in its consecration to truth as Spinoza's can nowhere be viewed with indifference, readers who can appreciate his intellectual force will seek it in philosophy rather than in fiction. The story follows the well-known outlines, closing with the excommunication of Spinoza by the ten Rabbis, "since he would have naught but the good old right of free thought." The portrait of Spinoza is lifelike, although the dialogue often becomes only a disquisition in philosophy, but the other figures lack reality. Even Olympia, the young Roman Catholic whom he loves but will not marry because he cannot forsake the faith of his fathers, has no such charm as to justify his devotion. The translation is superior to most work of the kind. It never degrades the original, though the sentences often labor with the weight of the heavy inversions of the German. "This neck-risking setting of his formerly squandered life on a single cast," is not English. There is an unaccountable fondness for changing constructions: the literal "Am I to be a tradesman?" is surely better than "Must I go into trade?"

'Genji Monogatari' (The Story of Genji) is the standard classic of pure Japanese, written in that melodious language once spoken by the Nippon islanders, but now corrupted to a semi-Chinese jargon. The original work is everything in style and next to nothing in plot. It was written by a court lady of Kiōto about the year 1004 A. D., and the story of its composition is neatly told in the silver-stamped cover of the translation, on which the moonlight and waves rippling in silver sheen, the lone temple on the mountain-side, and the "moon-viewing chamber," appear in chaste design. Most Americans are already familiar with the picture on lacquered ware of a literary lady with the long tresses and spotted forehead of nobility, sitting, pen in hand, with ink-stone and manuscript, before a low table. This is the authoress, Murasaki Shikibu, while the numerous heroines and the one Don Juan of the tale, Hikaru Genji, are represented with all possible wealth and harmony of color, dress, and details of palace life in the crepe paper which of late has furnished our ladies with material or patterns for tidies and fancy needle-work. The so-called Greek fret or border is called in Japan Genji-gata, or Genji pattern. Only seventeen chapters of the original fifty-four have been put in almost too familiar English by Mr. Suyematsu Kenchio, a young Japanese at Cambridge, England, who, besides being a traveller in China and Corea, has fleshed his pen in English before in historical theses. The floral and artistic titles of the book take their names from the women be loved by the hero, and these in their turn from

blossoms and bric-à-brac. The book is highly interesting as an accurate picture of life in the old anti-feudal days of Japan, when no Tycoons obscured the splendor of the Mikado and his court. It will also serve as a valuable key to that background of two widely differing schools of Japanese art—in one of which the ancient painter wrought with reverence, and in the other the modern, but more original sketched with satire and laughter unconcealed. The Tosa-yé, or style, deals with court life and the pomp and circumstance of royalty; but Hokusai, while never daring to touch with caricature his contemporaries, the parvenu nobility of Yedo, makes merry with the decayed grandees of Kiōto. Murillo and Zamacoïs may perhaps suggest a not-too-misleading parallel. Nothing like the matter of this book has yet appeared in English, and apart from the philosophy of "love"—which might interest Ebers—as the Japanese conceive it, the bits of criticism and discussions on art and natural scenery scattered here and there are piquant and relishable. It is odd to find in this book of the hermit nation of near a millennium ago such *blasé* wit and opinions, and such an Endymion-like picture of human life. With rare courage and loyalty, the translator dedicates his work to the present head of the Tokugawa house, whose "princes" ruled in Yedo from 1603 until 1868, and whose assumption of the title "Tycoon" cost them such grievous overthrow.

A Manual of Historical Literature. Comprising Brief Descriptions of the most important Histories in English, French, and German; together with Practical Suggestions as to Methods and Courses of Historical Study. For the use of students, general readers, and collectors of books. By Charles Kendall Adams, LL.D., Professor of History in the University of Michigan. New York: Harper & Bros. 1882. 8vo, pp. 665.

THIS long title describes very fully the scope and character of Professor Adams's Manual. It is a book which has required an immense amount of labor, and presents a body of invaluable information which was before very hard to get at. It is not too much to say that it will prove indispensable to teachers and students of history and to public libraries. It consists of fourteen chapters of unequal length, the first being an admirable general introduction, the last being devoted to the history of the United States. In each chapter the most important works upon the subject of the chapter are named and briefly described and characterized, and at the end of the chapter are a few pages of "suggestions to students and readers." The chapters themselves, where it has seemed desirable, are divided into sections; for example, chapter x., "Histories of France," has three sections—"General Histories," "Histories of Limited Periods," and "Histories of Institutions and Civilization"—besides the closing section of "suggestions."

The descriptions are careful and judicious, and, in most of the chapters, bear the marks of having been made from personal examination and not hearsay. There is always room for difference of opinion, but we think there will be but little exception taken to these criticisms. (Prof. Adams's estimate of Bacon's 'Henry VII.,' by the way, hardly agrees with Mr. Spedding's.) One is surprised, too, at the completeness of the lists. Hardly any books that would be expected to stand in such a list are omitted. Preparing a manual for the use of American students, the author has of course given principally works in the English language; and where a foreign work has been translated into English, the translation is named rather than the original. A large number of works, nevertheless, in German, French, and other languages, are mentioned.

The book as a whole can hardly be praised too highly. There are, however, some less familiar departments of history in which Mr. Adams is evidently not at home, and where we find some serious deficiencies and even errors. This is especially the case in the north and east of Europe. The bibliography is here much less complete, and does not in all cases—as it should do—give the one best book upon the subject. We find the best book upon Denmark (Dahlmann), Sweden (Geijer), Russia (Rambaud—the best in English, at least), and Poland (Röpell and Caro. By the way, there appears to be a strange oversight about this work. It is said to be in three volumes, and to be better in the earlier portion, for the reason that "the partitions" are better understood now than when it was written. But the *fourth* volume, published in 1875, reaches only to the year 1455). Nothing is given for Hungary, Bohemia, or Portugal, where the best available works are Szalay or Fessler, Palacky or Schlesinger, and Schäfer (Schäfer's 'Spain' is mentioned); it would be well also to mention so high an authority as Bernhardy's 'Russia' and Dasent's 'Burnt Njal' for early Scandinavian history. Certainly Thorpe's 'Northern Mythology' (p. 428), although a larger work than Anderson's 'Norse Mythology,' is not "fuller" in the proper sense of the word, only one volume of about 200 pages being devoted to this mythology against about 350 of Anderson. The mention of Bowring's translation of the 'Eddas' (p. 432) must be from a confusion with his translations from Slavic and other literatures. Of American State histories Egle's 'Pennsylvania' and Moore's 'North Carolina' are omitted.

Apart from this, there are very few misprints or oversights. Still, it is impossible to keep such errors entirely out of a first edition, and we have noted a few. Mr. Toulmin Smith's name (p. 179) is given as *Tomlin*. We find *Lang* (pp. 425 and 432) for *Laing*. Geijer's ('History of Sweden') is given as *Geijger* (p. 424); Kitchin's ('History of France') as *Kitchen* (p. 301). In speaking of Sinding's 'History of Scandinavia,' the author laments "the dearth of works on the subject," forgetting the better work of Otte. Lindner's 'Geschichte des deutschen Reiches,' vol. iii., is mentioned (p. 251) as published in 1875; the second volume appeared in 1880, bringing the history down to the deposition of Wenceslas, in 1400. It would hardly be expected that all of Von Maurer's voluminous works should be mentioned (p. 278), but we should say that the two that are omitted—the 'Einleitung' and the 'Hofverfassung'—are perhaps the two most important of the whole. One is struck, in looking over these lists, with the poverty of the English language in good histories of these outlying countries. In many cases there appears to be nothing later and more complete than the excellent short histories by Dunham and others which appeared fifty years ago in Lardner's and the Edinburgh Cyclopædias. But there is nothing worthy to be compared with the Heeren, Ukert, and Giesebrecht series, to which Dahlmann, Geijer, and Schäfer belong.

We would direct special attention to one of the most valuable features of the book—the detailed advice to students given in the introductory chapter and in the "suggestions" appended to each following chapter. As the work of a practical teacher of great experience and an unusual degree of success, they speak with high authority. There is a very complete and remarkably good index.

The World's Foundations; or, Geology for Beginners. By Agnes Giberne. Robert Carter & Bros. 1882.

THE purpose of this little book is to set forth the general outlines of modern geological science in a manner adapted to the comprehension of youthful readers or other slightly advanced students. Its author has drawn much of its material from good sources, and has compiled a brief treatise which is pleasantly written and likely to interest and instruct many readers of the class for which it is designed. The subject is treated in three divisions, the first giving some general ideas of the crust of the earth and the nature of the igneous and sedimentary rocks; the second reviewing briefly the successive geological periods, with their development of life; and the third devoted to some account of the current operations of active geological forces, such as water in its various forms, volcanoes, earthquakes, and coral-reef builders. The book, though not intended especially as a religious work, has throughout a decidedly religious tone. In its first two divisions the writer is at considerable pains to harmonize the geological with the Mosaic record, or, at least, to convey to the reader some of the leading ideas of modern geologists without disturbing or unsettling any pre-existing opinions based upon religious teaching. This is especially true of the question of time involved in the development or "creation" of the earth and of the lower forms of life. Of the modern ideas of evolution there is scarcely more than a hint in the whole book. The "time of Adam" and the "creation of Adam" are referred to in a manner implying an unshaken belief in the Mosaic account of the origin of man on the earth. The book abounds in Scriptural quotations and allusions, and each chapter is preceded by a text from the Bible, in a manner somewhat suggestive of grains of scientific truth in Scripture-coated pills. The book is a safe one for Sunday-school libraries.

Birds'-Nesting: A Handbook of Instruction in Gathering and Preserving the Nests and Eggs of Birds for the Purposes of Study. By Ernest Ingersoll. Salem: George A. Bates. 1882. 1 vol. 12mo, pp. xiv.–110.

THIS treatise is an expansion of a series of articles published in early numbers of *Science News*, a periodical published for a short time by Mr. Ingersoll and Mr. W. C. Wyckoff. "In the course of their expansion the author has not felt himself bound by any hard and fast limits in the treatment of his subject, in respect either to the matter discussed or the manner of discussion. Intermixed with essential information, therefore, will be found a plentiful salting of facts and considerations which, if not important for their novelty or practical value, may prove suggestive, or at least entertaining." We trust that the salting of essential information with facts—not a bad thing in a handbook of instruction on scientific topics—suffices to make the book suggestive at least; for entertaining it can hardly fail to be to any one with the least sense of humor. Whether the author's acquaintance with practical oölogy enables him to draw upon his personal experiences for his "salting" or not, is beside the point; for if it does not, his familiarity with what leading authorities have had to say on the subject is manifested with the facile, not to say happy-go-lucky, pen of one who knows his own wherever found, and feels confident of his ability to utilize it to advantage; and this is doubtless one evidence of successful journalistic enterprise in scientific as in other fields of human inquiry. The subject is handled under the leading heads of field-work, preparation of specimens, the cabinet, list of birds whose

nidification is unknown, and bird architecture; and is illustrated with woodcuts of implements, etc., from Prof. Newton's Smithsonian article and from other sources, as well as by some of startling originality, like those on pp. 14, 15, for example.

Arctic Sunbeams; or, From Broadway to the Bosphorus by way of the North Cape. By S. S. Cox. Putnams. 8vo, pp. 347. 1882. Illustrated.

ACCORDING to the preface, this book has "the simple and harmless egotism of the author and not the pretension of an archæologist or discoverer. The external views are referable to the sensations of the writer." We believe, for a preface, that this is unusually accurate; more so, in fact, than some of the "sensations" recorded. "Driver and dragoman, camel and car . . . are only accessories" "in which the author is the actor." We have not been able to find any description, however, of the manner in which the author acted either in a dragoman or in a camel, nor of the effects upon those "accessories" of such internal action. "The elder world from the midnight sun to the isles gilded by eternal summer can never cease to be attractive. How this attraction may possibly be enhanced even by the insignificance of personal intrusion, the volume itself may show," says the author; but, after a careful perusal, we confess our inability to discover how this may be. The midnight sun at North Cape appears to have had an extraordinary effect upon our traveller. Embarrassed by riches, we make room for one gem, relating to sunset:

"Even a Norse poet—as Tennyson has translated it,—has pictured his preference for that glory, from when first the great sun-star of morning-tide—Lamp of the Lord God—glode over earth, till the glorious creature sunk to his setting" (p. 111).

After this it does not surprise us to learn that the author "commenced rhetoricating on the Fourth for Sunday Schools in Ohio when ten years of age" (p. 127). But we are not alone led persuasively amongst flowers of "rhetorication." Through the kaleidoscope which seems to have served him as a field-glass, our traveller occasionally discerns remarkable facts which it is entirely proper should be made widely known, since otherwise they might escape general recognition. Thus we are told that from Mt. Haparanda, in Sweden, "just on the circle," the midnight sun may be seen, and that this luminary in September "descends and rests on the rim of the sky and on the 22d goes out altogether till the 22d of March" (p. 115). Turning from astronomy to natural history, we learn, apropos of the St. Petersburg Museum, that the last home of the dodo was in Java, where it was exterminated by pigs eating up its eggs.

Feeling sure that nothing we might say of the entire work could approach in felicity of representation the author's inimitable preface, we take reluctant leave of both by a couple of extracts from the latter:

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Plain-Speaking. By the author of 'John Halifax, Gentleman.' Harper & Bros.

UNDER this title are grouped a half-dozen essays, mainly on subjects pertaining to the minor morals. Their genial wisdom is illustrated with equal good sense and [illegible]te from the abundant material of a long and interesting life. Could "On Novels and Novel-Makers" be duly read and reflected upon, the world would be spared much of the trash now inflicted upon it. Foremost in value is a biographical sketch of a remarkable blind man, the head of the Normal College for the Blind in London. One is proud to read that he is an American. "The difference between him and all other people I ever knew is this—*he makes use of all his opportunities.*" "An Island of the Blest" is Capri, the charm of which is most attractively set forth, both as an outright health-resort and as a place for rest. At Capri, too, "the student of any sort will find the one great requisite for brain-work—quiet mixed with amusement." The reader will be repaid to look up as a supplement to this little sketch the monograph of Gregorovius, 'Die Insel Capri,' with its beautiful engravings, which Mrs. Craik does not appear to have seen. It was translated two years ago by Miss Lilian Clarke, of Boston, whose publishers were Lee & Shepard.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Cross, J. G. Eclectic Shorthand. Revised edition. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $2.
Longfellow, H. W. Outre-Mer: a Pilgrimage Beyond the Sea. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Longfellow, H. W. Hyperion: a Romance. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
McGovern, J. A Pastoral Poem, and Other Pieces. Chicago: Union Publishing House.
Nowlan, W. E., jr. Eadurga, Queen of Essex, and Other Poems. Boston.
Payn, J. For Cash Only. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Perkins—Danforth—Degraff. The Song Wave: designed for Schools, Teachers' Institutes, Musical Conventions, and the Home Circle. D. Appleton & Co.
Rogers, J. E. T. History of Agriculture and Prices in England, from 1259 to 1793. Vols. iii. and iv. 1401-1582. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Stewart, J. A. The English Manuscripts of the Nicomachean Ethics. Anecdota Oxoniensia. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Vignoli, T. Myth and Science: an Essay. [International Scientific Series.] D. Appleton & Co.
Wood, C. Saunterings in Europe. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1 50.
Wilson, A. J. The National Budget: The National Debt, Taxes, and Rates. Macmillan & Co. $1.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 11, 1882.

The Week.

THE debate on Mr. Gladstone's Irish policy did not come off on Monday night. The leaders on neither side were in a fit state to discuss anything. This is undoubtedly fortunate, because it will give the English people time for reflection, and give the House of Commons time to hear what the provinces and Scotland think about the crisis which the Irish assassinations have produced. As might have been expected, the Tory press, and probably nearly the whole of what is called "society" in London, are rampantly eager to fasten the guilt of the murders on the whole Irish people, and use them as an excuse for the abandonment of all healing measures and a return to the policy of coercion. The *Times* is the leader in this movement, and is publishing attacks of great brutality on Mr. Gladstone. In fact, the Tories evidently believe that their hour has come, and that they are going to have their revenge for all the mortifications and checks which the Minister has imposed on them during the last two years, and which they have thus far been only able to repay with impotent hatred. How Mr. Gladstone will meet the exigency, of course we can only conjecture; but his whole career leads us to believe that he will not waver.

The more is known about the assassinations the more reason there seems to be for believing that they were the work of the Fenians in this country—the desperate and degraded gang who furnished the materials for the Pennsylvanian Molly Maguires, to whom assassination seems the easiest way of getting almost anything they desire, and whose business would be ruined by a reconciliation between the Irish and the Government. The language of their organ here strengthens this suspicion. Now, neither the machinations of this class nor those of the ordinary Land League intimidators can be met by coercion simply. This has been demonstrated. The reason is that the bulk of the Irish people, however much they may disapprove of violence or outrage, will not help the officers of the law in bringing the perpetrators to justice. The problem of restoring order, therefore, in Ireland, is, emphatically, the winning over the people to the support of the law. The temper in which Mr. Gladstone's proffer of conciliation has been received, both by the Irish members in the House and by their constituents, and the expressions of horror and indignation which the assassinations have called forth, furnish an opportunity for this winning over such as has not been seen since the Union. If Mr. Gladstone has the strength and courage in this hour of supreme trial to avail himself of it, he may close forever this great fountain of bitterness. That he should take increased precautions for the arrest and punishment of villains who may be sent from this country on bloody errands, not even the Parnellites are disposed to deny; but whatever is done in that direction should be done after consultation with the Irish members, and should be accompanied by resolute persistence in his land policy. He is apparently determined to introduce a measure dealing with the arrears of rent, which is a good sign.

The appointment of Mr. Otto Trevelyan, Macaulay's nephew and biographer, as Chief Secretary for Ireland, has been made on the same principles as Lord Frederick Cavendish's. That is, he takes the office shorn of much of its power and dignity and without a seat in the Cabinet. Heretofore the Chief Secretary has been really the chief executive officer of the island, and the Lord-Lieutenant almost a mere ornament. This was particularly true during Mr. Forster's term. He was a real Viceroy, and armed with enormous powers. Now it seems that the Lord-Lieutenant, or more probably the Prime Minister himself, is to do the work of government, and the Chief Secretary is to receive rather than give instructions. But Mr. Trevelyan represents even more fully than Lord Frederick Cavendish the policy of conciliation. He is and always has been a radical reformer, and was very prominent in advocating the removal of one of the greatest of Irish abuses—the Church establishment—and will give no encouragement to any species of terrorism. The proposed increase of repressive machinery is said to consist in the trial of offenders in certain cases without a jury, which will probably meet with no opposition from the Parnellites, and will from all points of view be a great improvement on the Coercion Bill, under which all sorts of people were locked up on the mere suspicion of the police.

The only formal and deliberate revelation thus far touching the origin of the Dublin murders has come from the New York Assembly, which on Monday passed a resolution expressing its "belief" that they were the result of "private revenge," or, in other words, were committed by persons who bore Lord Frederick Cavendish or Mr. Burke a personal grudge. As all the known circumstances of the case suggest political motives for the crime, this resolution, which was introduced by Mr. Murphy, shows that the Assembly has come to the knowledge of facts not yet made public. We trust that it will, under these circumstances, not confine itself to a resolution, but will send Mr. Frelinghuysen, for transmission to London, such information as has reached it. O'Donovan Rossa, by the way, is apparently desirous of having it supposed that he planned the murders himself, and he would doubtless hint that he had personally assisted in committing them if he had not been so far away from the scene as to make this particular boast ridiculous.

Last Saturday the House of Representatives adopted the Tariff Commission Bill without amendment by a vote of 151 to 83. Of the majority, 119 were Republicans. Of the minority 73 were Democrats. As a measure of legislation and as a party movement, this bill is equally foolish and mischievous. The pretended object is the revision of the tariff. Congress made the tariff, and Congress is the only power that can revise it. Congress will have to act upon its own responsibility, and therefore upon its own judgment. It appeals to a Commission of outsiders to enlighten and guide that judgment. That Commission is to collect information and to express an opinion. All the information the Commission can possibly gather would also be at the disposal of any committee or member of Congress. And what authority will the opinions expressed by the Commission have to control the judgment of the Legislature? Of this we have already some premonitory symptoms. As is very credibly reported, the protectionists are extremely anxious that President Arthur should appoint as members of the Commission only men who are "safe"—that is to say, who can be depended upon to report strictly in favor of the protective system. In other words, in order to insure a certain report the President is to "pack" the Commission. What authority will the report of a "packed" Commission have? None at all. Its only effect will be to irritate the Opposition. On the other hand, if the President, in a spirit of fairness, composes the Commission of able men representing different views, what will be the result? The Commission will not furnish a united, harmonious opinion, but several conflicting ones, and Congress will be no nearer to an agreement of views and no more able to legislate than it is to-day. The reports and opinions of the Commission will only bring new fuel to the flame of the debate.

In the meanwhile precious time is lost. The reform of the tariff should be a gradual one. It should be conducted with a careful and fair consideration of existing interests. It should therefore be undertaken with a calm temper and at a time when the public mind is free from disturbing excitement—in a period of prosperity and contentment like the present. We all know that this period will inevitably be followed some time by another business crisis, probably not many years ahead of us. If the revision of the tariff is not undertaken now, it will be undertaken then, but then under the pressure of distress and dissatisfaction, and probably of a popular demand to change the whole system in a sudden and sweeping manner. To refer the work of revision first to an outside commission is just the way to squander the propitious hour. This Commission Bill ought therefore to be called "a bill to prevent the revision of the tariff for the present, and to refer it to a time of excitement and danger." The protectionists and the protected interests will have to thank themselves for the consequences.

The signing of the new Chinese Bill by the President seems likely to satisfy the Californians and take the question out of politics for three years at least. It suspends the Chinese

immigration for ten years, and provides certificates of identity for the Chinamen now here or who may hereafter lawfully come here, the forgery of which is to be severely punished; so that we shall have among us a considerable body of colored persons with passports, like the "free niggers" at the South in old times, who—to complete the resemblance—cannot be naturalized or become citizens. There are also punishments provided for the introduction of Chinamen by sea, but there appears to be no adequate defence against their coming in from Canada, or Vancouver's Island, or Mexico. Some troublesome questions are very likely to arise out of the arrival of British Chinamen, of whom there are large numbers. This may bother us as much as the arrival of British "nigger" crews in Southern ports used to do. Must we shut them up in jail here, during their stay, or force them to take certificates of identity? And if they refuse their certificates and still claim the right to stay, what are we to do? The more we examine the bill the less likely to be executed it seems, and we venture to predict that a vigorous attempt to execute it would in five years cover its authors with shame and confusion.

Recorder Smyth on Wednesday administered wholesome punishment to John Flanigan, who was convicted of an assault upon Wah Vuen, a Chinaman, and at the same time made some excellent remarks of a general nature. In sentencing the prisoner to pay a fine of $100 and go to prison for a year, the Judge said: "Chinamen, as well as other people, are entitled to the protection of the law. I have found them as a class quiet and orderly. . . . The roughs of this and other cities have made a business of molesting Chinamen without cause." This was really a rebuke to the majority in Congress as well as to John Flanigan. It is not necessary to assume that Senators and Representatives who voted to exclude the Mongolians would individually and physically attack them with force and arms. But the moral effect of the Anti-Chinese Bill is to encourage the roughs of San Francisco and New York to do precisely that. This unfriendly measure says substantially that Chinamen are not entitled, as other people are, to the protection of the law, or of the common rules of international comity; that they are not a quiet and orderly and desirable class of persons; and it molests them in a wholesale fashion without any reasonable cause. Congress, in spirit, if not in words, says to the John Flanigans: "You are quite right. These Chinese are entirely inferior to you, and you do well to treat them accordingly. Their mere existence in your presence is an intolerable offence, and you cannot be blamed for protesting against the nuisance with fists and feet. It is a shame that here and there a Recorder Smyth forgets himself so far as to call you to account for doing this. But a bill now pending will, it is hoped, gradually relieve you of the Chinese, so that you may exercise your emotions and your muscles upon equals of your own race."

The Supreme Court on Monday denied Sergeant Mason's application for a writ of habeas corpus. The main ground of the decision is that the offence for which Mason was tried was "largely one to the prejudice of good order and military discipline"; that, therefore, the court-martial had jurisdiction; that whether his attempt to kill Guiteau be punishable by the civil courts has no bearing on the present application, the military court having full jurisdiction. The Court might profitably have used some very strong language with regard to the argument that Mason's crime was not of a character to make him amenable to military discipline. If an attempt to murder a prisoner by a soldier charged with the duty of standing guard over him is not a military offence, it is hard to see what is. The somewhat thoughtless and vociferous sympathizers with Mason may think that this is just the kind of case that the writ of habeas corpus was invented for, much as Mr. Weller thought that an "alleybi" was the means provided by the common law for the defence of a breach of promise suit; but that the time of the Supreme Court should be taken up with it, and serious business sacrificed to it, is a little outrageous.

Congress, or at least some of its committees, seem determined to ride roughshod over the rights of the Indians in the Indian Territory in the establishment of railroad lines. The Senate Railroad Committee has made a report on a bill to incorporate the Cherokee Central Railroad and Telegraph Company, from which it appears that the Indians through whose lands the road is to run are not to be consulted at all. It "provides for the property and rights of the Indians" by "authorizing their own local authorities to have jurisdiction for the proper protection of their nations or citizens from loss or damage sustained by them in consequence of any unauthorized action or doings of the Company," and expresses the belief that, in view of this, "the authorities of none of the several nations of Indians through whose country said railroad may pass, can reasonably withhold, or will withhold, their approval of the right of way granted by the bill to said Company." But if the Indians do not look at the matter in that light, then, the Committee says, "their action could be regarded in no other light than an unreasonable obstruction to the imperative demands of the commerce of the country"; in other words, the road will be built through the Indian country, and the land necessary for that purpose will be taken, whether the Indians agree to it or not. The fact is, that the Indians, whenever properly approached and offered a fair compensation, to which they are entitled, have never refused to accommodate the "imperative demands of commerce." But it seems to be the object of the Senate Committee to demonstrate that in their opinion the Indians have no rights entitled to respect, and that the offer of proper compensation would be an act of entirely superfluous sentimentality.

Foreign exchange ruled during the week so that it was necessary to export $2,634,760 specie, of which about $2,000,000 was gold coin. This makes the total specie exports since January 1st, $17,141,113, or more than in the corresponding time of any year since 1876, when $20,491,246 was shipped. Although the gold shipment did not fully show in the bank figures, since it was made late in the week, and these figures represent the average condition of the banks for six days instead of the actual condition at the close of the week yet the banks lost, according to their weekly statement, $1,245,250 of their surplus reserve. The supply of loanable funds, however, continues excessive, and the rates for loans are down to 1½@3 per cent. per annum. The Treasury disbursements for bond redemptions keep a steady stream of money flowing into the market, as do also the domestic exchanges, which are all in favor of New York. At the Stock Exchange, U. S. bonds advanced for the 4's and 4½'s and declined for the 5's; when the $46,000,000 of extended 6's now outstanding are called for redemption, then the 5's will be called, in the order of the highest numbers first. Railroad securities—bonds and shares—were strong, and prices advanced until late in the week, when there was a downward reaction. Although East-bound freights over the trunk-line roads are light, the West-bound business is fully up to the average of late years, and the general traffic of all the roads is larger than last year. The far-Western roads are doing a very flourishing business, and the roads running through the territory where the winter wheat is raised are assured of a large traffic for the coming year, this crop being larger than a year ago, and too far advanced to be seriously injured by anything that could now happen to it. The foreign money markets continue easy. The foreign demand for American securities is, however, small.

There has not been for some time much hope that Lieutenant De Long and his ten companions would be found alive, but whatever there was has been dispelled by the discovery of their bodies by Engineer Melville, who has been conducting the search in a corner of the swampy delta through which the Lena finds its way to the sea. If it were not for the doubts thrown on the seaworthiness of the *Jeannette*, in spite of the munificence of Mr. Bennett, the promoter of the enterprise, and for the delays which are either unaccountable or have not yet been explained in prosecuting the search for the De Long party after the Danenhower party had been saved, this fresh tale of Arctic heroism would excite no other feelings than sorrow and admiration, at all events, among those whom Arctic exploration interests. The inevitable dangers of such expeditions, which are great enough in all conscience, should not have been increased by neglected precautions or lack of zeal on the part of anybody concerned. It is now twenty-five years since the country was thrilled by a similar but less tragic tale of suffering and heroism in the Arctic regions. Kane's expedition was the first well-organized American attempt to penetrate the great northern mystery, and he, having the literary gift, was able to tell his story in a way that made the young women at the North weep, and the men thank God that the age of chivalry was not yet gone, and the world was not yet wholly in possession of the economists and calculators. In the winter of 1856–57, when the confidence of moralists in the

future of this community was perhaps at its lowest point—before the war had revealed the springs of devotion and self-sacrifice on which a great cause could draw, in spite of the apparent submissiveness to the slave power, and the prevailing devotion to money-making—Dr. Kane's book was a wonderful comfort to doubting hearts. People were so charmed by the spectacle it presented of dogged endurance under appalling surroundings, that in many pulpits it was treated as possibly a trumpet-call which might stir in the veins of many an American youth the pulses of a better life. Few or none asked themselves whether the end was worth the sacrifice, and whether all the high qualities which the Polar winters revealed in Dr. Kane and his followers might not have been turned to better account than searching for the North Pole.

The question, however, would doubtless have been asked, and asked with somewhat benumbing force, if other expeditions of a similar character, under trial, had been projected. The late revival of Arctic exploration in this country and in England has been mainly due to the improvements in steam navigation, which have made it seem possible to push much farther north than ever before, with much less risk and more comfort. The Austrians, the Swedes, the English, and ourselves have been seduced into making another dash at the Arctic wilderness by the compound engines and the later inventions in preserving and cooking food and in furnishing light and heat. But we have, after all, failed. We have got within about four hundred miles of the Pole, but have every reason to believe that those four hundred miles are practically impassable, or that if any one succeeded in traversing them he could hardly return except by a miracle, and that when he got to the Pole he would find nothing but a waste of primeval ice buried in darkness. Whether anything has been done by it for our knowledge of the earth for the last ten years, except enabling us to put a little more coast-line on our maps, is very questionable. If anything, it is certainly very little, and nothing which in the smallest degree tends to make the earth a more comfortable abode. Nevertheless, there is no likelihood that the attempts to reach the North Pole will ever cease, no matter with how many tragedies like the fate of Franklin and De Long they may be attended, and however clearly it may be demonstrated that the habitable portion of the globe can gain nothing from having the uninhabitable portion more fully known. The motive which sends men generation after generation to fight for life in those icy wastes, amid the appalling darkness and storms of Arctic winter, is precisely the same as that to which we owe the most fruitful scientific investigations, and many of the most valuable additions to the resources of modern civilization. It is, in short, neither more nor less than that passionate hatred of mystery which may be said more than anything else to distinguish the modern from the ancient world, and before which so many gorgons and chimeras dire have vanished from popular belief, and so many happy islands and impenetrable seas and sacred mountains have disappeared from the map.

The Blaine papers cannot get over the Blaine-Belmont affair. For some days they swore at Belmont and called him foul names, evidently supposing that this would settle the matter. But they now seem to be satisfied that it did not settle it, and that the quiet reading of the testimony by the public has not helped their man out of his troubles, but on the contrary has plunged him in deeper. They are accordingly now writing articles to show by reasoning that Mr. Belmont really got the worst of it. The *Tribune* had on Thursday a long and elaborate one, which seeks to convince him that any expressions of sympathy which come to him, through either the press or private correspondence, really mean nothing, and that he ought not to be proud of what he has done to Mr. Blaine; that for the true view of the matter he must look not to the "anti-Blaine press," which was "shut up by preëxisting conditions to the anti-Blaine view," but we presume to the Blaine press, which looked at it calmly and impartially, and expressed "the Blaine view" about it the day after in a quiet, gentlemanly, and judicial way, by which no young man who read its articles could fail to profit. We must all feel thankful, indeed, that when such a disgusting brawl occurred in a Congressional committee room, we had such a nice, well-mannered, and decorous body of persons as the Blaine editors, ready to show hot-headed youths like Belmont how to behave.

The Rev. Dr. Bevan, who has made some complaints lately of the comments of the press on his reasons for going back to England, is, however, polite enough as regards "the secular press," while, touching "the religious press," he throws off all restraint. "Words," he says, "cannot express the treatment I have received at the hands of the editors of the religious press," and he even goes so far as to call the religious editor "the Polyphemus of the literary world." This want of appreciation is due in the main to the highly polemical character of the religious press. It hardly ever hits lightly, but, when it attacks any one, puts forth its full strength. It is so emotional that there is nothing moderate about it. When it loves anybody, it loves him passionately; when it hates, it talks as if the object of its reprobation was hardly fit to live. It has no purgatory in which the middling people, who are neither very bad nor very good, can prepare themselves for the very best company.

The French appear to be seriously entertaining one of the greatest engineering projects of modern times—the creation, or rather recreation, of a vast inland sea, south of Algeria and Tunis, by the admission of the waters of the Mediterranean into a great basin of the Desert by means of a canal about two hundred miles long. The Minister of Foreign Affairs, M. de Freycinet, has reported in its favor, and the President has appointed a commission of forty-eight to examine the scheme at once. The advantages anticipated from its execution are: a defence for the settled region against the invasion of the Desert tribes; a considerable improvement of the climate in the immediate neighborhood, and the restoration to agriculture of considerable tracts of land surrounding the new sea; an easy means of closer communication with central Africa, and the diversion to Algeria of a large part of the trade which now goes to Tripoli; and, finally, the provision of an impregnable retreat for the French Navy in case, for any reason, it became unable to hold the sea in the Mediterranean.

A curious political movement has been going on for some weeks in Hungary. Some years ago, the assimilation of Transylvania to the main parts of the Kingdom, pursuant to the restoration in 1867 of the constitutional basis of 1848, gave rise to loud complaints on the part of the Transylvanian Germans—or Saxons, as they call themselves—about the disregard of their autonomous privileges and national organizations, some dating from as early a period as the twelfth century. These complaints found a strong echo in Germany, but, in spite of the cordial relations existing between the leading Magyar statesmen, Andrássy and Tisza, and Prince Bismarck—and partly, perhaps, on account of that favorable international juncture—the Magyars proceeded unhesitatingly in their work of reorganization in favor of complete unity and of their own nationality. Similar measures of less scope, chiefly intended to extend the use of the Magyar language in the public schools, but affecting no historical rights, were subsequently carried through in Hungary proper. The Germans of the latter country, who, unlike the Transylvanian Saxons, form no national agglomeration, living sporadically without special organization of their own, made no opposition whatever; but a portion of the press of Germany took up the defence of the German interests against the Hungarians with great zeal and in a very aggressive tone; a politico-historical pamphlet entitled 'Hungarica,' by a South-German professor, chiefly serving as text in the denunciation of the attempts of the Government of Buda-Pesth to Magyarize the young generation of the German-Hungarians. The agitation in Germany culminated in the formation of a "School Union" for the support of German institutions in Hungary. The Hungarian Government, annoyed by this pother, appealed for an answer to the German populations concerned, and the result has been a long series of public meetings in all parts of the country largely inhabited by Germans, such as the Banat and the county of Zips, in which the German citizens most emphatically declare against all interference in their behalf from without, asserting their political aspirations, in spite of their descent and intellectual bond with Germany, to be purely and exclusively Hungarian, their relations with the Magyars those of friendly co-citizenship, and the intentions of the Government not oppressive, but patriotic. The German press of the country, the *Pesther-Lloyd* at its head, is unanimous in seconding this popular declaration of sentiment, and as the Magyars, the most trusted future allies in a struggle with Russia, are now again rising in favor in Germany, their so-called *Deutschenhetze* will probably soon cease to be a disturbing element in the relations of the Austro-Hungarian and German Empires.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE cross-examination of Senator Blair was begun by the investigating committee of the House on Thursday. Mr. Blair said he had been more influenced by interest in the South American policy of the United States than by any pecuniary considerations, to take up the Shipherd claim. He said he looked upon the possession and control of Peru as of vast importance to the United States; in fact, Senator Blair's views, as set forth in this examination, on the South American policy of the United States, surpassed in breadth and grandeur those of Mr. Blaine, for Senator Blair seems to have wished not only to prevent the British bondholders from getting possession of Peru, but also to facilitate matters, by means of the Cochet and Landreau claims, so that the United States might use Peru as a basis for defensive purposes in case of a foreign war. Senator Blair told about his meetings with Shipherd. The Senator's duties as counsel for the company were to examine Mr. Shipherd's papers and case, and to ascertain the attitude which the United States Government occupied toward Chili and Peru, and the policy which it intended to pursue. Nothing of importance was elicited from the witness on Friday or Saturday except a further exposition of his views on the effect of European influence in the South American States, and on the policy which he thought the United States should have pursued. On Monday Mr. Blair said that the certificate of stock in the Peruvian Company which he had received from Shipherd as a retainer was for 1,000 shares, the par value being either $10 or $100, but that he would have regarded a cash fee of $3,000 or $5,000 as preferable. The witness firmly refused to produce his correspondence with Shipherd, and the examination was then closed. In short, it may be said that in so far as the objects of the investigation are concerned, Senator Blair's examination has been productive of very little. The hearing in the case is to be resumed by the Sub-Committee in New York on May 10.

On Wednesday, a letter from Lord Granville to Minister West, which formed part of the correspondence regarding the Irish-American suspects, was furnished to the press by the Department of State at Washington. In this letter Lord Granville says that the English Government can make no distinction in favor of aliens in enforcing the Protection of Person and Property Act in Ireland, and makes use of Mr. Seward's admissions respecting the treatment of British subjects arrested during the American civil war to prove that the ground taken by the Government of the United States at that time coincides with that now taken by the British Government. In concluding, Lord Granville says that the "imprisonment of suspects under the act is not a measure of punishment, but of prevention," and that the British Government will release "any citizen of the United States now detained who may be willing to engage forthwith to leave the United Kingdom."

The President has signed the Chinese Bill. It was drawn with special reference to the reasons which the President gave for vetoing the first bill, and is in substance as follows: The immigration of Chinese laborers, whether skilled or unskilled, is suspended for ten years; provision is made for a system of certificates, to be issued to the Chinese persons now living in this country, or who may hereafter arrive here. The naturalization of all Chinese is forbidden, and various fines and penalties are imposed upon the masters of vessels who shall bring unauthorized Chinese persons to this country, and upon any person who shall forge, alter, or make fraudulent use of the certificates to be issued to Chinese who are allowed residence in the United States.

The President has issued an order granting to General Fitz-John Porter the full remission of that part of his sentence which disqualified him from holding office.

In the Senate on Thursday the bill repealing the disqualification for Army service imposed upon ex-Confederates was committed to the Judiciary Committee by a party vote—yeas 29, nays 28; Messrs. Davis, of Illinois, and Mahone voting yea with the Republicans.

Mr. Windom's resolution calling for the appointment of a committee of five to inquire whether money was raised, by contribution or otherwise, from persons in interest to promote the passage or defeat of the House bill to extend the bonded period for distilled spirits, was passed by the Senate on Friday.

A resolution has been reported from the Senate Committee on Civil-Service Reform, proposing an appropriation of $25,000 to enable the President to promote efficiency in the different branches of the civil service.

After a debate lasting for many days, the Tariff Commission Bill was passed by the House on Saturday. The bill provides for the creation of a Commission composed of nine members "from civil life," to be appointed by the President, by and with the consent of the Senate, which shall "take into consideration and thoroughly investigate all the various questions relating to the agricultural, commercial, mercantile, manufacturing, mining, and industrial interests of the United States, so far as the same may be necessary to the establishment of a judicious tariff, or a revision of the existing tariff upon a scale of justice to all interests."

The Anderson bill to enlarge the powers and duties of the Department of Agriculture was discussed in the House on Monday. The bill provides for a Secretary of Agriculture, who shall be a Cabinet officer, and for an Assistant Secretary of Agriculture, who shall be a practical agriculturist, and that there shall be four bureaus in the new department.

When the Star-route cases were called at Washington on Thursday, Mr. Merrick called attention to the fact that John W. Dorsey, one of the defendants, was not present, and Colonel Bliss said that Colonel Ingersoll had "squarely promised" to produce Dorsey in court on the day appointed, in consideration of which the defence had not had him arrested on a bench warrant, and that now, as the promise appeared to have been violated in a "barefaced manner," he (Colonel Bliss) believed that the promise had been made with the intention of delaying the trial. Colonel Ingersoll then sprang to his feet, and cried: "It's a lie! You're a liar!" Judge Wylie "reproved both the gentlemen," and Colonel Bliss arose and withdrew his remarks. Mr. Merrick then asked the Court to postpone the trial for ten days, in order that the Government might look for John W. Dorsey, "who was so innocent and so anxious to be tried." As soon as this request had been made, Colonel Totten jumped up, and said his clients, Brady and Turner, were ready for trial; but as a separate trial of Dorsey would be expensive and inexpedient, the Court granted the motion to postpone. The above is an illustration of the anxiety of the innocent Star-routers to be tried, and of the shifts which their counsel resort to in order to postpone, if not evade, the ends of justice.

The Supreme Court of the United States on Monday denied Sergeant John A. Mason's petition for a writ of habeas corpus. The Court, in an opinion delivered by the Chief Justice, decided that the court-martial had full jurisdiction to try Mason for the offence with which he was charged, that its proceedings were within its proper jurisdiction, and that the sentence pronounced was not in excess of its power. This exhausts Mason's legal remedies, and executive clemency is now his only recourse.

Mr. Scoville has obtained a writ of habeas corpus directing John W. Guiteau, his brother-in-law, to produce Mrs. Scoville in court. Mr. Scoville declares that his wife has lost her mind and is being improperly used by certain persons who are allowing her to lecture in public.

A despatch was received at the Navy Department on Friday, dated March 24, from Engineer Melville, announcing that he had found the bodies of Lieutenant-Commander De Long, of the *Jeannette*, and his ten men, with all their papers and books, and that he would continue the search for Chipp and his companions in the other cutter. There is scarcely any hope, however, that they will be found alive. The news of De Long's death has been received with much sorrow throughout the country. No particulars in regard to the discovery of the bodies have been received as yet, but it is surmised that they were found not far from the station whence the two men, Noros and Ninderman—now the only survivors of the crew of De Long's cutter—were sent forward for succor.

A despatch was received from the Chargé d'Affaires at St. Petersburg on Sunday, saying that the crew of the *Rodgers*, which was lost by fire in St. Lawrence's Bay, in November, are all safe.

Last summer the American Bar Association appointed a committee of nine of the leading lawyers of the country to take into consideration the condition of business before the Supreme Court of the United States, with a view to recommending plans to relieve it from its present overcrowded condition. The committee found themselves unable to concur unanimously in any plan, but Messrs. Phelps, Evarts, Parker, and Merrick, whose opinions coincided, have embodied them in a report. The plan they recommend is radically different from the Davis plan, which is now under discussion by the Senate in a bill to establish a Court of Appeals. Instead of establishng new subordinate courts, they recommend that the Supreme Court shall be divided into two or more sections for the hearing of causes upon their docket, except such causes as pertain to the "original jurisdiction of the Court and all those involving questions under the Constitution or treaties of the United States," which are to be heard, as now, before the whole Court. The causes decided by a division are to be reported to the whole Court before the decision is announced, and all judgments are to be rendered as the judgments of the whole Court. This is the bare outline of the plan.

It is probable that the Democrats in the Senate will oppose Senator Davis's bill to establish a Court of Appeals to relieve the Supreme Court, for the reason that it gives the President authority to appoint eighteen circuit judges.

The Independent Republicans of Pennsylvania, who recently had a conference with the Stalwarts, and who were accused of "surrendering to Cameron," have published an address formally calling a State Convention for May 24. They call the resolutions adopted by the above-mentioned conference "plausible platitudes," and announce that should the Convention of May 10 "fail to nominate as its candidates men who in their character, antecedents, and affiliations are the embodiments of the principles of true Republicanism, free from the iniquities of bossism, and of an honest administration of public affairs, free from the evils of the spoils system, such nominations should be emphatically repudiated by the Independent Republicans of Pennsylvania in November next."

In a debate on the Reapportionment Bill in the Illinois House on Wednesday, Mr. Parrish called Mr. Herrington a liar, and Herrington thereupon knocked Parrish down. Parrish was dragged out and the blood washed from his face. Herrington then apologized to the House; but Parrish, on returning to his desk, denounced Herrington as a brute and a coward, and the bill was moved to a third reading.

News was received on Wednesday that a column of Mexican troops had met some of the hostile Indians of whom the United States troops were in pursuit, and had killed seventy-eight of them, and taken thirty-three prisoners. This is thought to put an end to the Indian

outbreak, and comparative quiet has been restored in Arizona and New Mexico.

An association has been formed at Cambridge, with Mr. James Russell Lowell as President, to take measures for the erection of a memorial to Longfellow, and arrangements have been made to invite subscriptions of $1 or more from all parts of the country, to be devoted to a fund for that purpose.

Horace Maynard died at Knoxville, Tennessee, on Wednesday. He declared his loyalty to the Government at the outbreak of the Rebellion, and his property was confiscated, and he and his family driven from East Tennessee by the Rebel authorities. He was member of Congress for a number of years, and was appointed Minister to Turkey by President Grant in 1875. In 1880 he was appointed Postmaster-General by President Hayes.

Rear-Admiral John Rodgers died on Friday evening at Georgetown Heights, D. C. He served with distinction in the civil war. He was in command of the Boston Navy-yard from 1867 to 1869, and commanded the Asiatic fleet from 1870 to 1872. In 1877 he was appointed Superintendent of the Naval Observatory in Washington and Chairman of the Light-House Board. He had received the thanks of Congress for his services.

FOREIGN.

A terrible tragedy occurred in Dublin on Saturday night. Lord Frederick Cavendish, who was appointed Chief Secretary for Ireland, to succeed Mr. Forster, and Mr. Thomas Henry Burke, the Under Secretary, were assassinated a little after seven o'clock, in Phœnix Park. They were attacked by four men wearing slouched hats, who are supposed to have first assailed Mr. Burke, whom they stabbed through the heart. Lord Frederick Cavendish attempted to defend him, and was also stabbed by the assassins, who repeatedly plunged their knives into the breasts of their victims, and, having cut their throats, got on a car and drove rapidly from the park. A large quantity of notes and gold coin, besides their gold watches, was found in the pockets of the victims, which showed that the object of the crime was not robbery. It is a remarkable fact that many persons sitting and walking within a few hundred yards of where the bodies were found heard nothing of the struggle. No clew to the perpetrators of the deed has been yet found, but several men have been arrested on suspicion. The affair has of course created the most intense sensation throughout Great Britain and Ireland, and the crime is denounced in unmeasured terms by Parnell, Davitt, and all the other prominent members of the Home Rule party, as well as by the Land League in Ireland and its branches in the United States.

Lord Frederick Cavendish was born in 1836, and was appointed Chief Secretary for Ireland on Thursday last. He was a brother of the Marquis of Hartington. He was in close personal and official relations with Mr. Gladstone, and up to Thursday had held the position of Financial Secretary of the Treasury. Mr. Burke was appointed Under Secretary for Ireland about 1870, during Mr. Gladstone's first administration. He continued to hold the office under the Beaconsfield administration and up to the time of his death.

A meeting of Conservatives was held in London on Sunday afternoon, at which Sir Stafford Northcote, the Marquis of Salisbury, and all the prominent members of the party were present. Resolutions were passed expressing sympathy with the Government, and the willingness of the Opposition to support the Government with all their strength in coping with the murderous state of Ireland. On driving to the House of Commons on Monday afternoon, Mr. Gladstone was assailed by a storm of hootings mingled with cheers from the crowd assembled in the streets, while Mr. Forster was greeted with marks of most respectful sympathy. The House of Commons was crowded, and the members of the Irish party, who were present in full force, were dressed in mourning. Mr. Gladstone spoke with great difficulty and painful emotion. He asked the attention of the House to the events of Saturday, and moved an adjournment in conformity with precedent. He described the crime as unparalleled in English history for its blackness, and for the horror which it had excited in the entire population of the kingdom, and went on to say that all previous intentions and engagements of the Government must be reconsidered and recast; but the present not being an opportune moment to grapple with the serious case of Parliamentary duty, he would limit himself to giving notice that he would introduce on Thursday a measure relating to the repression of crime in Ireland. This announcement, which was received with great cheering, Mr. Gladstone supplemented by the intimation that at an early day he would bring forward a measure dealing with the question of arrears of rent in Ireland, the consideration of which would, however, be necessarily dependent upon the progress made with the earlier bill. Sir Stafford Northcote seconded the motion for adjournment, assuring the Government of the hearty coöperation of the Opposition in such measures as might be necessary for the restoration and preservation of peace in Ireland. Mr. Parnell, speaking next, referred to the crime as having been committed by men who absolutely detest the cause with which he was associated, and who devised and carried it out as the deadliest blow in their power to the hopes of his party and the new course which the Government had initiated.

The scene in the House of Lords was similar to that in the House of Commons. A vote of censure on the Government, which was to have been moved on Monday night by Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, has been withdrawn, with the concurrence of the chief of the Conservative party. The Irish Parliamentary party have expressed a determination to support the Government in any measures having for their object the repression of outrages. It is said that after the Cabinet council on Monday, Sir Charles Dilke was offered the Chief Secretaryship for Ireland, but declined to accept the position unless with a seat in the Cabinet. On Tuesday a Secretary was found in Mr. George Otto Trevelyan, the nephew and biographer of Lord Macaulay. It is understood that the Ministry intends now to postpone the procedure rules, and that the whole of the rest of the session will be occupied with Irish business.

It is said that the bill which will be introduced into the House of Commons for the prevention of crime in Ireland will include clauses dealing with secret societies, and providing for the trial of agrarian offences by special tribunals. It is probable, also, that in cases of outrage a heavy fine in the shape of compensation will be imposed on the districts in which the crimes are committed. It is expected that if the bill does not interfere with personal liberty and the rights of public meeting, the Irish members will not offer serious opposition.

A meeting of the Reform Club was held in London, on Thursday, for the purpose of reconsidering the method of election to membership in the Club, on account of the recent blackballing of two brothers of Mr. Chamberlain, President of the Board of Trade, which event had created a great scandal, exposing as it did divisions in the Liberal party.

In replying to a question in the House of Commons, on Thursday, Mr. Chamberlain said he did not consider it advisable for the Government to take any action in reference to the adulteration of American cotton imported into England.

The returns of the Board of Trade show that during the month of April, British imports increased, as compared with the same month of last year, by £847,000, and the imports increased by £243,000.

England is to coöperate with other nations in establishing a chain of circumpolar magnetic and meteorological observatories. Fort Rae, in the north of Canada, has been selected as a station.

The first part of Wagner's "Nibelungen Ring" was produced at Her Majesty's Theatre, London, on Friday evening. The theatre was crowded. The royal Princes and the leading members of the aristocracy were present. The performance was received with enthusiasm.

The Vienna *Presse* says that after the assassination of General Strelnikoff, the Public Prosecutor of the Kieff Military Tribunal at Odessa, in March last, an accomplice of the assassin took from Strelnikoff's pocket a list of Nihilists to be arrested, and plundered his apartment, taking therefrom documents furnishing a complete plan of the Nihilists' methods of procedure and their projects. The recovery of these papers by the Nihilists is said to have been a great blow to the authorities.

A general exodus of Jews from all parts of Russia began on Wednesday. At a meeting of the Ministers, at St. Petersburg, on the same day, General Ignatieff recommended the adoption of measures calculated to accelerate the emigration of the Jews, but the proposal was rejected General Ignatieff is said to have become greatly excited at this, and to have left the assembly. There have been anti-Jewish riots at Alexandria in the Government of Kherson, and a mob of several hundred persons wrecked the houses of Jewish residents. On Tuesday a London despatch from St. Petersburg announced that the Senate as a court of appeal had decided that the decree banishing the Jewish apothecaries is illegal.

A despatch to the London *Times* from Berlin says that Secretary Frelinghuysen's despatch to Mr. Hoffman in regard to the treatment of Russian Jews has created a most favorable impression in Liberal circles, and that the United States is hailed as having taken the place of England as the champion of the down-trodden and oppressed.

In the Italian Chamber of Deputies on Friday, in the course of a debate on the treaty with France, Signor Luzzati, speaking of the apprehended invasion of American products, said that even those Governments which were most alarmed at the increase of American imports, were not sufficiently alive to the danger. It was time, he said, that Europe should think about defending herself against the United States.

There was a stormy session in the Spanish Senate on Monday. The first clause of the treaty of commerce with France was adopted by a vote of 143 to 85. Subsequently, by a vote of 111 to 24, the Senate voted urgency for the whole treaty.

The latest news in regard to Egyptian affairs is that the Powers have decided to allow France the initiative in the Egyptian question, leaving her to come to an agreement with England so as to secure unanimity of views. The principle of Turkish intervention under any form in Egypt has been abandoned. The present Khedive will be retained in power so long as his retention is compatible with the existence of order in Egypt, failing which, Halim Pasha will be substituted for him, through the medium of the Porte, at the unanimous request of the Powers; but the Powers have intimated that nothing must be done to precipitate the dethronement of the present Khedive until it becomes a necessity. The above-mentioned plan, while rendering the Porte the instrument of deposition, keeps the Khedivate under the collective protection of the Powers.

The Khedive has informed the Consuls-General that he has referred to the Porte the findings of the court-martial in the case of the Circassian officers.

TUESDAY, May 9, 1882.

THE IRISH HORROR.

THERE is happily no need to dwell upon the horror and atrocity of the Dublin murders, by which the whole civilized world was shocked and amazed on Sunday. Not even the dynamite section of the Fenian organization ventures to palliate them. There would, too, even if the Land Leaguers were not as emphatic as they are in expressing their sorrow and indignation, be every reason for acquitting them of all responsibility for them. The assassinations can work nothing but injury to the cause which Parnell and his followers have at heart, and which on Saturday last seemed on the verge of triumph, and they bring, whether well or ill-deserved, terrible shame on the Irish name. Nor can they be laid at the door of the League, as probably a very large portion of the English public will be disposed to lay them, by saying that they were the natural result of its teaching and instigation. Unhappily, murder as a means of redress did not make its appearance in Ireland with the Land League. It has been no more rife during the past year than during dozens of years before. Take what year we will of the last two hundred years, and we find murder a common Irish remedy for all sorts of political and social grievances. Moreover—and this is the saddest feature of the case—it has been the only effectual remedy. During the last century the Irish Catholics have risen from a condition of legalized degradation for which no parallel is to be found in modern times, to a full social and political equality; but every step in their enfranchisement has to all outward appearance been achieved by assassination and outrage. This seems horrible, but it is literally true. The government of Ireland has for two centuries been a training in crime, and if the world does not know the fact better and is not more horrified by it, it is because so few readers care to wander into that gloomy and blood-stained bypath called Irish history.

It must be remembered, too, that purely political assassination—that is, assassinations like that of Lord Frederick Cavendish—from simple political hostility, has been until now rare, if not unknown. Irish murders, when not committed for robbery, have been hitherto what are called agrarian murders—that is, murders of landlords or their agents, or of witnesses in land cases. Considering the large number of worthless English adventurers who have since 1688 been sent to the island either to make their fortunes in political office or as bishops of the Anglican Church, the immunity they have enjoyed from violence has been one of the singular facts of Irish history. That a man with so many titles to esteem as Lord Frederick Cavendish, coming to the country, too, with a message of more hopeful conciliation than had ever before crossed the Channel, should be the first English official to fall under the assassin's knife, is certainly a most solemn and impressive example of the irony of fate. That it was concocted by desperadoes in the inner Fenian circles, whose trade reconciliation in England would destroy, there is too much reason to believe.

That the appointment to the Chief Secretaryship was in some respects unfortunate seems very clear; but that it was dictated by the best motives on Mr. Gladstone's part is equally clear. Lord Frederick Cavendish was his familiar and confidential friend, and was at one time his private secretary, and is said to have been an excellent administrator. He was, therefore, doubtless intended to be in a peculiar sense the personal representative of the Premier in Ireland, and to act as the executor of his instructions to a degree which his predecessor had not done and could not do. In other words, the new policy was apparently to be Mr. Gladstone's rather than that of the Cabinet, and Lord Frederick Cavendish was to carry it out without originating or shaping it, and without criticising it.

To all this it would be impossible to take exception if the Irish difficulty had hitherto been due to any want of good intentions touching the land question on Mr. Gladstone's part. A very large part of Irish bad temper, however, is now due to disbelief in English sincerity, and, above all, to disbelief in English capacity to perceive the sentimental side of Irish griefs. The selection for the Irish Secretaryship either of a popular Irishman, or of an Englishman with strong Irish sympathies, was the only way to meet this. It is not enough to satisfy the Irish that Mr. Gladstone seeks their good: they ask also for proof that he is willing to seek it in their way; and if there be any value or any strength in the theory of constitutional government as it exists in England, the Cabinet officer specially charged with the government of Ireland ought to be the man marked out for the place by the confidence of the people of Ireland, and not the man marked out for it by the confidence of the English people. On this point the opinion of Dublin is all-important; the opinion of London is of comparatively very little importance. To trust the Irish to send members to the House of Commons, and then treat their approval as in no sense a qualification for their chief executive office, is an absurdity, and it is one of those absurdities which have long galled their national pride, and must come to an end if any attempt at reconciliation is to be effectual. Lord Frederick Cavendish's appointment was a piece of the old system inserted suddenly and to the surprise of everybody in the new system, and though this furnishes no jot of palliation for his murder, it probably suggested it to the wretches who executed it, and whose heads were probably filled with some fumes of patriotism, however foul or hell-born.

Mr. Gladstone, nevertheless, will have and has the sympathy of every one who honors purity and integrity, and long and successful devotion to the cause of the desolate and oppressed. His legislative labors have done much to transform England, and it will be the fittest crown of a long and noble career if he succeeds, before he quits the scene, in preparing the way for a new and transformed Ireland. The transformation of Ireland he cannot see. Very likely no one will see it within the present century. There is no such thing permitted in the moral order of the world as wiping out all at once, by any change of policy, evils of such long standing as those of Irish politics. That what you sow you must reap, is as true of national as of individual life. Not until the fruits of centuries of misrule have been fully garnered will it be possible, in Ireland any more than in other places, to prepare for a harvest of a different sort.

That the Tories should rally around Mr. Gladstone now, and offer him their united support when they think he may be driven by English anger and panic into a resort to violent repression, after spending two years in harassing and hindering him while he was seeking to end Irish woe by healing measures, is a striking and impressive illustration of the difficulties with which he has to contend at an age when most men are compelled to be simply lookers-on. But that he will not lose his head, and may yet be able to convert this dreadful tragedy into a means of a better understanding with the Irish malcontents, we cannot but hope.

THE BLAIR TALE.

SENATOR BLAIR on Thursday told the story of his career as Shipherd's counsel, and it is in some respects one of the best stories of the series; and if the Committee is sick and tired of the whole business, as the Washington correspondence of the *Tribune* says it is, it shows that the members are not men of taste. We wondered the other day what Mr. Blair got a "retainer" for from Shipherd, of whom he knew nothing. Mr. Blair's answer is that Shipherd wished him to "examine his papers and his case," and then to find out for him "the attitude which the Government occupied toward Chili and Peru, and the policy that the Government proposed to pursue in the future." This he readily undertook, and the result was that he first saw Mr. Blaine himself and brought up the subject of Shipherd's claim, and then introduced Shipherd to him. Shipherd at this interview expounded and discussed the Cochet claim, of which Mr. Blaine did not appear to think much, and the Landreau claim, of which he seemed to "know something." Either of them amounted to an enormous sum—say $900,000,000, or thereabouts—$10,000,000 more or less made little difference. They were made against a conquered country, and they were intended to bar the conqueror from seizing the most important part of its assets. The amount claimed, too, was enormous, preposterous. It was the largest claim ever made in money against a nation, except that made by Germany on France after a bloody war.

Shipherd, again, was, on their own confession, utterly unknown to Mr. Blaine and Mr. Blair. He was not in any regular business or profession; he had no settled residence; he had no one to vouch even that his name was Shipherd. He was introduced to Mr. Blair, it is true, by Mr. Cragin, but it does not appear that Mr. Cragin knew anything more about him than that he was a man with a large claim. He said he had powerful financial backers, such as Mr. E. D. Morgan or Mr. Belmont, but he had not a scrap of writing to show that they had ever heard of him. Nor did either Mr. Blaine or Mr. Blair communicate with any of them to get corroboration of Shipherd's story, or ascertain his antecedents, or make sure of his sanity. On the contrary, Blair took the retainer, and Blaine listened and discussed as to whether the Cochet claim was a "chose in action," or the Landreau claim "res adjudi-

cata"; and finally, when Shipherd asked the Secretary of State what the policy of the Government toward Chili and Peru was to be, he, says Mr. Blair, "explained" to the pair "the instructions he had given to Mr. Hurlbut and Mr. Kilpatrick," and satisfied Mr. Shipherd that there was nothing in the way of his sending his representatives,

"and making a definite agreement with Peru as to the amount of these claims which should be recognized, and for an assignment or hypothecation, or pledge (in whatever form) of the resources of Peru to secure the payment of these claims, or of whatever should be agreed upon in respect to them, and of such advances as Peru necessarily must have, including, of course, this indemnity and some provision for her foreign debt and for the running expenses of her Government."

There was nothing in Mr. Blaine's story, as told by himself, to contradict this Blair version. It really does seem to be true, that a strange man came to a United States Senator and told him that a foreign Government owed him about half the amount of our national debt, and that if he could get it, he would pay off another Government which had conquered the country and wanted an indemnity, but that to recover it the United States would have to aid him, and that the Senator said to the strange man, "All right. Come round with me to the State Department, and talk it over with the Secretary"; and that the Secretary, on seeing the strange man, and hearing his tale, expressed no surprise whatever, but said the matter was somewhat familiar to him; that the Landreau claim was "res adjudicata," and would have to be attended to, and that he would tell him what orders he had been giving to the United States Ministers abroad on a most delicate question of foreign policy.

If there be anything like this in the history of diplomacy, it has not seen the light, and the effect of it is much heightened by the fact that neither the Senator nor the Secretary had any good reason for feeling sure that Shipherd's real object was not the theft of an overcoat from Mr. Blaine's house. When one reads it, and remembers that from the first of July last to December it was in the power of the Secretary who received Shipherd and talked matters over with him, to plunge the country into war with one or two foreign powers, and cause a business panic of the first magnitude, one can hardly avoid a shiver of mingled amazement and relief. It was apparently only in November that the Department of State discovered that Shipherd was simply a visionary tramp, and that it was about as sensible to talk over the foreign policy of the Government with him as to ask him for a loan of $1,000.

EARL GRANVILLE'S ANSWER.

Earl Granville's despatch to Mr. West, in which he uses Mr. Seward's answer to English remonstrances about our arbitrary imprisonment of British subjects during the war as his own answer to our remonstrances about the arbitrary imprisonment of the American Irish suspects, is, it must be admitted, a clever bit of dialectics, but it can hardly be considered a real answer to American complaints. It is doubtless a pity that the question was not originally raised by a more competent and experienced controversialist than Mr. Blaine, who did so much of his diplomatic work in the spirit and with the methods of a smart criminal lawyer. One of these methods, and the one best known, is to say nothing of the real or apparent weak points in your own position, in the hope that your adversary has forgotten them or will not perceive them. It was this which led Mr. Blaine into the great blunder of warning England away from the Isthmus without saying anything about the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, and thus gave Lord Granville's production of it the air of an easy victory. It was this which led him to demand the release of the suspects in the language of a stump-speech addressed to a sympathetic audience, in which trial by jury was treated as one of the rights which an American citizen carries with him, under the law of nations, all over the world. The fact that we had ourselves very recently imprisoned foreigners without trial, instead of being mentioned and discussed and its true character duly set forth, was passed over in silence, doubtless in the hope that Earl Granville would not be "smart" enough to think of it. The result is that he now produces it with the air of being even smarter than we are, and is held by the English press to have sent an arrow into American ribs feathered from the wings of our own eagle.

Earl Granville really disposes, however, in one short sentence, of the greater part of the argument by which the detention of the suspects has hitherto been justified by the English press. That argument is that foreigners live, like the natives, under the laws of the country in which they take up their abode, and must submit to the same punishments for their violation as are imposed on the natives, however harsh the laws may be, or however severe the punishments. There is no denying this. So far as our knowledge goes, it never has been denied. But it never has been admitted that a foreigner is wholly in the power of a Government in the same sense that its own subjects are. No Government has ever assented to the doctrine that it had no right to protect its citizens abroad against any rule, however oppressive or violent, to which the Government of the country in which they were living subjected its own people. There is a point at which every civilized Government steps in for the protection of its citizens abroad, and that point is reached when any injury is inflicted on them which has not the character of legal punishment—that is, which is not the consequence of judicially ascertained violation of the law. The law may be as bad as possible, and the punishment may be cruel or unusual, but it must be punishment—that is, it must be inflicted on a man who has been proved guilty of doing something which the legislator has said he must not do.

Earl Granville says distinctly that the imprisonment of the suspects is "not a measure of punishment, but of prevention." In other words, he admits that American citizens may be locked up under it, not because they have broken the law, but because somebody thinks that they may possibly break it. Now the right to imprison, for purposes of prevention or safety, all persons found on their soil, or within their military lines, is a right generally conceded to all Governments in time of war, and as a necessary incident of military operations. A state of war draws after it all sorts of exceptions, and this is one of them. It was only because we were at war that we asserted and Great Britain conceded our right to blockade our own ports during the Rebellion, and it was for the same reason that we claimed and exercised the right, against British remonstrances, to lock up British subjects without indictment or trial. Mr. Seward in 1866 was fresh from the controversies on this class of subjects to which the war gave rise, and undoubtedly wrote under the recollection of the great embarrassments into which our forced resort to weapons, which we had for eighty years been denouncing as worthy only of despots, had plunged us. That he felt he was conceding a great deal, and was not sure of his ground, was made manifest by his acknowledging that the situation created by the arbitrary imprisonment of the American Fenians would be "inconvenient and embarrassing" for Mr. Adams. If it were not a doubtful stretch of power, there would have been nothing more inconvenient and embarrassing about it than about the trial of American citizens for larceny or murder. A few years later he would undoubtedly have recurred to the old and only safe ground, that in time of profound peace, when its courts are open, no Government has a right to say that, because it finds it more difficult than usual to procure convictions for a certain class of offences, it may throw any foreigners into jail whom it thinks likely to commit such offences. Unusual difficulty in obtaining convictions by juries for one class of offences has really been the sole justification of the Coercion Act, but we trust our State Department will not now admit that this difficulty furnishes, as a defence for the arbitrary imprisonment of our citizens, a full equivalent for the difficulty created for us by open and prolonged war on our own soil, which was threatening the very existence of the nation.

SIGNS OF THE TIMES IN ENGLAND.

London, April 13, 1882.

I am no alarmist—I am firmly convinced that no mistake is so great as to underrate the strength and the resources of England; but no man of sense can shut his eyes to patent facts. The tempest which prophets of evil anticipate may not burst upon the country, but the storm signals are up, and it is well to note the signs of the times.

1. Mr. Gladstone's speech of the 4th of April is of itself little less than a portent. He is a statesman of great experience. He must be accustomed to measure his words. He is the head of as powerful a Ministry as any which has existed during the century. He knows that every sentence he utters is telegraphed at once throughout the length and breadth of the land. He is better aware than any man of the effect which language used by him must produce in Ireland. Under these circumstances, he makes two statements of immense gravity. Ireland, he asserts, is passing through a "social revolution." Having made this assertion, he cites "that declaration, that warning of the Duke of Wellington, that if ever the time came that there was a war against rent and tithe, the Government would be reduced to extremities, and would have no resources to bring to bear against such a move-

ment." What is the real bearing of these words? Mr. Parnell and his followers will undoubtedly interpret them as meaning that the Government's power to resist disorder is at an end. I do not believe them to have this sense; but I do confidently assert that the use by the Premier of words denoting alarm, if not despair, is one of the most singular and menacing signs of the times.

2. There cannot be the least doubt that whatever were the reasons which induced Mr. Gladstone to quote the dictum of the Duke of Wellington, the Prime Minister has called attention to two most serious and indisputable facts. Every telegram from Ireland proves that the country is passing through a social revolution. The success, further, no less than the failure of coercion, shows the extreme difficulty of checking or controlling the kind of movement with which English statesmen are now called upon to deal. Of rebellion, of insurrection, of forcible resistance to the armed power of the state, we hear nothing. Revolutionists no less than monarchs have learnt a good deal since 1848 : no one now believes that an undisciplined mob can vanquish trained soldiers. The immediate difficulty of coping with Irish disaffection lies, as Mr. Gladstone has pointed out, in the fact that a social revolution cannot be met by the same weapons as sedition or rebellion. It becomes each day more clearly manifest that no specific can work a summary and rapid cure of the evils from which Ireland is suffering.

3. At the very moment, however, when it is of supreme importance that the English people generally, and especially all English statesmen, should practise to the very utmost the nearly allied virtues of patience and of justice, the events of each day render the exercise of these virtues the more difficult.

"Making every just allowance that can be made, the fact remains that occurrences have of late taken place, and are now taking place, in Ireland which are a disgrace to any Christian country, and in reprobation of which the voices of all honest men ought to be raised. I am far indeed from alleging that the leaders of public opinion in Ireland are in complicity with such outrages, and I gladly record the fact that no voice has been more eloquent or more earnest in discountenancing outrages than that of Michael Davitt, whom I regard as not only one of the ablest but the wisest of the leaders of public opinion in Ireland. But I confess I should like to have heard his sentiments more frequently from the mouths of those who have influence with the people. I should like to have heard persistently enforced from the national platform, and from the national press, the lofty and sound lesson that no true effort of patriotism can be served by murder and outrage. I cannot doubt that in the past few months the issue of the 'No-Rent Manifesto' has been the cause, or certainly made the pretext, for the commission of crime. That manifesto, condemned by high Catholic authority, recommends the non-payment of rent until the release of the suspects, regardless of the ability or of the inability of tenants to pay, regardless of the justice or the injustice of the rent to be paid. Men are only too ready to act upon an injunction which accommodates itself to their own sordid views and interests, and it cannot be doubted, I think, by any just mind, that that manifesto has spread a tone of demoralization over a great part of Ireland."

This is the language of Mr. Charles Russell, the member for Dundalk, whose most seasonable and honest letter on the condition of Ireland* deserves fully as much attention from Englishmen as from the electors to whom it is addressed. No words could more accurately or fairly describe the facts of the case. It is easy to understand what are the feelings with which these facts, viewed neither accurately nor with fairness, excite in the minds of thousands of Englishmen. The "No-Rent Manifesto," though in reality an irregular and illegitimate form of rebellion, is felt in England to be a mere incitement to mean acts of dishonesty. The horrible and cruel outrages with which obedience to the manifesto has been enforced, though they find their miserable parallel in the acts of the Welsh followers of Rebecca and in crimes such as those which disgraced the trades-unionists of Sheffield, are looked upon as if they were the embodiment of specially Irish ideas, nourished by the peculiar wickedness of Irish nature. That a feeling of bitterness and resentment is slowly but surely growing up throughout England is at least a plausible and, as I myself think, a probable conjecture. It is full time that men like Mr. Russell should make their voices heard. A sudden outbreak of popular anger throughout Great Britain might at any moment lead to impatient action, producing results as disastrous to England as to Ireland.

4. In every direction may be seen signs that some change, some "new departure," as the phrase goes, may be necessary. This appears to me the significance of the demand openly made, for example, by the *Pall Mall Gazette*, for Mr. Forster's removal from the office of Irish Secretary. No one wishes to harass or attack a Minister who has filled a difficult post to the best of his ability, who, whatever his errors, has avoided all acts of inhumanity, and who has been the mark of much unjust obloquy. But change of measures necessitates changes of men. The real point of the assault on Mr. Forster's position is that he is identified with the policy which it is felt has not been a success. Coercion—that is, a system of arbitrary arrest—was at best a temporary expedient. It is a device which has not been a success. The time, further, for which it was appropriate has elapsed. I have myself always entertained so much distrust of a policy not based on legality that I am very possibly no fair judge of Mr. Forster's scheme of government. My own judgment would be that he has thought too much, if that be possible, of humanity, and too little, which is certainly possible, of legality. However this may be, the opinion is assuredly gaining ground that a change in the administration of the law in Ireland is needed, and that a new system ought to be carried out by new instruments. Mr. Goldwin Smith's letter, which has recently appeared in the *Times*, points in the same direction. That most of the special measures he recommends will ever be adopted, or can ever be adopted by an English Parliament, appears to me incredible. But the importance of what he writes lies not so much in his specific suggestions as in the expression which his clear-cut and incisive phrases give to the conviction that the social revolution which is passing over Ireland needs for its guidance administrators of exceptional energy, determination, and resource. The feeling, whether it be well or ill-founded, that the times require new and vigorous measures, is certainly not confined to Radicals. From the ranks of the Conservative party comes, with more or less of what may be called official sanction, the suggestion—which is truly startling, if we consider the persons by whom it is made—that the wealth of the state should be used to found or to promote the foundation of a body of peasant proprietors throughout Ireland. That Tories who have for years rejected the counsel of Mr. Mill, and denounced the policy of Mr. Bright, should now turn round and try to force on the Liberal Government measures which no Liberal Ministry could have proposed without being denounced by every Tory throughout England as the Socialistic supporters of an agrarian law, is startling enough. The sudden transformation of reactionists into revolutionists becomes a little less surprising, but in some respects also a good deal more alarming, when it is observed that a device for enabling tenants to buy private lands at public cost might be so managed as to be in reality a scheme for enabling landlords to sell estates of dubious worth to that best of all purchasers, the state. To "dish the Radicals" and at the same time to provide compensation for landlords, would be a feat worthy of the disciples of Lord Beaconsfield.

These, then, are some of the signs of the time. They all point toward a period of public disturbance and possibly of national danger. They portend at least two very serious perils. There is, in the first place, a danger that the present Ministry may, in spite of their Parliamentary majority, and in spite of the respect or veneration entertained for Mr. Gladstone by the mass of the electors, be driven suddenly from office. Everything suggests the conclusion that some change in the government in Ireland may become requisite. Such a change, were it only the recall of Mr. Forster and of the Lord Lieutenant, would for the moment weaken the Ministry itself. Alteration in policy is at the best a confession of partial failure. The Cabinet are surrounded by foes who, to judge by past experience, are singularly unscrupulous. There is every reason to suppose that the party who sought to retain office by denunciations of Home Rule would not hesitate to regain office by an alliance with Home Rulers. Independently of any party feeling, I confidently assert that the fall of the present Government would at the present time be a national peril, and this for a very simple reason : it would be absolutely impossible to form a Cabinet which could command anything like the same amount of public respect and confidence as is, as a matter of fact, possessed by Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues. Any Government which could replace them would, as things now stand, be a weak Government. But a weak Government means at a great crisis a weak nation, and national feebleness may any moment mean national disaster. This risk is so manifest that it probably would be guarded against by that good sense and self-control in which Englishmen of whatever party are rarely deficient.

There exists, however, a second peril, much less easy to avoid, because it arises from the inveterate habits or vices of modern party government. The experience of more than half a century warns Englishmen of the infinite harm which may be produced by that perverse form of factious conflict in which one party in the state attempts to keep office or obtain influence by adopting or exaggerating the policy of its opponents. When Conservatives play the part of Radicals, or Liberals display all the repressive energy of Tories, every statesman of eminence is sure to damage his character, while the whole country suffers both from the injured character of its leaders and from the recklessness with which men carry out a policy inconsistent with their own beliefs and principles. Those who can remember the agitations of 1866 and the immediate results of the strategy by which Mr. Disraeli snatched the advocacy of household suffrage out of the hands of Mr. Bright, will feel that there is ample cause for fearing grave disaster if Lord Salisbury take up and exaggerate schemes of peasant proprietorship stolen from the original programme of the Member for Birmingham. Should the Conservative leaders propose a definite scheme for making the tenants of Ireland owners of the land they cultivate, the plan ought of course to be considered on its own merits. But that it should be so considered either by Conservatives or by Liberals is, human nature being what it is, almost incredible. Lord Salisbury and Sir Stafford Northcote, or if not these leaders themselves, at any rate their followers,

* *Letter to the Electors of Dundalk on the condition of Ireland.* By Charles Russell, Esq., Q. C., M. P. London: Wyman & Sons.

will inevitably have before their minds fully as much the desirability of granting compensation to landlords as the expediency of procuring proprietorship for tenants. What should be a consistent policy is almost certain to be, to a certain extent, a political dodge. The very men, on the other hand, who, like Mr. Bright, have throughout their political career attacked the English system of land tenure, will consistently enough look with grave suspicion on a scheme of agrarian revolution proposed by the richest landowners in Europe. The suspicion will not be lessened by the knowledge that should the expedients of revolutionary conservatism fail, the loss of the failure will fall on the English taxpayer. Meanwhile, the substitution of a totally new agrarian policy for the arrangements sanctioned by the Land Act will, whatever its ultimate effect, make confusion in Ireland for the moment worse confounded. The peril of the time is lest the interests of England and Ireland alike should be made the sport of a party conflict. Manœuvres which produced discord and confusion in 1866 might well produce ruin and disaster in 1882.

A. V. Dicey.

THE ULTRAMONTANE AND CONSERVATIVE COMPROMISE.

Berlin, April 21.

I have delayed writing to you from day to day, in the hope of being able to report the final compromise between the Ultramontane and Conservative parties in the Prussian Landtag. It was perfected on March 30, in the Lower House, but received only yesterday the approval of the Prussian Government. Its principal features are (1) the prolongation of the discretionary powers of the Government till 1884; (2) the restoration of the deposed bishops; (3) the authorization of the Minister of Public Instruction to dispense with some requirements of the law of May 12, 1873, such as the exemption from a scientific examination of the candidates for a clerical office, and the abrogation of control by the Government in the appointment of priests by the bishops; (4) the doing away with the nomination of priests alone by the Government; and (5) the abolition of the state court on ecclesiastical matters. In short, this compromise leaves the Pope and his followers absolute masters of the field. We need no longer go to Canossa: we have already arrived there. The state has resigned its sovereignty in its relations with the Catholic Church.

This nefarious transaction originated with the Conservatives, who were afraid of being swept from the political surface by the coming elections unless they formed an alliance with their former alleged foes. It is a noble compact between a set of worthy brethren, the Protestant orthodox and the orthodox Papists, who have no country, no nationality, no ideas, and are solely led toward each other and kept together by their mutual admiration of the Pope and of the High Church, and by the common desire of suppressing all independent thought and action. The Conservatives have sacrificed everything, even honor and self-respect; the Ultramontanes, on the other hand, have pocketed on account what they considered their due, have paid nothing in return, except their friendship (if that be of any value), and are waiting for more. Their tone is as overbearing and supercilious as in their palmiest days under Frederic William IV. The "Falk laws" have been so shamefully put aside that it would have been better if they had never been passed. It is rather naïve to expect that a boundary-line can be drawn between Church and state. Not separation of the one from the other, but domination over the state by the Church, is what Rome is striving for. If any Government ought to know this, it is Prussia, which since 1819 has had ample opportunity of becoming intimately acquainted with the Pope's policy. If this was to be the end, why, then, did Bismarck begin his strife with Rome? The labor of the last ten years is lost. He now finds himself in the awkward position of being at the mercy of Leo XIII.; he can no longer impose his will upon his adversary, for, having shown the cold shoulder to his old friends, the Liberals, he has lost their help altogether, and has not strength enough left to crush the Centre. On the contrary, the latter is now the arbiter of our political situation, and it was the Chancellor who elevated it to this proud position. The Pope, as the embodiment of the Roman Catholic Church, can wait; Bismarck cannot wait. In his case the difficulties of yesterday's situation are in the way of to-day's plans, and even if yesterday's plans be given up, those of to-day will not be promoted by such surrender.

Bismarck yielded so much, in order to get his hands free for other plans and schemes, and especially for his pet measure, the tobacco monopoly. It will at once be submitted to the Reichstag, which is to reconvene on the 27th inst. If part of the Ultramontane party—say only thirty per cent.—votes in its favor, the country may be saddled with a most obnoxious law, which is detested by the great majority of the people, as it ruins a most flourishing trade and the wealth of so important a port as Bremen. The Ultramontane papers loudly declare that their whole party will, like one man, vote against such a monopoly; but a long and sad experience has taught us that little faith can be placed in such assertions, and that, if the interest of the Church be at stake, at the last moment the Centre will always find an apparently decent pretext for a profitable bargain. There is great danger that it will declare the tobacco question a non-partisan measure, on which every one of its members can vote as he pleases. Thus appearances will be saved and an important victory be secured to the Chancellor, who of course will thank the Centre for its support by new sacrifices. By the time this letter reaches you, the telegraph will have informed you of the fate of the tobacco monopoly. It will be the first important bill submitted to the Reichstag. Its opponents will of course vote for debating it in the House instead of sending it to a special committee. If their view can be carried, the bill will surely be defeated; but it is almost certain that, with a parade of moral wrath, the Ultramontanes will declare that they are in duty bound fully to discuss so important a measure in order to afford an opportunity to the Government to have the merits of the bill explained in committee. As its opponents are a minority without the Centre, the vote of the latter will decide the question. Once sent to a committee, the bill will serve as a basis for bargain and barter between Bismarck and Rome. Whatever the final result may be, both the high contracting parties will make each other the most liberal promises if not concessions, subject of course to still wider mental reservations. Softsoaping and whitewashing will be the order of the day. Which of the two parties is the more wily the debate even will not show, as the most important transactions will be carried on behind the curtain.

I have often been asked by American friends, whose opinion I value, why I did not side unconditionally with Bismarck's policy. Thus, the other day I received a letter from a friend in the West, in which he says: "You know the situation much better than I do, and of course I have no word of criticism for you; but if I were a German, I should dislike very much to put myself in active opposition to Bismarck, whom I admire so much, though I fear he is not as able a statesman for home affairs as for foreign." As this remark bears more a general than a personal character, I will answer it publicly, and by so doing interest perhaps a larger circle of your readers. I certainly appreciate the great merits by which the Chancellor has immortalized himself in the history of the world and in the hearts of his countrymen. I honor him as an energetic, unselfish character, an extraordinary statesman, and a very able diplomatist. At the same time, however, he has the faults of his virtues. He knows no will but his own, is an imperious dictator who suffers no opposition, who hates all restraints imposed upon him, uses every means in his power to carry his plans, and changes them as often as he sees fit. In his realistic tendencies he undervalues the power of ideas, and only avails himself of them for bargaining with them or realizing temporary advantages, as, in the present contest with Rome, he plays out the liberty of conscience and Protestant faith against the tobacco monopoly and tariff questions. His great qualities as a diplomatist are so many drawbacks in his home policy. He treats men and parties with whom he ought to work harmoniously, or at least in a friendly manner, as enemies when they do not agree with him even on minor topics. He thinks that he alone can do everything, and introduces at the same time dozens of measures into the political arena, thus creating confusion and disorder in all departments of the Government. His social and economical schemes are ill-digested and fraught with evil. "They are very interesting, indeed," said about a year ago an American friend in this city to me, "but I had rather have them tried on the German than on the American body politic." In a country like yours you can form no idea how deeply they affect the well-being of the people. Slavery, as long as it existed with you, chiefly injured the South, and did less harm to the whole nation than the monopolizing tendencies of the Chancellor with us. If he carries his points, private industry, individual exertion, and personal responsibility, which alone have elevated the Teutonic race to its present commanding position in the world, will make room for governmental control and patriarchal management. Just as the Government already monopolizes railroads and tries to monopolize a lucrative trade with tobacco, it would in future control even poorhouses and village schools, run machinery, open shops, do the shipping, freight, and insurance business, and, as the Postmaster-General has several times proposed, even monopolize the retail book trade. Why should the Government not as well buy out all the butchers, bakers, brewers, and other profitable trades? It saps the roots of our national wealth that such disastrous schemes are afloat and even seriously discussed in the papers, and it is our duty to oppose them by all legitimate means. "*Principiis obsta!*"

Besides, you must remember that what with you is settled law, which no American would dare to impugn, with us, though on the statute-book, is daily attacked and held up to opprobrium. Thus our Conservatives, supported by the Chancellor, with all kinds of weapons, and some very mean ones, too, fight for the repeal of our limited-shareholders companies, the law of civil marriage, of liberal care for the poor, of free emigration, of freedom of the press, and of freedom of trade, while they try to reintroduce the usury laws, imprisonment for debt, and the right of combination among workingmen. As long as the Chancellor stood on the Liberal side, these mediæval endeavors were of little consequence, but since he sides with the Conservatives they have gained a tower of strength. In

fighting them, the Liberals must therefore direct the weight of their attack against Bismarck himself. We have, chiefly through his craft and genius, gained the political form in which our national life will henceforth grow and thrive, but against Bismarck we must fill it with the independent spirit of self-government; we must insist upon free speech and free labor, the marrow of society; we must base it upon the principle of full and perfect human freedom.

Although I have always confined myself to our home policy, allow me occasionally to stray beyond my own limits. Negotiations are neither pending nor intended to acquire Luxemburg or any other slice of land from Holland. This hoax, as if Germany wanted to swallow wholly or partially her harmless Dutch neighbor, is a particular French pastime, which with the regularity of a migratory bird returns every two or three years. The alleged alliance with Sweden is likewise an invention, expressly manufactured for Russian consumption and for the purpose of proving to Europe that we are bent upon a war with Russia. Things which do not exist cannot be proved, but the best demonstration of the utter absurdity of these so-called schemes will be found in the foreign policy of the German empire since 1871. Our relations with Russia have of course changed for the better since Mr. Giers has replaced Gortchakoff; but how long the present system will last is a question which, in view of the vacillating and weak character of the Czar, it is difficult to answer. So much I know, that Bismarck had to make a heavy draft upon the "Reptile Fund" (the confiscated property of the King of Hanover) in order to win over to his side some very influential personages in Petersburg. If I am not mistaken, the Russians like this kind of food, and will soon cry for more. "*L'appétit vient en mangeant.*" The same play, in order to be successful, must be repeated over and over again; so that, in the long run, the candle will cost too much. I therefore apprehend that the money has been thrown away; although it may be better to spend it for the preservation of peace than for hiring spies, detectives, and conspirators. † † †

THE NATIONAL PARTY AND THE COPTS.

ALEXANDRIA, April 19, 1882.

I SPENT a few days at Easter in Cairo, and was glad of the opportunity of contrasting or comparing the state of opinion in that city on public affairs with the state of opinion here. The Chamber of Notables had been prorogued two or three weeks before, and there were no signs in any part of the city that I visited of political unrest or social disorder. Mr. Wilfred Blunt and Sir William Gregory had left, and one consequence of this was that Colonel Arabi Pasha was much less frequently seen haunting the European quarters. During Sir William Gregory's stay, I am told, he was incessantly popping in and out of Shepheard's Hotel. I found but one opinion here, as in Alexandria, among all the intelligent persons I spoke to—that the glowing colors in which Sir William Gregory and Mr. Wilfred Blunt had been allowed by the London *Times* to flaunt in columns of good print the so-called National Party were a caricature and a sham. Mr. Blunt is a fanatical admirer of the Arab race, but by the Arab race he means the Bedouin of the desert, and not the mixed race who inhabit the towns. I was given to understand by a competent authority, who conversed much with Mr. Blunt while in Cairo, that he seemed to care nothing about the land of Egypt itself or Egyptian politics as a national question, and that, when brought face to face with facts, he wholly declined any responsibility for details of any sort, whether relating to the past, the present, or the future. As to Sir William Gregory, his interlocutors spoke of him with greater respect, though they complained that he treated the whole subject rather as a holiday pastime than as a momentous topic of political concern, and that his party seemed rather to caress Arabi Pasha with a species of sentimental fondness than to subject his pretensions to any kind of political criticism. And yet the *Times* newspaper has been inserting columns and columns of this sort of stuff side by side with the well-informed and conscientiously-written letters of its own correspondents. To be sure, on a recent occasion, the *Times* also inserted an article of its own, in which it gently intimated that every word that Sir William Gregory said was distinctly contradicted by all persons of any credit on the spot; while on the same page on which there appeared a letter of Mr. Blunt's, there appeared another letter of Sir Samuel Baker's, proving by anticipation that every word of Mr. Blunt's was demonstrably false.

I had the opportunity of much close conversation with some of the highest English officials in the Egyptian Government, and the unvaried tale told me was of the saddest and gravest. The mere fact that the recent pseudo-national movement has been marked from the first with rancorous antipathy to the native Coptic Christians—who, if any, are the lineal descendants of the ancient possessors of the soil of Egypt—is a sufficient proof that purely national aspirations have no place whatever in the movement. One of the ablest and most trustworthy English Administrators told me that within the last six months every public office except that of finance had dismissed all the Copts employed in it. The practical inconvenience of this step has been very great, because the Copts have, time out of mind, had almost a monopoly of the arts of reading, writing, and account-keeping. A panic has in consequence set in among all the Copts employed in the public service—the more so as the most subtle devices have been resorted to by the Mohammedan heads of departments to move the Copts who cannot be immediately got rid of from the list of permanent to that of temporary officials, with a view to speedily excluding them altogether. An Irish bishop of repute, travelling up the Nile, told me that the captain of the postal steamer, who was a Copt, and in receipt of a good salary, requested his lordship to use any influence he might possess to obtain him employment under Europeans at Alexandria, because he knew the determination to eject all Copts from public employment was so clear that he was bound to provide for himself at once in the best way he could. A Coptic friend of mine, an intelligent deacon and teacher in the Coptic school, gave me a pitiful picture of the underhand malice and cruelty with which the Copts in the towns of Upper Egypt, especially Assiut, are persecuted. Complaints against outrages committed upon them, their churches, and their priests, were almost hopeless, because, owing to the corruption and denial of justice, witnesses were easily suborned to testify that the miscreants were not Mohammedans, but rival Christian sectaries.

One of my informants in high office gave me a curious proof of the improvement that had been wrought in the country through European intervention. In his department he had the opportunity of noticing that the taxes had, for some time past, been often paid in coins which had been several years out of date. This was a proof that the native taxpayers were now paying their taxes out of treasure long buried. In the iniquitous days of Ismaïl Pasha, the fellaheen preferred mortgaging their lands to extortionate money-lenders to paying with the money they had already saved. They well knew that if they disclosed the possession of capital the rate of taxation would be raised by the provincial official, and they would have to mortgage their lands after all in order to save themselves from the lash or *courbash*. Owing to the readjustment of taxation which had been brought about by the various administrative efforts that followed on the report of the Commission of Inquiry in 1878, to the regulation of the times for payment (so that these times corresponded with those of the sales of the crops), and to the strict supervision of the local functionaries, the taxpayers had little reason any longer to resort to the money-lenders. They even preferred paying the taxes out of their buried treasure to selling their crops before they could get the best possible market for them. Thus the reappearance of these almost obsolete coins is an unmistakable proof of the sound basis on which the financial administration of the country has of late rested. My informant went on to say that the obvious and necessary consequence of the relaxation of the European Control and of the disuse of European officials in high places will shortly manifest itself in the treasure being buried afresh. One of the most obstinate evils that the European Administrators had to deal with was the mode of taxation, which imposed a certain amount to be levied on each district, but allowed the local officers to exempt themselves and their friends at the cost of their poorer and dependent neighbors. The secrecy, slowness, shiftiness, and, in one word, unbusinesslikeness of all Oriental economics, rendered this enormity almost unassailable. A leading English official, practised in Indian finance, spent four months in travelling from village to village and doing his utmost to get at the root of this disorder. He and his coadjutors succeeded, and the result has been the most complete system of central supervision, and the absolute prevention of local tyranny and corruption. Signs have already appeared of this state of things being threatened. The Mudir of a province told my official informant that he expected to encounter serious difficulties from the return to their homes of the members of the Chamber of Notables. Hitherto he had been the only avenue for petitions and representations on the part of complainants to the central authority. Henceforth these returned members would each become a new and distinct avenue for local representations to the Chamber of Notables. "But," said he, "these multiplied petitions would be those from the rich to the disadvantage of the poor, whereas the petitions he had had hitherto to present were those from the poor complaining of the rich." It is needless to point out how these silent but veritable tokens are as straws showing which way the wind of anarchy and tyranny, under the outraged name of popular government, is beginning to blow.

On my return to Alexandria I found that the main topic of discussion was and is that of the new apprehended, or hoped-for, Collective Note. It is said that if France and England, empowered by the mandate of the leading states of Europe, should determine to avail themselves of Turkey to enforce their decrees, the Egyptian people and army would oppose very slight, if any, resistance. There is a profound belief that the Caliph has a right to do what he will with his own; and, though it is true that the agricultural population fear change of any kind more than they fear or hope for anything else, yet, if change is to come, a Turkish army would be the least unpalatable form of it. The profound objection hitherto entertained by France to alliance with Turkey for any purpose, seems to be giving way with the Tunis policy in the hands of M. de Freycinet. I am strongly averse myself to any

steps which could prolong for a day the organization of the vicious and corrupt court at Constantinople, or give a semblance to the notion that Egypt is ever to be governed in the way in which Turkish provinces, not protected from without, have invariably been governed. But I do not see that it is any countenance to the prolongation of Turkish rule to make its existing relations to Egypt real and profitable for Egypt's true welfare, instead of their being a mere instrument for extorting tribute and troops from a dependent country. A.

POLITICAL SYMPTOMS IN MEXICO.

MEXICO, April 11, 1882.

THE political transition through which this country is passing is in danger of going unnoticed on account of the more striking changes in commercial matters. Politics are very tame now in the eyes of those who see the great openings for speculation and business enterprise afforded by the new railroads. We have been for six years without a pronunciamiento or a "plan." Government goes on without very much of the old theatric display. The President can send his message to Congress with no word of any revolution or conspiracy. Everything seems at last solidly based. Congress will be too busy, this closing session, with the estimates to have time for anything exciting. So the correspondents dismiss politics and "write up" trade.

Yet one need not be a specially keen observer to catch glimpses of important political movements and tendencies which are suggestive of new complications in the difficult problem of Mexican self-government. For one thing, it is fair to conclude that the power of the Executive is still maintaining itself as almost dictatorial. This power, it is true, has to make itself felt under new forms and by new methods. Formerly it was brute force: the argument was that of pike and gun. The Constitution always seemed to side with the man who had the most troops. Little of this remains, although the Administration continues to make large demands on the Treasury for the equipment and support of soldiers, and takes marked care to keep on good terms with the military. But the power of intrigue of a party won over by the bribe of office, and held as devoted personal followers, is a power in peaceful times as effective as swords and bayonets in revolutionary periods. There can be little question that this power is utilized by President Gonzalez. Under the forms of the Constitution he governs with a personal arbitrariness vastly too great for the President of a republic. Indications are abundant that he is bending all things to his personal will. Take, as a sample, his attitude in the matter of the recent troubles in the State of Jalisco. His own account of the matter, in his message, is bad enough. The sense of his bland words is that, on his own showing, he refused to the constitutional Governor the Federal aid which the Constitution guarantees, and not only allowed an insurrection to make head against the lawful Government of the State, but actually recognized the leader of the insurrection as Governor: "without," as he inconsequently says, "implying by this recognition anything in respect to his legitimacy." This is going very far for a Federal Executive governing under a Constitution which leaves the rights of the States very much as does that of the United States. But when we add the suspicion, openly expressed here, and not without probable basis of fact, that this insurrection was fomented by the influence of the Federal Government, because Governor Riestra was not proving docile to the wishes of the President, it becomes a most damaging matter.

I do not write of this as trying to make myself, or any one, believe that the President is aiming at anything like a dictatorship. It is not to be imagined that he would even seek an unconstitutional reëlection. When Porfirio Diaz gives heed to the Constitution it is not probable that Manuel Gonzalez will defy it. The most that can be said in reference to the bearing on the future of this "policy of absorption," as it is called, is that it means a dictation of the succession, and so of the policy, of the new Administration. Whom Executive favor will choose is a secret, though it is thought that the recent allusions of the *Diario Oficial* to General Diaz, in connection with the anniversary of his victories over the Imperial troops in '67, may portend the restoration of that stout old soldier. All this is not of so much account, however, as the proof given that the old idea of Mexican rulers still persists—the idea, namely, that the President must have no opposition, that his will must be supreme, that his party must be dominant in State and nation alike. Proof is given, as well, that this ideal of government may be aimed at, and reached, in large measure, without a soldier leaving the barracks. There is an obedience to the spirit of a Constitution, as well as a working under its letter, which is a thing for Mexican Executives yet to learn.

I take a text from the President's message, again, in writing something about the condition of the suffrage in this country. General Gonzalez informs Congress, as a thing worthy of note, that "the elections for Judges of the Supreme Court and for the Attorney-General of the nation, have been held in all the republic, excepting a few remote districts." The very fact that he should think it worth while to speak of such a thing shows something of what the state of the case has been. Peaceful and universal elections have been a rare thing; and the truth appears to be at present that the peace and quiet of the elections is simply the peace and quiet of lethargy or death. It has been amusing to notice the announcements in reference to these very elections to which General Gonzalez alludes, furnished by the *Diario Oficial*, from time to time. On such a Sunday the election for Supreme Judge in such a district took place, and the result is that such a man is chosen unanimously—by thirty votes, it may be, at any rate some amazingly small number. So the records have been running. The organ of the Government maintains a grave face, and speaks of the choice of the people; while the truth is, as the figures show, and as the opposition newspapers boldly assert, that the elections are the merest farces, simply a cumbrous way of declaring the will of the Executive. The *Monitor* charges the gravest irregularities on the Government in the matter of advertising and managing the elections, and declares that in the recent choice of judges not a dozen votes were cast in the whole country, outside of civil and military officials, and that the successful candidates, in every case, are from the innermost circle of Gonzalez's partisans. The facts seem to be that, what with the indifference and ignorance of the people, and the intriguing of the party in power, Mexican elections are managed with a method and precision which might be the envy of a New York city caucus. The plan of indirect voting, with the opportunity for Congress to constitute itself a returning-board of the fullest powers, greatly increases the facilities for work of this sort.

Of course the thought at once suggests itself that these elections, though for important offices, are not of the sort to arouse popular interest, and that they are, consequently, not a fair gauge of the popular participation in the choice of rulers. There is some truth in this; but a recurrence to the official figures for the last three Presidential elections will not better the matter much. At the second election of Juarez a total vote of 12,361 was cast by a population of 8,836,000. After the death of Juarez, Lerdo in 1872 was chosen President by 10,465 votes, with less than 1,000 against him, all told. Revolution, not the suffrage, determined the succession in 1876. In 1880, 11,528 votes were recorded in favor of Gonzalez, with no appreciable opposition.

This, for a people with practically universal suffrage, is no great credit to republican institutions. In fairness, however, one must remember the many palliating circumstances. The decision of the sword has been so often put above that of the ballot, that the popular will has come to think, not unnaturally, that it is scarcely worth any pains to express itself. For this reason it is that patriotic Mexicans are looking anxiously forward to the Presidential election of 1884 as a time when it is to be seen if eight years of peace have restored political confidence and caused a greater popular desire to exercise the right of suffrage. Till then we must suspend judgment. If the improved public education, the increased freedom and value of public discussion, the contact of a vigorous civilization shall prove, as is ardently desired, a means of arousing the people to the duties of citizenship, there will yet be hope for this unhappy country, which has a written Constitution among the most advanced in the world, but which has shown a practical inability to govern itself ever since Hidalgo and Iturbide shook off the Government of Spain. O.

Correspondence.

COMPETITIVE EXAMINATIONS FOR PASSED ASSISTANT SURGEONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I hesitate to trespass on your patience again in a matter that can have so little interest for most of your readers, but would like to correct a mistake in the letter of "C. A. S." in the *Nation* of April 20.

"Your correspondent of March 30" is not at nor near the foot of his class, nor would he lose a single number by the passage and enforcement of the "Lamar Bill."—Very respectfully, etc,

GEO. ARTHUR, P. A. Surg.

U. S. NAVAL HOSPITAL, MARE ISLAND, CAL., April 27, 1882.

THE SLAVIC POPULATION OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Mr. Knoch's letter of March 5, in answer to Mr. Freeman's "Revolt in Dalmatia," occurs the following sentence: "The Germans and Hungarians are in Austria the bearers of civilization and progress, and the possessors of wealth, and are therefore, aside from their numerical superiority over the Slavs, by right entitled to the influence they possess."

There lies before me at the present moment an abstract, with editorial approval in the *Dresdner Anzeiger*, of an article by "an old and proved" member of the staff of the *Augsberger Allegemeine Zeitung*. With this double endorsement, it may be judged that the article in question was not inspired by prejudice against the Germans or partiality for the Slavs. I will quote some of its estimates and remarks:

"According to the most favorable (for Germans and Magyars) estimate, the Germans constitute 40 per cent. of the total population of the western or Austrian half of the dual empire, and the Magyars 45 per cent. of that of the

eastern or Hungarian half of the same, excluding Croatia and Slavonia. Including Croatia and Slavonia, according to the terms of the settlement of 1867, the percentage of Magyars to the whole population of Hungary is reduced to 40. The Magyars of Hungary are, however, in so far more favorably situated than the Germans of Cisleithania, that they have historical tradition in favor of their position as the one dominant race, and that they are in all respects —geographical and religious, as well as political and linguistic—a unit, while the non-Magyars are split up into a variety of Slavic and Rumanian tribes, which are, again, still further disintegrated by differences of religious belief (Roman Catholics, Orthodox Greeks, Greek Papists, and Protestants). In addition to this, the Magyars are far superior in point of education and civilization to all the other nationalities, excepting the German, and these latter, amounting, perhaps, to 13 per cent. of the population, unite in all matters of importance with the Magyars, thus giving them an actual majority. In Cisleithania, or the Austrian half of the empire, on the other hand, the Slavs, who constitute 56 per cent. of the total population, although divided into several nationalities (Czechs, Poles, Ruthenians, and Slovenians), live together in homogeneous groups, possessing a national history and national traditions, are in all political matters comparatively united as against the Germans, and are almost, if not quite, the equals of the latter in point of civilization."

It is proper to add, with regard to the estimated ratios of the different races above given, that, so far as I know, there are no exact official statistics accessible. According to Fickler's estimates of 1876, adopted by Andrée, in his atlas, and familiar, perhaps, to some of your readers, the main elements of the population in Austria and Hungary are as follows:

	Austria.	Hungary.	Austria-Hungary.
Germans	7,800,000	1,800,000	9,600,000
Magyars	20,000	5,680,000	5,700,000
Czechs, Moravians, Slovakians,	5,000,000	2,000,000	7,000,000
Ruthenians, or Little Russians	2,600,000	600,000	3,200,000
Poles	2,500,000	.....	2,500,000
Croatians, Servians,	580,000	2,570,000	3,150,000
Slovenians	1,190,000	60,000	1,250,000
Slavs	11,870,000	5,230,000	17,100,000
Rumanians	195,000	2,800,000	2,995,000
Italians	630,000	3,000	633,000
Jews	860,000	580,000	1,440,000
Gypsies	8,000	159,000	167,000

According to this estimate, and excluding the newly-annexed Slavic provinces, it will be seen that the Slavs constitute about one-half of the total population of Austria-Hungary, while in Austria alone they outnumber all other elements combined. So much for their numerical strength in the western half of the empire. In estimating their importance as a political factor, the Poles must be reckoned as a separate nationality. They are in feeling almost a separate race, and are willing to make common cause with whatever party offers them the greatest degree of administrative independence. Something of this particularistic or national (in distinction from race) feeling has been visible among the Czechish leaders also, but at present it is to their interest to be pan-Slavic. The other Slavs follow their lead. Estimating in a similar manner the political strength of the Germans, they on their part do not constitute a political unit. With them party feeling is, as a rule, stronger than the sentiment of race. Accordingly we find that the present Austrian Ministry, that of Count Taaffe, was brought into power and is sustained by a combination of the Conservatives with the Slavs, or Nationalists, the Church playing a prominent part in effecting the union. The Liberals, on the other hand, the so-called "Constitution-true" party, are centralists, who seek to consolidate Austria, making it a German state in all its parts.

In Hungary, the party in power, which comprises almost the entire Magyar population, and was not long since in danger of going to pieces merely from its own weight, is the Liberal. Like the Liberals of Cisleithania, those of Transleithania seek to solidify the state by making it a social and linguistic unit.

Mr. Knoch speaks of the Emperor Francis Joseph as endeavoring to satisfy "the most powerful and numerous" of his subjects "without wronging the weaker ones." So far as the Austrian half of the empire is concerned, this is true in quite a different sense from that in which Mr. Knoch meant it. In so far as the Government is parliamentary, the tendency of the various Ministries since Sadowa revolutionized the whole political system of the country has been to concede to the Slavic element complete equality with the German. In so far as the Austrian Emperor's personal action is concerned, I should say it has tended in the same direction.

The subject of this letter is in no sense the question at issue between Mr. Knoch and Mr. Freeman, but, although incidental, I could not allow what seemed to me such serious misstatements to pass unchallenged. My letter is certainly tardy, but it was only yesterday that I received the *Nation* containing Mr. Knoch's letter.—Very respectfully,

JOHN P. PETERS.

DRESDEN, GERMANY, April 20, 1882.

Notes.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & Co. have in press 'Reminiscences of Oriel College and of the Oxford Movement,' by the Rev. T. Mozley. The same publishers have issued 'Hawthorne' in their "American Classics for Schools." If all has not been done in it that might have been, with the material available, the selections are praiseworthy, and will be welcome to children.

Geo. W. Harlan & Co. announce 'Henry Wadsworth Longfellow: a Medley in Prose and Verse,' by Richard Henry Stoddard—a quarto volume. This firm has removed to West Twenty-third Street, now the neighborhood of a large fraternity of booksellers and publishers, embracing the Messrs. Putnam, Henry Holt & Co., E. P. Dutton & Co., and F. W. Christern.

"Two Gentlemen of Verona" is the latest issue in Rolfe's edition of Shakspere published by Harper & Bros.

"The Library of Cornell University" is the title of the first number of a publication analogous to the Bulletin of Harvard University. It is mainly a record of recent accessions to the library, with notes and bibliographical appendices. Deserving of remark are the brief lists of titles relating to the German civil service, and of Petrarch bibliographies, both drawn up by the Librarian, Prof. Willard Fiske, whose collections in these two widely distinct fields of human interest are known to be rich almost beyond parallel, either in this country or abroad. In a note on Marsand's *Biblioteca petrarchesa*, which was sold to the French Government, it is stated that this "most complete and precious collection of Petrarchiana ever brought together" was burnt by the Communists with the Tuileries.

In the Harvard Bulletin, No. 22, most significant are Mr. Winsor's list of the most useful reference books; Mr. Richard Bliss, jr.'s classified index to the maps in Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for 1855-81; and Prof. J. D. Whitney's list of American authors in geology and palæontology.

The bibliographies of the March Bulletin of the Boston Public Library relate to Copyright; Ireland and the Land Question; and Civil Service. A number of maps, we are told, of Boston and vicinity during the half century 1705–55 have been discovered among the "King's Maps" in the British Museum, and steps are being taken to have copies made of them.

From the fourth annual report of the Librarian of the Providence Public Library, we learn that his serial *Monthly Reference Lists* began its second year with 220 subscribers, some of whom reside in distant States and even abroad. Instructors in several colleges have found it to their advantage to see it regularly. We are glad that this library is beginning to receive material aid from the public-spirited, even if it is a little slow in coming and as yet but meagre in amount.

The valuable papers of the late Dr. James Rush are being arranged by Mr. W. H. B. Thomas for the Library Company of Philadelphia.

Prof. C. S. Sargent's Forestry Bulletins, Nos. 9–14, of the Census Office, show by tables and colored maps the amount of standing pine in Louisiana, North and South Carolina, Georgia, Pennsylvania, and Arkansas, and of the redwood in California—this last, a sorry strip along the coast from Santa Cruz to the Oregon line. The redwood area already deforested is seen to be an ominously large percentage of the total tract.

The *American Naturalist* for May contains the beginning of a discussion, by R. Ellsworth Call, of "The Loess of North America," in which Baron Richthofen's view of the origin of this wide-spread and peculiar formation is controverted.

We have received "The Chatauqua Scientific Diagrams" (Series No. 1: Geology), printed on ten sheets, each 27½ by 36 inches, and comprising fifteen sketches, intended to illustrate pictorially the action of water and heat as geologic forces, and, more especially, the forms of life, fauna, and flora, characteristic of each of the great geological periods. They are accompanied by a pamphlet of descriptive and expository text by Professor A. S. Packard, jr., of Brown University. The plates are executed and the work published by the Providence Lithograph Company. They are designed, mainly, for the use of classes in the lecture-room. As works of art, in quality of drawing, coloring, and printing, as well as in the grouping of animals of the prehistoric ages, with studied reference to the display of form and individual characteristics, they have much in common with the tailors' fashion-plates of this present Age of Man.

The American Association for the Advancement of Science will hold its thirty-first meeting at Montreal, beginning on Wednesday, August 23, under the presidency of Principal Dawson. The headquarters of the Association will be at McGill University. The circular announcement states that $1,250 have already been subscribed toward reprinting the earlier Proceedings.

With the aid of the Women's Education Association, the Boston Society of Natural History will reopen its Seaside Laboratory at Annisquam, Mass., from July 1 to September 1. This station is not far from the town of Gloucester. Those who have already made a beginning in the study are eligible for admission. Applications should be addressed to Alpheus Hyatt, the Curator of the Society.

White & Stokes, New York, have made a very handsome book of 'Summer Gleanings,' compiled by Rose Porter. The plan is perfectly simple, and the result will be a revelation partly of summer opportunities, partly of character. Every day from June 1 to August 31 has its page, introduced with a poetical or other "elegant extract," and containing a division called "Jottings by the Way," which explains itself, with one for a pencil or color sketch and another for pressed flowers.

The Saturday lectures just concluded at the National Museum, Washington, will shortly be gathered into one volume, with the imprint of Judd & Detweiler. They are a gratifying evidence of the steady growth of the capital toward a homogeneous and permanent life. Professor Theo. Gill, Professor Otis T. Mason, Professor J. W. Chickering, jr., Major J. W. Powell, Professor C. V. Riley, Dr. Robert Fletcher, Mr. William H. Dall, and Dr. S. W. Burnett delivered these popular scientific addresses, which have already been printed separately.

We have received from B. Westermann & Co. the first number of the quarterly *American Journal of Neurology and Psychiatry*, edited by Dr. T. A. McBride, with Drs. L. C. Gray and E. C. Spitzka as associates. About half the number is devoted to résumés of neurological publications, chiefly foreign, which will constitute its chief value to most American alienists and practitioners. It is evidently designed to be an organ of what is popularly known as the new Continental or anti-Utica school.

With the *Observatory*, *Copernicus*, and the *Astronomical Register* in England, the *Astronomische Nachrichten* in Germany, and *Ciel et Terre* in Belgium, there would seem to be little ground left for occupation by a new European astronomical magazine. M. Camille Flammarion has, however, just issued (Paris: Gauthier-Villars, March, 1882) the first number of *L'Astronomie*, a popular monthly, to be devoted to the progress of astronomy and kindred topics. The new journal is handsomely got up, and will doubtless fill a more or less important niche in semi-scientific circles in France. The chief article of this issue gives the history of the Paris Observatory, with illustrations of its appearance at the present day and at the time of Cassini, in 1672, very soon after its original construction.

The eighth year's issue of the Society for Photographing Relics of Old London is rich in promise. Half of the twelve plates (which are 10x8 inches, by the way) will represent Ashburnham House, outside and in; three will be devoted to Lincoln's Inn Fields, and one each to Little Dean's Yard (Westminster), the Banqueting House (Whitehall), and the Water Gate of York House. The series, it will be seen, is in a monumental vein, and the high standard of those which have preceded insures the full guinea's worth for these imperishable prints.

Das Magazin, in its latest issue, promises to reproduce shortly the inedited letters of Goethe to Carlyle.

The French school classics in use in this country are prepared to aid those to whom the language is strange. For advanced students there can be no doubt that the editions made for use in France are more advantageous. In the better and newer French schoolbooks the merely grammatical notes are fewer, and the literary and historical notes are greatly increased. Of the highest order is M. Ch. L. Livet's new edition of Molière's "Tartuffe," in which the ample notes are put at the end, but which gives variorum readings at the foot of the page and has an elaborate *lexique* or glossary as an appendix (Paris: Dupont; New York: F. W. Christern).

Incidentally in our notice of the last *Atlantic*, we referred to a poem, "Via Solitaria," as if unquestionably Mr. Longfellow's. The author, it appears, was Dr. O. M. Conover, of Madison, Wis. The verses were first printed in the New York *Independent* in the early part of 1863.

— We do not often have occasion to notice a book auction. Sales such as those of the Beach Lawrence collection of international law, for instance, which is just over, are too common to claim public attention, which is reserved for such exceptions as the Brinley sale. But there is one item in a catalogue otherwise commonplace enough—the law library of the late Senator Matt. Carpenter—which gives one pause: "1,111 volumes of United States documents"! Mr. Carpenter was Senator from 1869 to 1875 and from 1879 to 1881, and apparently saved one copy of each of those volumes which the Government publishes so indiscriminately, and gives away so liberally to so little purpose. In spite of the really valuable character of some of the issues, we doubt if many of his brethren have been as conservative. But if every Senator and Representative has done as well, and has kept all that came to him, Washington must be the richest city in private libraries in the country, or else there must be a number of private libraries scattered through the country of which we fear the Bureau of Education has given a very insufficient account. At the auction this lot will undoubtedly be the leading occasion of interest. We can imagine the auctioneer coming to it after the tiresome monotony of selling law books at prices ranging from three to eight dollars: "Now then, gentlemen, how much am I offered for this 'library in itself'?"

—The ten days' sale of the second third of the Sunderland Library ended April 27. The first sale occupied ten days and brought £20,000. The second, as was expected, was not pecuniarily so successful. Still there was much that was interesting. If there were no vellum Bibles to sell for £1,600, there were plenty of old French and Spanish chronicles, and twenty-two pages of early Ciceros; if there was no Boccaccio to fetch £920, there were precious Dantes, among them a manuscript of the 'Inferno' of the early part of the fifteenth century, and an excessively rare printed edition of 1472, both of which ought to weigh against gold, and a good deal of it, too. Among the works which were more interesting for their matter were some five hundred lots of volumes and pamphlets relating to French affairs mostly between 1563 and 1663, some of them surreptitiously printed, all of them rare, some, perhaps, unique. No doubt the British Museum and the Bibliothèque Nationale filled up some gaps in their shelves. There were many Americana, some of which may have been secured for this country; but we understand that in the previous sale comparatively little crossed the ocean westward. The noted bookseller Quaritch, when asked, after the first sale, what he should do with the nuggets for which he had paid such enormous prices, is said to have made a reply which implied that he had bought at haste to repent at leisure; we have not yet heard whether in the heat of the fight just ended he let his French or his American competitors carry off the prizes; but the amount of the proceeds, £9,530, favors that supposition.

—To those who remember "Professor" Hoffmann's 'Modern Magic,' by far the best manual of conjuring and prestidigitation in our language, his latest work does not need to be praised. It is a translation of Robert-Houdin's 'Tricheries des Grecs,' a work in which probably the finest and best-equipped prestidigitator that ever lived used his skill in laying bare the devices of gambling swindlers. The original French work, at one time very scarce, has recently been reprinted; and an English translation published in 1863 has been long out of print. "Professor" Hoffmann's 'Card-Sharping Exposed' (London and New York: George Routledge & Sons) is, however, not a mere translation of Robert-Houdin's work; it has been enriched with a suggestive preface by the English editor, who has also added many valuable notes, partly from his own experience and partly from the 'Filouteries du Jeu' of M. Cavaillé, and the 'Tricheurs' of M. Alfred de Caston, both published in Paris since the 'Tricheries des Grecs,' and both now hard to find. Nowhere is the perverseness of human ingenuity seen to more advantage than in devices a very large proportion of which are based on the sharper's belief that most players will be only too glad to seize an apparent chance to cheat. Not merely the "general reader" but the student of men and manners will find his account in reading the many neatly-told anecdotes which abound in Robert-Houdin's text and in "Professor" Hoffmann's frequent notes. Nothing is said, by the way, of our American national games, poker and euchre; and even faro is slighted. But this is of no great consequence, as the principles which underlie cheating are the same, whatever the variations in the game.

— Two recent issues of the Clarendon Press deserve the attention of Greek scholars. One is a second edition of Chandler's 'Practical Introduction to Greek Accentuation,' which opens a new vista in the possible miseries of authors Here is a book of over three hundred pages, most of it in fine print, and of such a character as to cost immense labor, both in compilation and in proof-reading, and yet the author freely expresses his disgust for the whole subject on which he has written. It is "an insipid subject," one "in which I never took more than a languid interest," "a mass of petty and uninteresting details," etc. He never tires of complaining of the absurd theories and conflicting statements of the ancient grammarians. We suspect much of this dislike of the subject may be due to having taken hold of it by the wrong end. Mr. Chandler professes to exclude all theories and principles as hypothetical and uncertain of application, but his whole classification of words is based on the assumed principle that proper names, or verbal nouns, or monosyllables, or *temenica*, or what not, having the same termination, ought to have the same accent. This principle, of course, he borrows from the early grammarians, and also of course it leads him into the same wilderness of arbitrary rules and countless exceptions into which he complains of its leading them. The principle is sound enough within a limited range of application, and some of the rules it furnishes are useful as a help to the memory; but any attempt, even so heroic a one as this, to group all the facts under a system of rules, must break down, because the rules with their exceptions become as burdensome to the memory as the facts themselves. The true way to deal with Greek accentuation, with the material at our command, is to learn the accent of each word and form as a part of the word itself, no more capable of being accounted for on a principle than the transitive and intransitive use of the first and second aorists respectively, or any other apparent caprice of language, and to restrict theory to the more general principles of the nature and possible position of accent. The method of this latter kind of investigation has never been better illustrated than by the late Professor Hadley's essay on the subject. Mr. Chandler's work, we think, will be useful mainly as a book of reference when one desires to get at the authorities on a doubtful case.

— The other work from the Clarendon Press is Mr. E. L. Hicks's 'Manual of Greek Historical Inscriptions,' and it is worthy of praise as having an excellent design excellently carried out. It consists simply of some two hundred inscriptions, from all parts of the Greek world, dating all along from about 600 B. C. to about 80 B. C., arranged in nine chronological sections, and accompanied by brief explanatory notes. The selection takes in only public documents, as a rule, such as have

some bearing on formal history, though in one or two cases others are added. The book is not in any sense a manual of the science of epigraphy; only three of its inscriptions are given in facsimile. Nor does it aim to open to the student the knowledge of private life which has been gained from the study of these records. Its design is to show by a few examples how much historical information, confirming or correcting or supplementing the statements in literature, or quite independent of these, may be gathered from this recently opened source. The great impulse which has been given to the study of antiquity since inscriptions began to be thoroughly and intelligently studied, shows how much good such a book as this may do for the coming generation of English-speaking students. Notwithstanding this modest purpose, the book is so prepared as to be a real contribution to the science to which it belongs. It contains several previously unpublished inscriptions (Nos. 4, 123, 174, 182) and several newly collated, in which new readings are proposed. It ought to be carefully studied by any one proposing to work in the projected American school at Athens. We should hope that in a second edition the notes might be somewhat expanded, the number of the inscription on the page added to the running title, and some of the misprints in accents corrected.

—The singularly low position assigned to the study of the natural sciences in the curriculum of French academic education may possibly account for the circumstance, pointed out some few years ago by M. Quatrefages, that France no longer holds the supremacy in the scientific world that she held during the first quarter of the present century, when, it might fairly be stated, every branch of scientific study had at least one master representative in the city of Paris. This decline, if we remember rightly, was attributed by the naturalist above mentioned to a lack of philological capacity among the French people as a nation, so that while specialists were able to keep abreast of the various advances made in their own country, they were unable to cope with their German and English brethren, whose rapidly-following discoveries were noted in unknown tongues. It appears from an interesting article recently published in the *Revue Scientifique* by the distinguished botanist, Gaston Bonnier, that for a considerable period preceding 1880 scientific instruction had been almost completely banished from the academic course (*études secondaires*) of the *lycées*, and that consequently only the elements, and usually not even these, of a scientific education were necessary for the degree of bachelor of letters (*baccalauréat ès lettres*). Even at the present day, and after the decree of August, 1880, exacting of every aspirant for the *baccalauréat ès lettres* a thorough scientific training, embracing, in addition to physics, chemistry, and mathematics, the studies of zoölogy, anatomy, palæontology, botany, physical geography, and geology, not even the rudiments of the last-named branches are demanded from the candidate for the degree of bachelor of sciences (*baccalauréat ès sciences complet.*) It may appear surprising that in the reforms recently attempted by ministerial decree in general academic education the introduction of natural-history studies should have met with decided opposition, yet M. Bonnier clearly shows that not only in many cases were the Government's instructions silently ignored, but in several instances they were as much as openly condemned by members of the various faculties. So slowly are the reforms being carried into effect that up to March of this year, as stated by M. Bonnier, there were in all the various *lycées* of France only two titular professors of natural history, one in the *Lycée Louis-le-Grand* and the other in the *Lycée Fontanes*.

—While the new movement has received the approval of many of the more prominent educators of France, it is interesting to note that so distinguished and eminently successful a naturalist as Lacaze-Duthiers, who has recently been elected to the Superior Council of Education, has set himself in direct opposition to it, grounding his reasons on the apparently practical fact that lawyers, notaries, and other non-scientific professional men would derive no benefit (and perhaps only injury) in their various vocations from the study of animal and vegetable forms, or from geological horizons. M. Lacaze-Duthiers appears to forget that it is not always the man that determines the study, but that in many cases it is the study that decides the man. The position taken by this *savant* contrasts prominently with that held by men across the water, like Huxley and Lubbock, who are using the most strenuous efforts to raise scientific training to the front rank of a liberal education.

—Maisonneuve & Co., of Paris, have undertaken a publication entitled 'Les Littératures Populaires de Toutes les Nations,' and comprising traditions, legends, songs, proverbs, riddles, and superstitions. The first volume, by Paul Sébillot (1881), is devoted to 'La Littérature orale de la Haute-Bretagne,' and contains a selection from all the above-mentioned classes of folk-lore. In addition to interesting local legends, many well-known popular tales here find variants and parallels. We can only mention one, "Le Colimaçon et le Renard," p. 237, which is a version of "How the Tortoise Outran the Deer" (Hartt's 'Amazonian Tortoise Myths,' p. 7), better known from Uncle Remus's inimitable chapter, "Mr. Rabbit finds his match at last." The second and third volumes (1881) contain 'Légendes Chrétiennes de la Basse-Bretagne,' collected by F. M. Luzel, whose labors in this field are already well known. Many interesting legends are given of Christ's journeys upon earth, some of which, as "Le Bon Dieu," "Le Sabotier et la Femme avare," p. 9, were previously known only through Italian versions (Bernoni's 'Tradizioni popolari veneziane,' p. 1). This is also true of a favorite class of legends, journeys to the other world (vol. i., pp. 216, 225, 254), hitherto known out of France only by Sicilian versions (Gonzenbach, No. 85, Pitrè, No. 111). Many of the legends are mixed up with fairy tales in a very curious manner, and show how popular tales are constantly undergoing change.

—We mention, out of its order, the fifth volume, 'Poésies populaires de la Gascogne,' by J. F. Bladé (1881), the first of several volumes. The present one is devoted to "Poésies religieuses et nuptiales," and is a valuable addition to French folk-songs. The fourth volume is in some respects the most interesting as well as the most novel. It contains 'Les Contes populaires de l'Égypte ancienne,' by G. Maspero (1882), and ought to find a ready welcome among those whom Ebers has interested in the every-day life of ancient Egypt. The stories it contains, seven complete, or nearly so, and six fragments, of little general interest, have all seen the light before in scientific periodicals, and one or two even in English magazines; but they are here gathered together for the first time, retouched by the editor, and prefaced with an interesting introduction, mainly devoted to a sketch of Egyptian life as depicted in the tales which follow. The best known is the first, "Le Conte des deux Frères," which offers many points of comparison with modern popular tales. A few such points are found in the other stories, as in "Le Prince prédestiné," p. 33, a common feature in fairy tales being the fairy godmother's imprecation of death to the child at a certain age from the prick of a needle, or spindle, etc. In the same story the princess is given to the one who can fly up to her window, which recalls the princess in modern stories bestowed on the suitor who leaps a stream, etc. ('Old Deccan Days,' p. 60). It weakens, of course, the theory of the Aryan origin of fairy tales to find these marked resemblances in a non-Aryan land. Maspero deems himself warranted in considering Egypt, if not one of the countries where popular tales had their origin, at least one of those where they first became naturalized, and where they assumed a really literary form. We may add that the volumes of the above series are charmingly printed in a limited edition, with ornamental letters, etc., and are bound in crimson cloth.

—The Roman correspondent of the Paris *Temps* states that the excavations recently made about the temple of Antoninus and Faustina, in the Forum, have not resulted in revealing fragments of the Fasti consulares, as was hoped, but have yielded a noble and curious recompense. In the Museum of the Capitol is preserved a fragment of the plan of Rome engraved in the time of Septimius Severus and of Caracalla—as has been computed, in the year 211. This relic was found some three hundred years ago in quite another place than the vicinity of the temple now being dug about, yet here has come to light another fragment which just fits it, and which represents the very section of Rome where it turns up. The older fragment had on it a part of the temple of Castor and Pollux; the new one completes this temple, and indicates a group of houses between it and the Palatine.

—A few weeks ago there died in the Russian province of Livonia a man almost entirely unknown to fame in Western Europe, who yet worked for the realization of a national scheme as gigantic as ever engaged the labor of a Charlemagne or a Peter the Great. His name was Jacobson, his occupation that of editor of a Dorpat journal, and his aim the transformation of all the north of the Russian Empire, from the Baltic Sea and the Gulf of Riga to the Ural Mountains, into a Finnic realm, ruled by the Czar as Monarch of all the Finns. Jacobson's paper, the *Saccala*, was published in the Esth, or Esthonian, dialect, which belongs to the Tchudic branch of the Finnic family of languages, embracing the Finnish proper (the language of Finland) and some minor idioms. Throughout his life he was active in awakening and fostering the sentiment of Finnic nationality among the Esths, a people of about 600,000 or 700,000 souls, forming the rural population of Esthonia and of parts of the neighboring Governments of Livonia, St. Petersburg, Pskov, and Vitepsk. These Esths were to form the great link between the Finlanders and the more eastern fragments of the Finnic race, as far north as the White Sea, and as far south as Moscow. Visionary and absurd as this scheme appears, Jacobson's activity was far from being devoid of influence. He powerfully contributed toward undermining the position of the ruling class in the provinces south of the Baltic, that of the landed proprietors of German and noble descent, availing himself of the coöperation of the levelling politicians of the Moscow school, who supported the movement as practically anti-Teutonic, instead of anti-Russian, and democratic. He founded educational, literary, and agricultural societies—all in the interest of the Esth husbandmen—secured the support of high official influence for his endeavors, accepted the aid of the Greek Church as against the Protestantism

of the German nobility, and carried his opposition to the latter to the verge of revolutionary agrarianism. He continued this agitation to the end of his life, and his funeral took place amid popular demonstrations.

—Dr. Brauns, in his 'Geology of the Environs of Tokio' (No. 4 of the *Memoirs of the Science Department* of the University of Tokio), has done a work for which the foreign residents in the capital and chief port of Japan, as well as native scholars and geologists, will be grateful. The immense cliff-cuttings at Kanagawa and Oji, which all tourists visit, are like open pages of the island's geological record; but, heretofore, only the initiated could read as they walked. The Tokio plain, stretching from the bay to the mountains in a rough semicircle eighty miles in radius, is of diluvial formation, its strata consisting of shale, sandstone, hard and loose conglomerate of enormous thickness, but with perfectly uniform fauna. Dr. Brauns assigns the whole of it to the Pliocene era. The determination of the age of this plain is of the highest importance, as its strata are found almost everywhere, not only in the maritime, but in the inland provinces of the Empire, the Tokio plain being the largest of all. The molluscous fauna of this plain he finds to be of a palæarctic character, and closely connected with that of prehistoric Europe, while among the larger animals are two species of elephants. He does not think that the Tokio plain has been covered with water within historic time. He is particularly careful not to commit himself to the dogmatic settlement of the question as to the antiquity of man in Japan. He mentions, but is very conservative with regard to, the alleged revelations of the Omori shell-heap, so well investigated by Prof. Morse, and treated of in a former Memoir of the University. Particularly fine are the illustrations of shells, and the maps and drawings by Mr. Hirauchi, a native artist; and the entire get-up of the book, printed and put together by native workmen, is highly creditable.

JOHN STUART MILL.

John Stuart Mill: A Criticism, with Personal Recollections. By Alexander Bain, LL.D., Emeritus Professor of Logic in the University of Aberdeen. London: Longmans; New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1882.

THOUSANDS of men now living owe a deep debt of gratitude to the teaching of Mill. They naturally desire to possess such a biography of their teacher as Stanley provided for the disciples of Dr. Arnold, or Mr. Trevelyan for the admirers of Lord Macaulay. Mr. Bain's 'John Stuart Mill' will, we regret to say, not prove anything like the life which Mill's followers wish for. The 'Criticism, with Personal Recollections,' is a book of some merit, for it gives in a precise and accurate form information which is of interest and value. But the author of the work is a Scotchman, a logician, and a grammarian. His treatise, therefore, is dull, pragmatical, and ill-written. It abounds in criticisms which might well have been shorter; it contains a small number of personal anecdotes of Mill, which, considering the writer's opportunities, might have been more numerous. A book of a totally different character, to a certain extent, supplies Mr. Bain's deficiencies. Miss Caroline Fox's 'Journals and Letters' have far too much individual flavor and character not to deserve notice on their own account. Their importance, however, for our present purpose is that they allow us to see that emotional side of Mill's nature which either was concealed from the scrutiny or escaped the analysis of the Aberdenian professor. Thus the 'Criticism' and the 'Memorials of Old Friends' supplement each other. They should be studied side by side with Mill's 'Liberty,' his 'Autobiography,' and his 'Essays on Religion.' Such study will enable a candid critic to obtain some insight into Mill's personal character, and hence to understand within certain limits the nature and the causes of two marked peculiarities in his intellectual and moral attitude as a thinker and a teacher. Our aim in this article is to point out the nature of these peculiarities. On another occasion we propose to show their close connection with the circumstances of Mill's life and education.

A first and unmistakable peculiarity of Mill's position is, that while he was the disciple and adherent of an emphatically dogmatic and unsympathetic body of thinkers, he was himself, throughout his career, bent on expanding the doctrines of his school so as to include ideas and sentiments many of them foreign to the Benthamite and Utilitarian creed. His function was, on his own view of it, the reconciliation of half-truths which were contradictory only so long as each of them was looked upon as the whole truth. The labor of his life might, if you take his own estimate, be defined as the reconciliation of the doctrines of the eighteenth century with the new truths or sentiments of the nineteenth. "The fight between the two eras always reminded me," he writes, "of the battle about the shield one side of which was white and the other black. I marvelled at the blind rage with which the combatants rushed upon one another. I applied to them and to Coleridge himself many of Coleridge's sayings about half-truths; and Goethe's device, 'many-sidedness,' was one which I would most willingly at this period [1830] have taken for mine." The *Westminster Review*, Mr. Bain tells us, "abounds [during Mill's editorship] in editorial *caveats*, attached to the articles; his principle of seeing partial truth on opposite sides was carried out in this form. . . . The watchword in those days of the *Review* was, Sympathize in order to learn. That doctrine, preached by Goethe and echoed by Carlyle, was in everybody's mouth, and had its fling." But if sympathy and reconciliation were the watchwords of the day, there was something markedly individual in the mode in which Mill gave expression to the ideas of 1830. He did not, as did many of his associates, consciously desert the principles of the eighteenth century. He attempted rather to enlarge the foundations of the system in which he was educated than to build up a rival scheme of doctrine. He held out a hand to Coleridge, but he never let go his grasp of Bentham. The result was remarkable. He did, as a matter of fact, unite in his own mind doctrines and sympathies rarely entertained by one and the same person. The theoretical basis of his ethical views remains to the end of his life Utilitarianism; but the doctrine of Bentham as developed by Mill runs very near to a doctrine of disinterestedness, and certainly has lost both the rigidity and the precision which it acquired in the hands of Austin. As a political economist, he remained a disciple of Ricardo; yet the strict dogmatism of the earlier economist is so expanded by Mill as to leave room for sympathy with socialism, and occasionally for something approaching toward toleration for protection. In politics, he remained a "philosophic Radical"; but his early belief in democracy became so modified by his dread, derived partly from De Tocqueville, lest the rule of the majority should encroach on individual freedom, as to display some affinity with Liberal-Conservatism.

The point in which he changed least is his logical and metaphysical doctrine. In this he remained the firm adherent of the dogmas in which he was educated. With this exception (which is for many reasons a most important one), Mill's efforts, whether consciously to himself or not, were directed toward the reconciliation of apparently opposed tendencies, as well of thought as of feeling. This aspect of Mill's teaching is well worth consideration. It assuredly immensely increased his influence during the period (say, roughly, 1850–1870) when his power over young and thoughtful men was at its height. The reaction against the eighteenth century had spent its force; the enthusiasm of the early Utilitarians for practical reforms had (partly because so many patent political evils had in fact been removed) cooled. The teacher who, holding to eighteenth-century modes of thought and reasoning, nevertheless sympathized with the feelings and the special enthusiasms of the nineteenth century, appeared the best and wisest of guides. His honesty was transparent. He was bound by no ties or prejudices of church, creed, or profession; he sought solely for the truth. Hundreds, therefore, came to him to learn what was true. Nor can any one who has felt Mill's influence deny, without the grossest ingratitude, that his influence was that of a thoughtful, noble, inspiring spirit. A man must have been singularly dead to some of the best feelings of youth who could (say, twenty or twenty-five years ago) have studied Mill's 'Logic' or 'Political Economy' without experiencing great intellectual improvement; or have read Mill's 'Liberty' without imbibing a spirit of generous enthusiasm for all that is best in human nature. If Mill was not in every respect the unrivalled teacher which he appeared to many of his youthful students, the cause of this is to be found in the second peculiarity of his genius.

This second feature, to which attention should be specially directed, is Mill's capacity for uniting in his own mind beliefs and sentiments which, in some cases at least, were united without being properly combined or fused together. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that this union without combination is, though Mill was quite unconscious of the fact, a characteristic of his system. He was far too honest and vigorous a thinker to hold together as true, opinions which he could not reconcile with each other. Wherever he perceived that such contrariety between his different views existed, he was assuredly prepared to admit with the utmost candor that his mind was not made up; but his mode of reconciling different tendencies of thought or sentiment was occasionally superficial. He further, especially when under the influence of strong feeling, at times advocated views which, if not fundamentally irreconcilable with each other, he never succeeded in fully reconciling because he did not perceive their inconsistency. It is difficult, for instance, to believe that any one but Mill himself can ever have felt that his attempt to reconcile the views of his father with the criticisms of Macaulay was satisfactory. Fewer still, we should suppose, can find, as Mill apparently found in Mr. Hare's scheme, a cure for all the possible perils of democratic tyranny. Mill, it should be noted, began life as a disciple of Bentham, and hence looked on the rule of the majority as a necessary guarantee for good government. From De Tocqueville and from his own speculations he derived the idea that the tyranny of the majority was a despotism no less to be feared than any other form of despotic rule. It would have seemed almost impossible for any man to admit as completely as did Mill the doctrines of De Tocqueville, and at the same time to retain his belief in the advantages of democratic government. For Mill, however, the difficulty was solved by Mr. Hare's admirable system of "Personal Representation." In this he saw "the greatest improvement of which the system of representative government is suscepti-

ble—an improvement which, in the most felicitous manner, exactly meets and cures the grand and what had before seemed the inherent defect of the representative system." Mill's acceptance of this solution is in many respects surprising. Bagehot's criticisms have rendered it very doubtful whether Hare's scheme would in fact achieve its immediate object. The oddity of the thing, however, lies in Mill's child-like trust in what at best is a mechanical device. In a democracy the majority are sovereign. Like any other sovereign, the majority may abuse their power. By no device whatever can both the minority and the majority be supreme. Mill, one would have thought, might have learned from Carlyle to distrust mechanical means for meeting moral difficulties. He must have been taught by Austin the lesson which he does not seem to have learned, that attempts to limit sovereignty are necessarily futile. That Mr. Hare's ingenious little device should have filled a man of Mill's intellect "with new and more sanguine hopes respecting the prospects of human society," is, take it all in all, one of the strangest and most noteworthy pieces of self-revelation which any autobiographer has ever left on record for the instruction of posterity.

Nothing, again, is more curious than the difference in tone between Mill's 'Liberty' and his essay on 'Nature.' This point, too, deserves careful examination. The whole thesis of Mill's 'Liberty' is the duty of leaving to each person the maximum of individual freedom compatible with the existence of society. "There is a sphere of action in which society as distinguished from the individual has, if any, only an indirect interest, comprehending all that portion of a person's life and conduct which affects only himself; or, if it also affects others, only with their free, voluntary, and undeceived consent and participation." Every form of argument and of illustration is used to prove that within this sphere each individual should be left completely uncontrolled by law, and but slightly controlled by social opinion. The advisability, further, of allowing free scope to individuality is based on the benefit of individual freedom to mankind at large.

"I forego," writes Mill, "every advantage which could be derived to my argument from the idea of abstract right as a thing independent of utility. I regard utility as the ultimate appeal in all ethical questions, but it must be utility in the largest sense, grounded on the permanent interests of a man as a progressive being. Those interests, I contend, authorize the subjection of individual spontaneity to external control only in respect to those actions of each which concern the interest of other people."

The assumption which underlies the whole train of reasoning by which Mill makes out his case is, that the "spontaneous," or, to use popular language, "natural," impulses and interests of mankind tend in the main to the benefit of humanity. The utilitarian defence of individual freedom, in common with most of the arguments in support of the principle of *laissez-faire*, rests upon a favorable or optimistic estimate of human nature. The case, for example, in favor of free trade rests on the assumption (in this instance a perfectly sound assumption) that if men are left free to exchange the products of their industry according to their own view of their own interests, this will tend to the good of mankind; the freedom of each will be the benefit of all. Hence free-traders such as Cobden, and preachers of universal *laissez-faire* such as Bastiat, have been confirmed optimists. What is true of a particular application of the principle of individual liberty is true of the general principle, that the protection of individual freedom is the best security for the general interests of the world. If the spontaneous or natural acts of men do not tend to the benefit of the human race, then the ground for leaving the spontaneous action of men as far as possible uncontrolled by law or custom is struck away from beneath the feet of a utilitarian. Mill, when defending liberty, is of necessity an optimist.

Now turn to the 'Essay on Nature.' Of the curious piece of inconsiderate rhetoric in which nature is denounced like a criminal at the bar, and in which we are told that "nearly all things for which men are hanged or imprisoned for doing to one another are nature's every-day performances," it is unnecessary to say more than to point to it as a proof that even the accuracy of Mill's language was sometimes affected by the force of passionate feeling. What ought to be noted, for our present purpose, is that he devotes pages of argument and rhetoric to demolishing the view of human nature which is popularly connected with the name of Rousseau. No Calvinist bent on proving the doctrine of original sin would go further than Mill in denouncing the idea that virtue is natural. By nature men are, as he asserts, neither truthful, nor just, nor humane, nor benevolent; we possess nothing better than the possibility of goodness. "The artificially created, or at best artificially perfected, nature of the best and noblest human beings is the only nature which it is ever commendable to follow." Can any one deny that this view of human nature, be it true or false, has a far greater affinity to pessimism than to any form of optimism? There is great difficulty in connecting it with any high hopes of the results to be obtained from individual freedom. If the natural and spontaneous action of man is thoroughly bad, the best thing for the majority of mankind must surely be that the mass of our species should be educated—that is, controlled—by the few higher spirits with whom Providence or fortune may from time to time bless the world. The 'Essay on Nature' leads up far more easily to the social, moral, and political doctrines of Carlyle than to the teaching of Mill's 'Liberty.'

No one will, of course, for a moment suppose that Mill's ingenuity could not have devised arguments by which to reconcile the dark view of human nature which pervades the 'Essay on Religion' with the most impressive defence of liberty that has ever been penned. He was far too acute a thinker to utter logical inconsistencies. Our contention is, not that Mill contradicts himself, but that there is a deep, not to say fundamental, difference of tone between the apology for freedom, which might have been the work of Bastiat, and the denunciations of human nature, which might have proceeded from Carlyle when hard-ridden by the hag dyspepsia. We further contend that such unconscious inconsistencies of sentiment are characteristic of Mill's writings. There exists a want of harmony between his intellectual theories and his feelings. This want of harmony can to a certain extent be explained by the combined action of his natural character and the peculiar circumstances of his life.

COX'S SECOND BATTLE OF BULL RUN.

The Second Battle of Bull Run, as connected with the Fitz-John Porter Case. A paper read before the Society of ex-Army and Navy Officers of Cincinnati, February 28, 1882. By Jacob D. Cox, late Major-General commanding Twenty-third Army Corps. Cincinnati: Peter G. Thomson. 1882. 12mo, pp. 124.

In this little book General Cox has presented some ingenious arguments in opposition to the conclusions arrived at by the Board of Officers (Generals Schofield, Terry, and Getty) who reexamined the case of General Porter. He seems to have felt it to be his duty to reiterate his belief in Porter's guilt, and he has applied himself diligently to the maintenance of the truth of this position. But we think a careful examination of his work will show that he has approached his task more in the spirit of an advocate than of a judge.

No better illustration of General Cox's method can be presented than his treatment of the first question of fact which he examines—"the question of the time of Longstreet's appearance on the 29th" of August, 1862. To those not familiar with the subject we may say that Porter maintained at his court-martial, and has always maintained since, that at or very soon after his arrival at Dawkins Branch—*i. e.*, a little before noon—he was confronted by the troops of Longstreet in position on the heights opposite; while General Pope, and others who have been convinced of Porter's misconduct, have insisted that Longstreet did not come up for several hours after, and that in the meantime Porter had in his front only a detachment of Stuart's cavalry.

General Stuart, who commanded the Confederate cavalry, and who was, on the morning of the 29th, on the extreme left of Jackson's position, tells us, in his official report, that in the forenoon of the 29th he rode over to confer with Lee and Longstreet, and that he "met with the head of Longstreet's column between Haymarket and Gainesville." If we can ascertain exactly when this rencontre took place, we shall be able, General Cox thinks, to form a correct estimate of the time it must have taken for Longstreet's troops to reach the field of battle.

The first thing to do, of course, is to find at what hour Stuart started. There was a little skirmish between his troops and those of Poe's brigade of Heintzelman's corps that morning, which Stuart mentions in his report, and which he says, in his 'Memoranda of Operations,' began about ten o'clock. Major White, of Stuart's staff, of whom General Cox says that he "seems to be one of the clearest and most consistent witnesses of the whole class" of Confederate officers, says in his testimony before the Board that the affair took place about "eight or nine in the morning." Poe says in his testimony that it took place at eleven. General Heintzelman's diary, cited by General Cox, simply says that he reached the field about ten in the morning, and that Kearney (Poe's division commander) was on the right. From this rather conflicting evidence General Cox concludes "that Stuart started from the scene of Poe's attack to find Longstreet, not earlier than half-past ten o'clock, and probably as late as eleven."

Having got him started, the next thing to do is to ascertain his rate of speed. Now, Stuart took with him a considerable body of cavalry, and General Cox assumes that he accompanied his troops in their march. He, therefore, says that we must take "into account the ordinary rate at which a large body of horse would move in marching." But Stuart, one would think, must have been very anxious that morning to see and communicate with Lee as soon as possible, and it seems rather absurd to suppose that he would limit his own rate of speed to that which his troops could attain. And Colonel Blackford, of Stuart's staff, testified that when the general and staff got in sight of Longstreet's dust they "*galloped ahead* to meet the column." This has evidently escaped General Cox's observation.

The next thing to be ascertained is the route which Stuart took. General Cox thinks that he "rode by way of Catharpin Valley around Jackson's rear, thence across the country to Gainesville, and [thence] out toward Thoroughfare Gap." Why General Stuart should have pursued this long and circuitous route is as puzzling to us as why he should have so carefully

limited the rapidity of his own movements to "the ordinary rate at which a large body of horse would move in marching." Nothing certainly could be more unlike that impetuous and dashing officer, and nothing could be more unsuited to the emergency as it must have presented itself to his mind that morning. But here, again, we are not left to our unaided common sense, adequate as that would seem to be to the decision of this point. Major White, of Stuart's staff, says in his testimony: "We moved off *across the country* to find out what had become of Longstreet's corps. We moved off in this way *toward Thoroughfare Gap.*" Colonel Blackford, also of Stuart's staff, says: "I think we did not follow the turnpike. The enemy were in strong force, and I think we avoided the turnpike, so as to strike *across the country.*"

The above ingenious suppositions enable General Cox to conclude that "it took Stuart (starting at eleven) *an hour and a half* to get to the point named, and that, therefore, the head of Longstreet's column was half way between Haymarket and Gainesville at half-past twelve, certainly not earlier than noon." It seems to matter nothing to General Cox what was the recollection of those officers who accompanied Stuart on this ride, but it may strike our readers differently. Blackford says he cannot fix exactly the hour. "The only thing I recollect about it is, that it was *early in the day.*" White says positively: "It was *about eleven o'clock.*"

This whole investigation is, as we shall point out presently, of no moment whatever as bearing on the time of Longstreet's arrival on the field; but as it gives an excellent notion of the method pursued by General Cox in this book, we have followed it with care, and we now drop the further consideration of it with the observation that if Stuart and his staff, as soon as the little skirmish with Poe was over—say, at half-past ten—had galloped across the country toward Haymarket (a distance of between five and six miles), they might easily have been there by eleven, or very shortly after.

But what has all this to do with the time of Longstreet's arrival? Why, this: that if the head of Longstreet's column had not proceeded beyond a point half way between Haymarket and Gainesville by twelve or half-past twelve o'clock, it could not have made connection with Jackson before half-past one. "The simple chain of evidence which leads to this conclusion," says General Cox, "seems decisive." Let us assume for the moment that this chain of evidence, which General Cox considers a simple one, does retard the time of Stuart's arrival to twelve or half-past twelve: there is another question to be answered here—Are we sure that it was really the *head* of Longstreet's column which Stuart saw when he got to the Haymarket and Gainesville road? That he saw the head of a column of troops passing by, and that those troops were Longstreet's, no one doubts; but that he saw then and there the very van of Longstreet's corps, we do most distinctly deny. Now, look at it: General John Buford, one of the best cavalry officers, certainly, that we ever had in our service, sent a despatch to General Ricketts, at half-past nine that morning, stating that seventeen regiments, one battery, and five hundred cavalry *had passed through* Gainesville three-quarters of an hour before; and he testified before the court-martial that he *saw* these troops himself, and made the report *from his own observation.* General Cox thinks his argument and chain of evidence, which we have given above, make this despatch of Buford absurd—a remark on which we forbear to comment. He also, in forgetfulness of Buford's testimony before the court-martial, says that his argument destroys the value of the despatch, except as evidence that Buford wrote it at half-past nine, *upon mistaken information.*

General Longstreet had with him that morning twelve brigades, in four divisions. That some one of these divisions was passing at the time when Stuart arrived, is no doubt the fact. But it was nothing to Stuart whether the column which he saw was the first or the fourth of Longstreet's divisions; and to rely so absolutely upon the accuracy of such a purely incidental statement, made by an officer who was not reporting about his own troops, is, to say the least of it, a very unusual thing in an historian. It is true that Colonel Blackford and Major White, of General Stuart's staff, assume that what they saw was the van of Longstreet's troops; but it does not appear that they made any inquiries as to the fact. They certainly gave no names of divisions or brigades.

To our mind, the truthfulness of Buford's despatch is in no way affected by General Cox's arguments. But Buford's testimony does not stand alone. Not only does Longstreet, in his official report, dwell upon the fact that the march was begun "early on the 29th," and "was quickened to the extent of our capacity," "the excitement of battle" seeming "to give new life and strength to our jaded men," but he says distinctly, "the head of my column *soon* reached a position in rear of the enemy's left flank." This word "soon" must be taken in connection with the phrase "early on the 29th," and it certainly could not have meant half-past one in the afternoon. Jones, who commanded one of Longstreet's divisions, and who in the course of the afternoon, as is admitted, was in front of Porter, says, in his official report, that he arrived on the ground about noon. We have no report from Kemper, who commanded the next division to Jones's; but Corse, who commanded one of his brigades, says, in his report, that his brigade "halted about three miles east of Gainesville about twelve o'clock." And there is more of this testimony, from the Confederate reports, to the same effect—testimony not given with reference to any controversy on the subject, and therefore the best we can obtain.

The criticism we make on General Cox's performance is that he does not take up these detached questions, such as the time of Longstreet's arrival, as he would do if they were not connected with this Porter controversy. Whether Longstreet arrived sooner or later is a question by itself, and it was something with which General Porter had certainly nothing in the world to do. Granted that the evidence on this point given before the Board of Officers is, all of it, or much of it, more or less colored by their sentiments in regard to Porter's conduct, no such thing can be said of Buford's despatch, or of Longstreet's or Jones's reports. Were an essay to be written solely on the time of Longstreet's arrival, without reference to its bearing on Porter's case, can any one suppose that the method which we have seen has been followed by General Cox would be pursued by a merely historical scholar? Can any one imagine a practical man, accustomed to weighing evidence, reaching his conclusion by ignoring the statements of a thoroughly competent eye-witness, and the official reports of the generals who led their troops to the field, and by relying entirely on the incidental statement of an officer who met the columns on the march?

We are not arguing, and do not propose to argue, the case of General Porter. We are simply criticising General Cox's methods of investigating some of the facts of the case. In his treatment of Porter's conduct on the afternoon of the 29th, General Cox puts the case against him with considerable force. But he does not seem to us to take into account two things—first, that the discovery of the advent of Longstreet upon the field changed the whole scope of the day's work, for the Joint Order implied that no battle was to be fought against the Confederate army when united; and, secondly, that Porter expected that whatever movement he was to make was to depend upon communication being established, by means of the intervention of McDowell's corps, between his isolated left wing and the rest of the army. That this communication was to be established between the two corps of McDowell and Porter and the rest of the army was the very purport of the Joint Order; that its establishment was to precede active operations by either of them was, we submit, a necessary inference. For this Porter waited. Whether he might not, while waiting, have done more in the way of reconnoissance or of demonstration is a question on which, no doubt, something may be said; but that his duty was to wait, and not, isolated as he was, to fight, there seems to be really no question.

BOWNE'S METAPHYSICS.

Metaphysics. A Study of First Principles. By Borden P. Bowne, Professor of Philosophy in Boston University. Harper & Brothers. 1882. Pp. 534.

For those interested in pure metaphysics, and not familiar with Lotze's views of ontology and cosmology, this will prove a work of great freshness and utility. The author's mind is saturated with the principles of his late celebrated master, to whose memory the book is dedicated, and from whom he rarely deviates, save to specify and illustrate—a relation in which the importance and amount of the latter is sure to seem greater to a writer than to the kindest of candid readers. The charm of Lotze, at least up to his latest years, lay very largely in his poise and temperance, which made him abhor all extremes, novelties, and smartnesses, and which was so great that he preferred to see even the belief in central personality clung to by the heart, although, perhaps, unrecognized there, than to have it demonstrated by the most coercive arguments. Our author, on the contrary, borrowing from Leibnitz, Herbart, and even Spinoza, the now all but universally discredited ideal that metaphysical deductions may approach those of mathematics in certainty and absoluteness of method, is not, like Lotze, content with a balance of probabilities, but postulates the very highest degree of certainty, and urges that possibility is merely a name for our ignorance. Else "reason is overthrown," "all science and knowledge are impossible," "all trust in mind and its products is broken down," the universe is "reduced to a rigid, stony stare," or a "scandal in philosophy," or a relapse to a "palæozoic age of thought, etc."—is the awful alternative, pointed out not once, but probably scores of times, till, as the argument is gathered in along so many converging radii toward the central abyss of personality, the average senior must have felt at last, in listening, that by hesitation in believing he would write himself down—not so much a sceptic or heretic as a fool; for happily the crack is from the whip of the schoolman and not of the theologian. Lotze had no anxieties lest thought should "commit suicide," and the "Americanization" of such vital portions of his system in this way we cannot regard as an unmixed good for philosophy, or even for religious opinion in this country just now; while we might safely appeal to the many pupils of Lotze now among us to say if anything could have been more distasteful to him than to have lived to see his well-organized subjunctives and persuasive optatives stiffened into rigid apodictics, as is done so systematically here.

Again, although this was not the "note" even of the great masters, we live in a day when philosophers have already felt the need, and are just beginning to feel the strength, of some sort of solidarity and consensus, wherein each contributes his part in a specialized field all over which far more questions than answers are now arising. Most thinkers now fear nothing more than premature conclusions, and are learning to enjoy what logic so rigorously requires—viz., keeping the great critical questions of the race as wide open as possible, for fear of surface healing—and are extremely anxious to exhaust every historical contribution or element in all matters before they are allowed to come to utterance. But our author reasons his way up and down the universe and the history of thought with a bravado and *abandon* of dogmatic mechanical ratiocination which discards all *nuances* and perspective as well as uncertainty, and which, in candor, though in sorrow, the critic must set down as philosophic intemperance, facilitated probably, though unconsciously, by the exigencies of religious discussion, the environment of the author's training, and certainly by a somewhat imperfect and fragmentary study of the history of philosophy, a still more imperfect understanding of speculative physics, and a most imperfect one of experimental and comparative psychology.

Much, however, as we object to his spirit and methods, and regret that, like speculative minds everywhere, our author finds it so much easier to think straight and freely out than to read, we cordially welcome his book as the best Lotzean volume in English, and as not entirely lacking in independence and originality. Many new devices, eddies, and side-lights, new logical "holds and trips," in wrestler's phrase, and a style which, though very diffuse and "protracted," has the rare merit of clearness to such a degree that the present writer can think of no book which brings so many metaphysical profundities, mediæval and modern, within so easy range of intelligences of so average an order—these are merits at the same time great and striking, and reveal a mind of a very high order of dialectic subtlety, and a rare skill in hitting off happy antitheses and pointed phrases that often bring real illumination while they often dazzle and confuse. The sometimes almost thrilling boldness and hardihood of assertion, where so many of the wisest now fear to tread at all, is quite in the spirit of German thought of half a century ago, and, in the philosophical renaissance upon which we are so rapidly entering, is to be expected with the rest. Really objectionable is only the choice and probably well-tested anthology of satirical fragments, from which selections never fail when H. Spencer, evolution, or physiological psychology is met with, although this is mainly a matter of taste, or perhaps of effectiveness in the class-room.

Although the truth of the belief in bottom intelligence and freedom in the world is "a matter of life and death to all philosophy and rational science," we are assured that this belief is treated so theoretically that "its practical value is slight" (p. 172). Nothing could be more at variance with every modern system that we know, whether of psychology, ethics, or logic (notably in the case of Lotze, Sigwart, and Wundt, to instance three of the latest and best), than the kind of separation here and elsewhere implied between the theoretic and practical reason. Kant's authority can surely not be appealed to; for our author is concerned throughout with the two "practical" ideas of God and freedom, which are made to cover in an indistinguishable way most of the theoretic field, Kant's conception being set aside in one instance as "the crudest possible" (inherence, p. 374.) In a score of different ways and writers, apperceptive thought is now identified with will, and all unpractical thought, using the word only in a fairly philosophic sense, is pretty sure to be unreal, contradictory, or fatuous.

A few of the points that are well and clearly put are—in the ontology, the difference between the order of impressions and the order of reason; the argument that no definite thing can come by reason from an indefinite; that generic being is a mental datum, a class notion only; that the nature of a thing is the law of its activity, and it has no rigid core of being in it; that the impersonal is ever changing, but only personal consciousness which makes or reveals identity can join change and permanence; that even impact is mysterious without a deeper than spatial relation, and that no interaction is possible save through a coördinating omnipresence; that substance is agent; that the homogeneous, which Spencer calls unstable, is the only thing stable, and without ground for advance or differentiation;—in the cosmology, that things are not spatial, but that by their interactions they give rise to the appearance of a world of extended things in space, for if space is real it must be active; that time is a thought-product, and that change is all; the discussion of Zeno's paradoxes of motion; and that atoms are acts of the infinite.

Broadly considered, the work is a series of special, often agonistic, arguments, direct and indirect, for personality and its implications; but, the most generic assent once yielded, the author is agnostic enough. Purpose is admitted to be inscrutable; the problem of evil seems inexplicable consistently with it, etc. Indeed, personality with him serves precisely like the will, the Unconscious, the idea, etc., in other well-known systems, as the big snarl into which all other knots and tangles of the skein are resolved, as in fact they may be with less intellectual effort than into any other. But resolving residual obscurities into one phrase or generic term does not tend to make it simple, still less give warrant to worship the phrase as a fetish; any more than tuning the discords of an organ into one key changes the accumulated discords into harmony of a supernal order. A point is gained if the latter key be the one least used; and so, too, the relegation of obscurities from the practical spheres into speculative fields, and dumping them there where they can least confuse action, is always a practical good of metaphysical endeavor, provided only that dogma and moral sanction are not derived from this central chaos of agnosticism. The great fact, now ignored, now disparaged throughout this work, is, that we really know and understand all that is only from its genesis and that of our knowledge of it, and from its practical bearings, since the former arises from the latter. Psychology is disparaged in the distinction between the how and why, or the ground and the cause of belief, and the subordination of the former instead of the latter; and ethics is arbitrarily postponed when its elements are, to say the very least, as much needed and indeed present in determining the existence of a divine person as in exploring his purposes. Upon his existence one may insist no less strongly than the author, yet all the more keenly regret that he so dispraises the argument from the consensus, history, instincts, and duties of men upon which this belief must forever rest and be debated, and has suspended the divine upon so fine a metaphysical thread, with so many technicalities and such disquieting and repeated indictments of common sense, that the uninitiated, while they must doubt their own grounds of belief, must at the same time despair of attaining his.

The work as a whole stands in the same relation to Lotze's 'Metaphysik' and a part of the 'Logik' that Mr. John Fiske's 'Cosmic Philosophy' stands to Spencer's system in general. The greater assumption of originality in the former case at first seemed a serious problem as we compared master and pupil topic by topic. The illusion was, however, without doubt perfectly sincere and indeed natural; for it is due, we are convinced, to the fact that the more subjective the data and inferences, the greater was the inward feeling of independence and freedom in the disciple.

Egyptian Obelisks. By Henry H. Gorringe, Lieut.-Commander U.S.N. New York: Published by the Author, at 32 Waverley Place. 1882. Small folio. Pp. x.–187. Illustrations.

THIS imposing volume proves that, whatever may have been Captain Gorringe's prime motive in removing "Cleopatra's Needle," he ended by becoming deeply absorbed in the study of the class of monuments to which the obelisk now in Central Park belongs. The dyer's hand was never more surely subdued to what it worked in. In this respect, so far as one can see, the contractor was superior to his employer, for Mr. Vanderbilt, though a well-known patron of the fine arts in certain directions, does not appear to have cared particularly for the obelisk of which he bore the expense of transportation in so public-spirited a manner. We do not refer to the fact that he took not the slightest risk in the enterprise, and agreed for payment on delivery as if so many tons of railroad iron were in question. This was also the case with Prof. Erasmus Wilson, when contracting for the erection of the sister obelisk on the Thames Embankment. But Mr. Wilson, as his book testifies, felt a genuine enthusiasm in the subject from an antiquarian point of view.

The work before us is in seven chapters, of which the first two are devoted to the New York obelisk, and are, of course, from Captain Gorringe's own pen. His, also, are the sixth and seventh chapters—the "Record of All Egyptian Obelisks" and "Notes on the Ancient Methods of Quarrying, Transporting, and Erecting Obelisks." The eighth, an "Analysis of Materials and Metals found with the Obelisk at Alexandria," has been edited by Prof. Persifor Frazer. The intermediate chapters, on the removal of the Luxor obelisk to Paris and of the fallen obelisk to London, and on the reërection of the Vatican obelisk, have been contributed by Captain Gorringe's associate, Lieut. Seaton Schroeder, and are eminently readable. The main interest, however, centres in the opening chapter, which gives the history of each step in an undertaking whose arduousness is even here but imperfectly set forth. The style is perhaps not that of a practised writer, but it has the quality of the man, and, while always modest, is graphic, racy, pointed, energetic, as the theme demands. We are told, of the transportation of the trunnions through the streets of Alexandria, that the Arabs "wisely selected the Christian Sabbath for the day to move them, owing to the diminution of traffic on that day. . . . For this an American missionary roundly abused us from a borrowed pulpit, and took advantage of the occasion to denounce the removal of the obelisk as a work of the devil." Further, as the Mohammedan and Christian Sabbaths are on different days, "it was impossible to respect both; and a respect for the opinions of both sects led to the rule that the work would be carried on without intermission, and that the workmen were at liberty to select their own Sunday and observe it in their own fashion." The Arab Mohammedans and Maltese "spent Friday, their Sabbath, in a rational manner, sleeping during the early

part of the day, attending services at the mosque at noon, and devoting the afternoon to social intercourse and amusement. The Christians, almost to a man, would devote the thirty-six hours from Saturday evening to Monday morning in drinking, gambling, fighting, and other excesses, and return to work drunk, sleepy, and bruised." Later, we read that "the engineers [of the *Dessoug*] were useful, hard-working, hard-drinking men. The quartermasters would do credit to a pirate's crew." As a final example, take this reply to the protests against the vandalism of removing the obelisk :

"Originally designed to symbolize the highest attribute of nature, the re-creative power; forming an essential feature of one of the most famous temples ever erected by man, in which Moses was educated, and of which he became a high-priest; the votive offering of one of the most celebrated Pharaohs, and bearing the records of another equally celebrated, the obelisk had become a Roman trophy to commemorate the subjugation of Egypt, and was threatened either with destruction by neglect, or preservation as a means of advertising a hotel or apartment-house. . . . Some objection has been made to removing it from its 'antique surroundings.' The most prominent surroundings in Alexandria were a railway depot, a new apartment-house, and an Arab fort."

Captain Gorringe's troubles began and ended on this side of the water, where one might have looked for fair if not generous dealing, and entire good-will, in consideration both of his character as an officer of the Navy and of the public object he had in view. Thousands of dollars were needlessly added to his expenses abroad by reason of interested opposition by foreign residents and by the Government officials; but "squeezing" and official hindrances were reëncountered the moment the *Dessoug* came to anchor in the North River, and fresh delays that might easily have been spared enhanced the pecuniary burden of the contractor, and put once more to the test his remarkable powers of resistance, patience, and persistence. The foresight displayed from beginning to end by Captain Gorringe is rendered even more admirable by the way in which the unforeseen —both physical and moral—was met and triumphed over in spite of defective resources and of every combination of chicanery, falsehood, extortion, and misdirected hostility like that of which the French and German archæologists were guilty, and which is severely censured on page 120 of this volume.

In two respects the contents will disappoint expectation : the interpretation of the inscriptions on the obelisk appears to be still uncertain, and the supposed masonic emblems found under the pedestal are partly explained away, and partly left open to conjecture. Some design is apparent in their collocation, but the early belief in their symbolism has apparently been shaken by competent archæological scrutiny. The illustrations are abundant, no less than fifty-one occupying a full page, and the majority of them being artotypes from nature, of which the excellence depends upon that of the original negative. Some are extremely fine, and all are interesting. The Roman specimens in that city of obelisks are grouped upon one page. Careful mechanical drawings exhibit the apparatus and *modus operandi* for the New York and other transported obelisks, and make clear even to the lay mind the originality and superiority of the brilliant engineering devised in the former case. There are also photographic portraits of Mr. Vanderbilt and of the ex-Khedive and his successor; but that of Captain Gorringe shines by its effacement. The presswork is, barring a few typographical lapses, highly creditable to the press of the Messrs. Putnam; and genuine taste has been shown by the author in his selection of designs to be stamped upon the sides of the cover.

Charles Lamb. By Alfred Ainger. [English Men of Letters.] Harper & Bros. 1882. 12mo, pp. 182.

THIS well-made and workmanlike volume will be welcomed by all who confess

> "A love that is not sham
> For Stothard, Blake, and Lamb,"

as Mr. Locker sings in one of his "London Lyrics." Not a few of us are ready with Macaulay to say of Lamb that "we cherish his memory as much as if we had known him personally." It is the great merit of the present volume that it will lead those who may not know him into making his acquaintance. Indeed, Mr. Ainger's book is of greater utility than certain of its predecessors in the same series, and there was a louder call for it. Johnson, and Scott, and Gibbon, and Goldsmith have told their lives or had them told in books known even to the hastiest "general reader"; but Lamb, whose place in the glorious company of English men of letters is as secure as theirs, had no Boswell, and has not yet had a Forster or a Lockhart. Talfourd's biographical matter is contained in two overlapping and disconnected books; Barry Cornwall's sketch is brief and personal; the rest is silence. Thus it happened that although Lamb was a familiar figure to those that love him—for the books that contain his writings and his sayings and his doings are not many, after all—there was no single volume telling the simple story of his life in straightforward fashion. This want is now supplied.

Mr. Ainger prefixes a list of "authorities consulted," in which we note only one omission of any importance. This is the 'William Godwin and his Friends' of Mr. C. Kegan Paul (2 vols., 1877). In this interesting and authoritative work are to be found many letters of Lamb's to Godwin, most of them bearing upon the drama in general, and in particular upon the plays and plots of plays which Godwin presented for Lamb's criticism. These letters would have served to enrich Mr. Ainger's chapter on "Dramatic Authorship and Dramatic Criticism." Moreover, neither Mr. Ainger nor any other writer on Lamb has ever commented on the fact reported by Mary Lamb in a letter to Mrs. Hazlitt, written in 1808 (two years after the damning of "Mr. H."), that Tom Sheridan invited Lamb to "write some scenes in a speaking pantomime, the other parts of which Tom now, and his father formerly, manufactured between them." Richard Brinsley Sheridan has been charged with the authorship of the spectacular "Blue Beard," but the making of speaking pantomimes is nowhere else recorded of the author of the "School for Scandal." The offer to Lamb is significant as showing that the managers of the theatre had still a belief in Lamb's dramatic faculty. This chapter of Mr. Ainger's on Lamb's theatrical experience is admirably done. Excellent also are the remarks on the unfortunate influence that the close companionship of brother and sister had on each, and especially on the more highly-gifted brother. Quite as good is the calm consideration of the brutal slur to be found in Carlyle's 'Reminiscences.' In general, Mr. Ainger's handling of all the vexed questions and delicate points is praiseworthy in the extreme. All that his book lacks is a little of Lamb's own humor and a little more of Lamb's charm of style.

Men and Events of My Time in India. By Sir Richard Temple, Bart., late Governor of Bombay. London. 1882.

THAT British rule in India was a marvellous and beneficent success, has long been accepted as an unquestionable article of faith by the majority of the English nation. But any student of history who cares to devote a little thought to the matter will speedily arrive at the conclusion that if British rule in India were the success which by Englishmen it is represented to be, it would be a perennial miracle—as direct a violation of the laws of nature as if water should flow up a hill. This at least is certain : in practical sagacity or in morality the Englishmen who, at any time, have been carrying on the government of India cannot have been in advance of the men who were carrying on the government of the Empire at home. And nothing is clearer in English history than this : that, but for the popular pressure brought to bear upon them, the governing classes would not have reformed anything, but would to this day be clinging, as to so many rocks of salvation, to the Corn Laws, the Irish Catholic Disability Laws, rotten boroughs, and the most antiquated prejudices of all kinds. The official mind never admits the wisdom or the desirability of change in that which is. It has to be violently dragged or propelled forward, and never ceases to invoke "the wisdom of our forefathers"—of the Saxon, the Dane, and the Norman—as a sufficient justification in favor of complete immobility. In India, of course, the English officials were absolutely free from any popular pressure. If any native of the country were sufficiently misguided to suppose that he might play the part of a Cobden or a Bright, he would very speedily find himself inside a prison, as a rebel against a paternal government. Add to this, that the Englishman differs from the native in every particular in which it is possible for one man to differ from another—in language, in religion, in education, in social customs, in color, in modes of thinking; that the Englishman regards the native as intellectually so inferior to himself that he will not allow him any participation in the government of the country; and the proposition that two hundred millions of people could be successfully governed under such conditions as these will, we think, be apparent in all its naked absurdity. For in rejecting the counsel and assistance of the natives in the work of governing India—in making no provision for ascertaining the popular feeling about any matter whatever—the English in India cut themselves off from the possibility of obtaining accurate knowledge about the country they are attempting to rule. They legislate in the dark, and they are equally in the dark as to the results of such legislation as they attempt.

How, then, arose this baseless legend of the beneficent results of British rule in India? It arose in this way: Englishmen believe, as though it were an axiomatic proposition, that if they undertake to govern any country, they must do the business better than the people of that country could do it for themselves. We see this faith illustrated in the case of Ireland. For seven hundred years the English have been trying to govern Ireland, and the history of the human race has not a more dismal and disastrous failure to record. Even Englishmen are at last beginning dimly to perceive that they have failed; but they maintain as confidently as ever that if the Irish had been allowed to regulate their own destinies, they would have failed still more disastrously. A similar *à-priori* conviction has been of yeoman's service to the English nation in regard to India. Whatever crimes or blunders may have been proved against the British Government, the Englishman lightly waves them away with the assertion that under native rule they would have been far more numerous and intense.

A nation in this frame of mind naturally lends a credulous ear to books such as this of Sir Richard Temple which we are now reviewing. It forms part of an abundant literature—the writings of old Indian officials recording their own astonishing achievements. Like all its predecessors, it

is written in a strain of unrelieved panegyric. The retired Indian official is far too wary to criticise unfavorably the work of any of his contemporaries, lest they in retaliation should turn upon and rend him. He eulogizes them all round, and then it is an understood thing that they, when occasion offers, shall do the like for him. Acting upon this ancient precedent, Sir Richard Temple can see nothing but what was entirely excellent in the "men and events of his time in India." Men whose characters and whose principles had not a single point of resemblance were, according to him, a happy band of brothers who never failed in anything they undertook; working upon wholly diverse principles, by some occult but happy magic their labors invariably ended in the same result—the growth of India in happiness and material prosperity. For, if we are to judge from the works of the retired Indian official, it is the remarkable property of the natives of India to be always improved if brought under the supervision of an inhabitant of Great Britain. It makes no difference, in that respect, whether the operator be Lord Dalhousie, Lord Canning, Lord Lawrence, Lord Mayo, or Lord Lytton. It is, of course, pleasant to the self-love of the British people to be assured of such things by those who ought to know, but it is needless to say that the picture is greatly overdrawn. As contributions to the history of British rule in India, the untrustworthiness of such books as this of Sir Richard Temple cannot be too emphatically insisted upon. The writer avoids the hard, unpleasant fact with as sedulous a care as the navigator avoids a rock. This, of course, cannot always be done without his being committed to statements which are not merely half-truths, but positive untruths. To expose all the inaccuracies of either kind which are to be found in Sir Richard Temple's book would require a volume as large as itself. We will content ourselves with a single instance, which we can assure our readers is a fair sample of the many we have not space to refute.

It may be asserted without fear of contradiction, that no act of either Clive or Warren Hastings was more infamous than Lord Dalhousie's enforced cession of the province of Berar from the Nizam of Hyderabad. The following are the terms in which Sir Richard Temple relates this dishonorable transaction:

"Berar, though not annexed, was brought permanently under British administration by a treaty with the Nizam. This measure was necessary in order to defray the charges of the Hyderabad contingent, a body of troops absolutely needed for preserving order within the Nizam's dominions, and for curbing the unruly bands of foreign mercenaries which had during the course of many years been collected by His Highness' authority. The British Government had from time to time advanced large sums for the pay of the contingent, until the debt reached a stage when a settlement for the past and a material security for the future became indispensable. The Nizam then signed the treaty whereby he made over the administration of Berar to the British Government, retaining his titular sovereignty, and being entitled to receive the surplus . . . after the expense of governing the province had been de rayed. There was no alternative left except that of taking over territory; the troubles in the Nizam's Government, having . . . thickened during many years, at length reached a stage when his relations with the British Government were compromised, and his state imperilled."

This is Sir Richard Temple's version of the affair. Now let us take note of the fact as it really was. The Hyderabad contingent was a force which the British Government was bound by treaty to maintain at its own expense, for the preservation of order in the Nizam's dominions. Nevertheless, the British Government had, since its embodiment, compelled the Nizam to pay the entire expenses of this force, and in 1853 Lord Dalhousie compelled that sovereign to cede the province of Berar as a material guarantee for the cost of the contingent in future. There can be no question about this; for at the very time that he was coercing the Nizam into ceding his territory, Lord Dalhousie frankly acknowledged in his private correspondence that the claim on the Nizam was a dishonest one:

"I have found myself forced," he says, "to the conclusion that the Government of India *has no right whatever, either by the spirit or the letter of the treaty of* 1850, to require the Nizam to maintain the contingent in its present form. . . . *Neither the words nor the intention of the treaty can be held to warrant such a construction of its obligations.*"

Again, Sir Richard says: "There was no alternative left except that of taking over territory," because the British Government had advanced large sums for the pay of the contingent, which the Nizam had been unable to defray. This statement is so made as to be altogether misleading. At the time that Lord Dalhousie exacted the cession of Berar, the debts due to the Nizam from the British Government were in excess of the sums advanced for the pay of the contingent. Of this fact, also, there can be no question, because it is asserted by the (then) British Resident at the court of Hyderabad. "I have always been of opinion," wrote Colonel Davidson, "that had the pecuniary demands of the two Governments been impartially dealt with, we had no just claim against the Nizam."

Again, Sir Richard Temple says that Berar was "brought *permanently* under British administration." This is true, as a matter of fact; but Sir Richard is careful to omit all mention of the circumstance that, although menaced with war in the event of his refusal, the Nizam would not consent to the cession required of him until the British Government had pledged its good faith that the cession was only "temporary." It is needless to say that this pledge has since been set at naught. The crowning element of baseness in this nefarious transaction remains to be told: so long as the Nizam defrayed the expenses of the contingent, its annual cost was £400,000; when the British Government had to defray them from its own revenues, this amount was immediately reduced to £100,000.

La Réforme au XVIe Siècle. Études et Portraits. Par Auguste Laugel. Paris: E. Plon. 1881. 8vo, pp. 393.

THE activity of the French Protestants in literary and historical directions is great beyond all proportion to their numbers. Less than one million souls in a population of over thirty-six millions, the record of their efforts during the past six years toward the complete illumination of the early history of their church shows a surprising degree of energy and success. Just as the history of those early days of Protestantism cannot be divided sharply into a political and a religious narrative, so this record of publications presents a series of works as interesting to the general student of history as to one working in the special field of religious development. The central point of this activity is the *Société de l'Histoire du Protestantisme Français*, now in the thirty-first year of its existence. Its purpose is to encourage—by means of yearly meetings, prizes for essays, assistance to publication, and by its own *Bulletin* and library in Paris—every undertaking in this peculiar field.

The work of the past few years in Protestant history has furnished to M. Auguste Laugel, favorably known as the author of several collections of essays, the material for a new volume whose title we give above. We have here eight essays, each of which is a review of some more detailed publication, and of which all but the last are connected by a thread of common interest—slender enough, it is true, in some parts, but sufficiently strong to justify the title. The first three are devoted to three of those women who played so marked a part in the storms of that most tempestuous period. The first of these is Éléonore de Roye, the long-suffering and devoted wife of the Prince of Condé. The sketch of her touching fidelity to the cause of "the religion," and to the husband whose levity of character alone prevented him from becoming the acknowledged head of French Protestantism, is founded upon the recently published life of the Princess by Count Delaborde. It throws out into prominence the critical moments of a short but troubled life, passed, in the midst of the wildest partisan contests, in calm faith and heroic courage such as have rarely been equalled.

The career of Jeanne d'Albret, the mother of King Henry IV., leads us out of the atmosphere of patient suffering for the faith into more stirring scenes of active diplomacy and military conflict. Daughter of the King of Navarre, and niece of the King of France, her marriage was a turning-point of diplomatic relations between France, Spain, and Germany for many years. M. Laugel sketches very neatly the course of the negotiations by which this proud woman with a will of her own was at first forced into a sham marriage with the Duke of Cleves in order to alienate this prince, together with his neighbors of the Rhine, from the imperial cause, and finally, left to her own choice, selected Antony of Bourbon rather than have for a sister-in-law a daughter of the King's mistress. Of her life as an ardent supporter of the reformed faith we hear but little.

The third figure in this most attractive group is Louise de Coligny, daughter of the great admiral, widow of his ardent admirer and follower, the young and brilliant Téligny, and then wife and widow of William the Silent. The sphere of her far-reaching political relations is defined by the mere mention of the great men among whom her lot was cast: Coligny, the purest and brightest name in the Huguenot annals; Teligny, the model of a chevalier, already an accomplished and valued diplomat—both murdered in cold blood, perhaps before the very eyes of the daughter and wife; finally, the sombre figure of William of Orange, a man of fifty, widower for the third time, father of nine daughters and two sons, of whom the elder was kept a prisoner in Spain. Within fifteen months after his marriage with Mme. Téligny, he too fell a victim to partisan hatred, and his widow was left with the cares of a numerous family and of the political interests of the House of Orange in Holland. Her letters, from which M. Laugel gives numerous extracts, reveal the complicated nature of the political world into which she was there thrown, and form the basis of the whole sketch.

A large part of these letters were addressed to Henri de la Tour, Vicomte de Turenne, afterward by his marriage Duc de Bouillon, who is the subject of the fourth essay. Turenne's part in the disorders accompanying the last days of Henry IV. and the early years of his successor is so important, that the effort to compress into one short sketch so wide and so various relations renders this the least interesting and satisfactory part of the book. We are hurried from one catastrophe to another with such breathless speed that the main line of action is easily lost out of sight.

'The Swiss Regiments in the Wars of Religion', is the subject of a work by Segesser, of which M. Laugel gives an interesting abstract. It is to be regretted that the details of marches and campaigns should have been allowed to obscure the more important matters of the diplomatic

dealings between France and the cantons, and the peculiarities of the Swiss as distinguished from other soldiers.

The most interesting of these essays is that upon the general character of the religious wars of the sixteenth century in France. It is most interesting because M. Laugel allows us here to see more of himself. He analyzes a recent work of the Viscomte de Meaux, 'Les Luttes religieuses en France au Seizième Siècle,' and presents a view of the problems there dealt with which differs materially from that of his author. M. de Meaux is an ardent Catholic, though he endeavors to do justice to the bravery and devotion of the hostile faction. M. Laugel tries to amend the impression thus produced by presenting either a Protestant or at least an impartially historical interpretation of the same phenomena. Especially good is the analysis of the motives of the Protestant party, by which it is made to appear that toleration was not their object. Both parties failed utterly to comprehend the possibility of two religions living side by side in the same state. The Protestants paid the penalty of this shortness of view by annihilation. The Catholics suffered from the same error by incurring all the evils of unchecked supremacy.

Exactly why the seventh essay should have been called "La Réforme en Hollande" one fails to understand, seeing that it contains scarcely a word on that subject. It is a review, in the form of an abstract, of Dr. Holmes's memoir of J. L. Motley, with an occasional reference to the historian's judgment of men and events. As to the eighth and last essay, M. Laugel has deemed an explanation necessary to account for its appearance in this volume. "Le Duel de Marie de Médicis et de Richelieu" carries us well beyond the period of the Reform. It rests upon a work by Paul Henrard, 'Marie de Médicis dans les Pays-Bas,' and attempts to summarize the very complicated diplomatic relations growing out of the voluntary exile of the Queen-mother.

To speak of the volume as a whole, it commends itself to the very large class of readers who prefer to study history through the medium of magazine reviews. If, as we have found here, the condensed narrative fails to give a vivid picture of men and motives, it is less the fault of M. Laugel than of the method he has adopted.

History of the United States of America under the Constitution. By James Schouler. Vol. ii. 1801–1817. Washington, D. C.: Wm. H. Morrison. 1882.

Mr. Schouler's work, the first volume of which we reviewed in January, is now completed to the end of Madison's second administration. The second volume covers, most satisfactorily, the interesting and important period of the Louisiana purchase, the embargo, and the war of 1812—the period which in reality made the United States a nation in its domestic as well as in its foreign relations. The strong points of the first volume—its realism, its close use of contemporary periodical literature, and its attention to the personality of the actors on the public stage—are even further developed in this volume, nearly one-sixth of which is devoted to an exhaustive sketch of the United States in 1809, the political institutions, resources, and religious, literary, and social characteristics of the people. The author has also been exceptionally fortunate in striking a new lead in a period whose authorities were, to all seeming, already worked out: he has obtained access to the undigested and inedited mass of the Monroe correspondence in the Department of State at Washington, and through it has thrown new light on many of the debatable points of our political history of 1808–14.

Mr. Schouler expresses his intention, "if life, health, and opportunity are spared him," to continue his history to 1861; but such little indications as the addition of a complete index to the second volume, and the announcement in the preface that there may be considerable delay in the preparation of the third volume, are sufficient to suggest a fear that the "opportunity," at least, may be finally wanting. It would be very much to be regretted if this should be the case. Mr. Schouler has given us what is, in many respects, the best history of the United States; but it covers, as yet, no greater space than Hildreth's. Beyond the year 1820 is almost virgin soil for the historian, and hardly any field of literary labor seems more worthy of Mr. Schouler's ambition than the immediate and vigorous prosecution of the work which he has so successfully begun.

Orations and Essays. By J. Lewis Diman, D.D. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1882.

This book is designed to commemorate a man whose too early death must be deplored by all who desire to see the moral problems of the day discussed in a spirit of entire sympathy both with the progressive tendencies of modern thought and with the most conservative orthodox faith. Prof. Diman could not have a more appropriate monument, or one better fitted to bear record of his remarkable qualities. It is not too much to say that neither a prejudiced allusion nor a narrow sentiment is to be found in the book. Among the papers which it contains, his two reviews, "Religion in America, 1776–1876," and "University Corporations," are perhaps of most permanent value, and the first is of especial interest both to the thinker and historian. Addresses always labor under some drawbacks when it is sought to secure for them a permanent place in literature, their main object being to impress the listener rather than the reader; yet the oration of 1876 on "The Alienation of the Educated Class from Politics," delivered before the Phi Beta Kappa Society at Cambridge, presents many suggestive thoughts on a question which is likely long to interest the thinking classes in our country.

Mountain Life in Algeria. By Edgar Barclay. With illustrations by the author. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1882. Pp. xviii.–119. 8vo.

The mountains to which Mr. Barclay went in search of sketches lie about sixty miles to the east of Algiers. They are the lower hills of the high range which forms the southern boundary of Kabylia. For an artist it would seem to be a very attractive region, as, according to our author, the vegetation excels that of southern Italy in luxuriance, "and the glorious mountain masses, with their scarped precipices, cannot be easily matched for their form and color." The Kabyles, too, are interesting, from the fact that they are "a people of entirely different race and speech to the Arabs," and have suffered comparatively little from their intercourse with the French. Few Europeans are ever seen in their villages, perched on the tops of the hills, save a chance traveller and the missionaries, the colonists preferring to settle upon the plains. "The women, although Mohammedans, expose their faces with the same freedom as Europeans." Some are strikingly handsome, while their dress is "the same as the Greek dress of antiquity." The olive grows in great profusion, and constitutes the chief wealth of the country. The people are agriculturists, and cultivate even the steepest hillsides with great care. A few, however, manufacture jewelry and work as blacksmiths, while the women weave cloth, some of which is "most beautiful in workmanship, design, and color," though made without a shuttle. The women also make surprisingly good pottery simply with the hands, the use of the wheel being seemingly unknown, although they have a rude turning-lathe. Mr. Barclay's account of his three months' stay among the Kabyles contains some very picturesque sketches of village life and customs. He shows, however, but little literary skill, and has a strong propensity for quotations, chiefly Biblical and classical, at times exasperatingly ill-chosen. The illustrations are generally good; those taken from the instantaneous photographs being particularly striking.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bacon, L. W. and G. B. The Sabbath Question. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 25.
Bagenal, P. H. The American Irish and their Influence on Irish Politics. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Bigelow, J. Molinos the Quietist. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1 25.
Brehms Thierleben. With colored plates. Parts 23–25. B. Westermann & Co.
Century: an Illustrated Magazine. November, 1881, to April, 1882. New Series, vol. i. The Century Co.
Cist, H. M. The Army of the Cumberland. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.
Collins, M. A. The Homestretch: a Novel. G. W. Harlan.
Condit, B. History of the English Bible, from the Earliest Saxon Translations to the Anglo-American Revision. A. S. Barnes & Co. $2.
Cox, S. S. Arctic Sunbeams; or, From Broadway to the Bosphorus. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Cox, J. D. The Second Battle of Bull Run, as connected with the Fitz-John Porter Case. Cincinnati: Peter G. Thomson. $1.
Flagg, W. Halcyon Days. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Freeman, A. C. Digest of the American Decisions, and Index to the Notes Thereto, with a Table of the Cases Re-reported. In vols. i. to xxx. inclusive. 1760–1837. Vol. i. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.
Froude, J. A. Thomas Carlyle. 2 vols. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 30 cents.
Furnivall, F. J. Bibliography of Robert Browning. London: N. Trübner & Co.
Hammond, S. T. Practical Dog-Training. *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co. $1.
Harland, Marion. Eve's Daughters; or, Common Sense for Maid, Wife, and Mother. John R. Anderson & Henry S. Allen.
Hawthorne, N. American Classics for Schools. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 60 cents.
Jones, L. A. Treatise on the Law of Mortgages of Real Property. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $13.
Kettlewell, S. Thomas à Kempis and the Brothers of Common Life. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $8.
Lathrop, G. P. The Echo of Passion. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.
Leeds, J. W. A Smaller History of the United States. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.
Lowe, Martha Perry. The Story of Chief Joseph. Illustrated. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.
Lyster, Annette. Doctor L'Estrange. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
McLaughlin, M. Louise. Pottery Decoration under the Glaze. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 75 cents.
McLaughlin, M. Louise. China Painting. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 75 cents.
Pancoast, S. What is Bright's Disease? Its Curability. Philadelphia: The Author. $1.
Phelps, A. Men and Books; or, Studies in Homiletics. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2.
Poore, B. P. Life and Public Services of Ambrose E. Burnside. Providence: J. A. & R. A. Reid. $3 50.
Richards, Ellen H. The Chemistry of Cooking and Cleaning: a Manual for Housekeepers. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Rosenthal, R. S. The Meisterschaft System: a Simple Method of Learning to Speak French. In fifteen parts. Funk & Wagnalls.
Samson, G. W. The Text Used for the Revised New Testament Shown to be Unauthorized. Cambridge, Mass.: Moses King. 50 cents.
Schouler, J. History of the United States under the Constitution. Vol. ii., 1801–1817. Washington: W. H. Morrison.
Sidney, Margaret. The Pettibone Name: a New England Story. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1 25.
Simple Ailments of Horses: their Nature and Treatment. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.

Fine Arts.

THE MUSIC FESTIVAL.

TUESDAY.

Beyond a doubt, the great Music Festival of last week will be chronicled in the history of American music as in every sense one of the most successful festivals on record. Although the programme of the first concert possessed uncommon interest for amateurs, it was yet unquestionably considered somewhat "heavy" by the public. Nevertheless, the official list shows that there were no less than 6,730 persons in the auditorium, and if the seats had been arranged as they were at last year's festival the house would have been completely packed. The new arrangements

made by the Festival Committee added materially to the comfort of the public. The raised seats gave every one an opportunity to see the stage, while the seven separate entrances, supplied with lamps whose color corresponded with that of the tickets, enabled the audience to enter and clear the hall in a few minutes without the usual annoying crush. The sight of all these spectators in the vast building, and of the 1,800 singers and 300 instrumentalists was sufficiently picturesque to make it worth while for even an unmusical or deaf person to attend one of the concerts.

But this picturesqueness was soon forgotten in the impressiveness of the musical performance. The New York, Brooklyn, Worcester, and Reading choruses formed a body of sound so compact, harmonious, and reliable, that it seems almost fabulous to state that on this occasion they sang together for the first time. With the exception of a few passages, where the chorus dragged a little, everything was sung with precision, correct shading, animation, and brilliant effect. The choral numbers were Bach's Cantata, "A Stronghold Sure," and Handel's Utrecht Jubilate. The grand old chorale of Luther's which closes the Bach Cantata was so superbly sung that the audience broke out in prolonged and enthusiastic applause. The same was the case with the final chorus of the Utrecht Jubilate, which it would be safe to say has never been sung in a more admirable manner at any of the Handel festivals in England. Choruses of such imposing grandeur completely neutralize whatever acoustic disadvantages may be inherent in such a vast building; and they are all the more appreciated because the great dimensions of the building arouse in the spectator the emotion of the sublime, and thus put him in the abnormally receptive mood in which he finds himself in a cathedral.

The solo parts in the cantata were sung by Miss Winant, Mr. Candidus, and Mr. Whitney, and in the Jubilate by Miss Winant, Mr. Toedt, and Mr. Henschel. They acquitted themselves very creditably of their tasks, although it was in their case that the disadvantages of so large a hall were most distinctly felt. Mr. Whitney's "lion-bass," strange to say, was not so effective, so far as power is concerned, as might have been expected. Mr. Candidus's tenor was distinctly and clearly heard in all parts of the house, and gave pleasure by reason of its purity, brilliancy, and good vocal style. As had been anticipated, Frau Materna, who made her American début with the recitative and aria "Abscheulicher" from "Fidelio," completely annihilated space with her extraordinary voice, and made the audience for a moment imagine themselves transferred to Steinway Hall. The reception accorded her on her first appearance showed that American audiences are willing to accept a singer's merits on the testimony of Wagner, Verdi, and the united critical voices of Europe. But the ovation tendered her after the performance was of more value, for it was the result of personal conviction. Chorus and audience rose to their feet, and, amid waving of handkerchiefs, the great singer was recalled five times, until she consented to repeat the aria. Her full, rich, and expressive voice was, even in piano passages, everywhere audible.

WEDNESDAY.

Both of Wednesday's concerts attracted audiences which almost completely filled the great Armory. Of the two, the afternoon performance was, on the whole, the more enjoyable, in spite of the fact that most of the numbers were solo pieces, in which it was to be expected that the vast space would neutralize the efforts to produce the finer shades of expression. There seemed to be in the atmosphere a crystalline clearness and a buoyancy which not only acted as a refreshing tonic on the nerves of the hearer, but, one fancied, even facilitated the regular rhythmic movements of the tone waves. The greatest surprise in store for those who had studied the acoustic conditions of the hall was created by Mme. Gerster's performance. This popular lyric artist, who was greeted in a most cordial manner by the audience, sang "Der Hölle Rache" from the "Magic Flute" in a technically faultless and charming manner. It had been supposed that her flute-like staccato notes would sound like those of a canary bird upon a high tree; but this was not the case. They were distinct, clear, sweet, and mellow. In response to prolonged applause, Mme. Gerster repeated the aria. Signor Galassi sang the scene "Diane impitoyable" from Gluck's "Iphigenia in Aulis," following an admirable interpretation of the overture by the orchestra. His rich voice and thoroughly artistic style enabled him to give this selection in an effective manner. The same artistic merits characterized Mr. Henschel's singing of Spohr's "Der Kriegeslust ergeben," from "Jessonda," although the sensuous quality of tone was not the same in this case. Signor Campanini's rendering of "Vainement Pharaon" was the least satisfactory solo of the afternoon. It was correctly sung, but it reminded one of an expensive suit of clothes that has been worn too much. The aristocratic cut and style are still there, but it looks threadbare.

The only other solo was a lengthy recitative and aria from "Oberon," "Ocean, thou mighty monster," sung by Frau Materna. A singing teacher would have easily detected a few faults in her voice on this occasion. They are the same that we noted in Mme. Patti's voice at her first concert in Steinway Hall: some of the highest notes were a little hard and a shade flat. But such a sunspot may be left to the consideration of those pedants who condemn Rubinstein because he occasionally strikes a wrong note on the piano. These blemishes, moreover, as well as the slight, not at all disagreeable, occasional vibrato, are quite recent acquisitions, for they were not noticeable in her voice when we last heard her in Berlin and Vienna a year ago, as *Brünnhilde*, and are, as we have ascertained, due to the fact that the American concert pitch is about a semitone higher than the European. And they are simply *nil* when compared with the fine dramatic and emotional qualities of her voice. No other singer can boast of such a distinct enunciation, combined with such passionate declamation and expressive adaptation of every tone to the poetic meaning of the word to which it is wedded. Her voice is thoroughly sympathetic in a double sense: it is fully in sympathy with the emotional contents of each musical phrase, and it conveys that emotion to the hearer with irresistible magnetism. All the vocal solos were accompanied in a discreet and discriminating manner that reflected great credit on Mr. Thomas and his musicians. The orchestral pieces were Schumann's "Manfred" and Mendelssohn's "Ruy Blas" overtures, and Schubert's Ninth Symphony. We do not remember having ever heard the symphony under more favorable conditions. All its exquisite details of coloring, choice modulation, and alternation of tender and energetic passages were brought out with marvellous distinctness, even more so than on Tuesday evening, when Mozart's Jupiter Symphony was performed.

Beethoven's Fifth Symphony and his grand Missa Solennis constituted the programme of the second evening concert. All that has just been said of the performance of Schubert's Ninth applies equally well to Beethoven's Fifth. Mr. Thomas was enthusiastically recalled three times at the end. The attempt to produce Beethoven's Mass in its entirety on such an occasion was an experiment which it took all Mr. Thomas's nerve and courage to make. So difficult is this work that it is very seldom given even in Germany. Just as Bach looks at all his forces from the organist's point of view, so Beethoven treats all his vocal parts as if they were instruments. But the human voice is not as flexible and agile as an instrument, and hence the solo parts of the Mass were not infrequently beyond the powers of the famous singers to whom they were entrusted on this occasion. They were divided into two sets, the first embracing Frau Materna, Miss Winant, Signor Campanini, Signor Galassi, and Mr. Whitney, and the second Mrs. Allen of Boston, Miss Winant, Mr. Candidus, and Mr. Henschel. Of these Frau Materna was the only one whose voice always floated conspicuously on the surging waves of sound. Mrs. Allen had only begun to study her part on Monday, when she was engaged as a substitute for Mrs. Osgood, and she had the disadvantage of appearing after Frau Materna. Taking these things into account, she deserves praise for the manner in which she rendered her part. Miss Winant not only did her own share of the work remarkably well, but also that which had been allotted to Miss Cary. Most of the choral parts were finely executed.

THURSDAY.

Only one sentiment prevailed at the close of the Wagner matinée on Thursday. Audience, soloists, choristers, musicians, conductor, directors, and critics of all parties seemed to unite in the opinion that what they had just heard not only was the culmination of the Festival, but was an entertaiment to which the oldest concert-goer would find it difficult to find a parallel in his memory of rare treats. The audience was larger than on any previous occasion, comprising more than eight thousand spectators, many of whom had come from a great distance especially for this event; and if the performers had needed any stimulus besides that contained in the beauty of the works that were performed, they would have derived it from the great enthusiasm of the audience, which seemed to be animated by an æsthetic fervor whose intensity can only be compared to the state of mind produced on religious people at a revival meeting. We are able to state on the very best authority that Mr. Thomas never felt more happy in his life than he did at the close of the afternoon. It was due to his persistent efforts that the vast assembly was enabled to appreciate the works of the greatest musical genius the world has seen since Bach finished his labors. And it must be particularly noted that it was not the Wagner of the "Rienzi" or even of the "Lohengrin" period that was thus applauded. The works belonged to what French critics call Wagner's third style; and they were performed in a manner that has never been surpassed in Germany itself, as far as our own very extensive experience is concerned.

The selections that were played were taken from the four music-dramas which constitute the Nibelung Trilogy—"Rheingold," "Walküre," "Siegfried," and "Götterdämmerung"—opening with the marvellous introductory scene illustrating the movement of the Rhine and the gambols of *Alberich* and the Rhine-daughters, and closing with the grand dramatic finale of the "Götterdämmerung." The parts of the Rhine-daughters and *Alberich* were beautifully sung by the Misses Schell, Wurmb, and Henne, and Mr. Steins. Mr. Remmertz then sang, appearing in the scene on mountain heights where *Wotan* awakes and beholds the castle built for him by the giants; and this was followed by *Loge's* account of his adventures in

search of a ransom for *Freia*, and the closing scene, beginning with the cloud-and-storm-compelling Donner, and ending with the laments of the Rhine-daughters for the lost gold. On the operatic stage the mournful trio of the Rhine-daughters is heard as proceeding from the river, over which the gods are marching on a rainbow bridge. At the Armory, by a happy inspiration of Mr. Dietrich, the chorus-master, they were placed in the high window to the right of the sounding-board, and the effect cannot be described by any other word than angelic. It was, acoustically, the greatest marvel of the Festival, as it was musically one of the most thrilling passages. After a short intermission, the brief, stormy introduction to the "Walküre" was played. In it the violins persistently keep up an agitated, monotonous movement, while one after another the remaining instruments are added, until at last the whole orchestra bursts out into a fierce tornado of sound. The noise gradually subsides, and by a clever transition we are introduced to the famous love song of *Siegmund*, "Winterstürme wichen dem Wonnemond." This fine specimen of lyric song has often been heard in our concert halls, but Mr. Candidus for the first time sang it as it should be sung. His impressive style, and strong, rich, and expressive voice were so eminently suited to the character of this piece that the audience insisted on a repetition and got it. In the next piece, the "Ride of the Walkyries," the orchestra played with a demoniac passion and wild grandeur that caused the audience to jump to their feet, wave handkerchiefs, and keep up a frantic applause for five minutes; but Mr. Thomas refused to repeat it. *Wotan's* sad and touching farewell to *Brünnhilde* was nobly sung by Signor Galassi. There is perhaps no other passage in all Wagner's works where there is such a variety and brilliant display of orchestral colors. It was in this selection, besides the "Ride of the Walkyries" and the closing scene from "Rheingold" (where six harps added a most exquisite clang-tint to the body of sound), that the superiority of the Festival orchestra over an ordinary orchestra was best displayed. It became evident on this occasion that Wagner's orchestral compositions gain as much in richness by the multiplication of instruments as Handel's choruses gain in impressiveness by the redoubling of the vocal forces.

From "Siegfried" only one passage was taken, but it was a gem—the "Forging of the Sword" by *Siegfried*. This part should have been assigned to Mr. Candidus. Signor Campanini made a very creditable effort to make himself heard above the orchestra, but he is not responsible for the physiological impediments which prevent an Italian lyric tenor from effectively singing Wagner's heroic rôles. Frau Materna now took her place on the stage, and the orchestra played the funeral music which accompanies the procession bearing away *Siegfried's* body from the place where he was murdered. The grandeur of the performance must have inspired the great vocalist to make one of the greatest efforts of her life. Scenery, costume, dramatic action, were absent, but they were not missed. In this finale all the emotion, pathos, and passion of the whole trilogy is concentrated and summed up. To those who have heard the dramas, and know the meaning of all the leading motives that are here interwoven into a texture of inexpressible beauty, the music itself has a pictorial suggestiveness that enables it to dispense with stage accessories. In this music Frau Materna for the first time revealed the full beauty of her voice. There was not a speck on it, but a hundred specks would have been forgiven and forgotten in the grand, pathetic, and tragic style in which it all was sung. Those who did not hear Frau Materna sing on this occasion have missed a sensation which no other living vocalist can ever give them.

FRIDAY.

If, on Thursday afternoon, Mr. Thomas's compact, well-arranged, and obedient orchestra had an opportunity to display all its brilliant qualities to the best advantage, Friday evening was the occasion when the choral forces were sure to come to the front. The chorus was larger than at any previous concert, embracing fully three thousand singers, and including, besides the New York and Brooklyn Philharmonic choruses, the Oratorio Society of Baltimore, the Cecilian of Philadelphia, and the Handel and Haydn of Boston, who have become familiar with every bar of "Israel in Egypt" at frequent performances of the work in that city. It was to be expected that the volume of sound would be more impressive than ever before, but the most sanguine patron of the Festival could not have imagined that all these societies could, without a single joint rehearsal, sing with such marvellous precision of attack, purity of tone, and unanimity of sentiment. The great choruses of the first part, "He gave them hailstones for rain," and "He sent a thick darkness," produced a tremendous effect and were most enthusiastically applauded. All the other choruses too were admirably sung, and Mr. Thomas proved on this occasion that he can conduct a chorus as successfully through an arduous task as he can an orchestra.

Nevertheless, the choice of this oratorio for performance at the Festival must be pronounced a decided mistake. Excepting the choruses just mentioned and parts of one or two others, it is a third-rate work by a second-rate composer. The solo parts, which were well sung by Mrs. Osgood, Miss Schell, Miss Winant, and the Messrs. Candidus, Whitney, and Remmertz, are as tame and commonplace as modern spring poetry, and of the choruses the majority are not only stupid but painfully stupid. We say painfully, because the fruitless search after a single pregnant and striking musical idea in a forest of contrapuntal solfeggios and roulades is certainly not a pleasurable exercise of mental ingenuity. There is a certain nimbus about Handel's name in this country which can be traced to the Handel-worship prevalent in England. That it is based chiefly on religious motives, we have ventured to point out on a previous occasion; and the best proof of it is that in Germany, where works of art are judged from a purely æsthetic point of view by the masses, Handel occupies a much less exalted position in popular estimation than he does in England. One reason of Handel's popularity in England, however, is purely musical, and lies in the fact that most of his works are superficial, and, therefore, like Italian opera melodies, are easily apprehended. His choruses impose more by their sonority than by the impressiveness of their musical ideas, and they are massive rather than grand, for true grandeur implies not only dynamic power but creative spontaneity.

SATURDAY.

The afternoon concert of Saturday was devoted entirely to Italian compositions. For their interpretation so many popular soloists had been secured that the character of the programme was probably a matter of considerable indifference to a large part of the audience, to whom the personal element in art is a matter of much greater concern than the nature of the works performed. The artists who sang, alone or in concerted pieces, were Mme. Gerster, Mrs. Osgood, Miss Cary, Miss Winant, and the Messrs. Candidus, Campanini, Toedt, Henschel, Galassi, and Remmertz. Miss Cary, who could not resist the temptation to appear at least once before a Festival audience, was rewarded for this resolution by a hearty reception on the part of the public. She sang in her usual impressive manner. Mme. Gerster recieved a great ovation, after a wonderful rendering of "Ah, non giunge," from "Sonnambula." It does make a difference whether this artist is heard amid such surroundings or in the discordant wilderness of Strakosch's cacophonous opera troupe. The work done by the other vocalists and the orchestra was so much in keeping with its usual character that there is no necessity for analyzing it in detail. The programme gained especial interest from the fact that the pieces were arranged in historical order, beginning with Corelli, and leading through Stradella, Boccherini, Cimarosa, Cherubini, Spontini, Rossini, Donizetti, and Bellini to Verdi. One lesson taught by this arrangement was that, to a certain extent, the history of Italian music is an instance of retrogradation, instead of progressive evolution—Verdi always excepted.

In the evening Liszt's Dante Symphony, a scene from the second act of Rubinstein's "Dæmon" (Mme. Gerster), and the second act of Berlioz's "Fall of Troy" were on the programme. The Dante Symphony has been repeatedly performed here, but the chorus of female voices at the close was last evening heard for the first time. The sudden introduction of these voices after an hour of pure instrumental music produces a deep and striking impression. Although the second part of this work is undoubtedly somewhat too elaborate, the first part is strikingly graphic, vivid, and characteristically weird—a truth which is brought home more forcibly to the hearer at every repetition of the work. Its interpretation by the orchestra was equal in finish and power to that of any previous performance. The "Fall of Troy," of which the second act was given for the first time in New York, proved to be a work of such uncommon interest that its long neglect can only be explained by the fact that for its execution greater forces are required than can be commanded at ordinary concerts. "La Prise de Troie" is the first half of a double opera, of which the second half is "Les Troyens en Carthage," the whole work bearing the name of "Les Troyens." Berlioz considered this as not only his masterwork, but the grandest and noblest composition ever written. At least, he says in a letter to his son, dated May 4, 1861: "Je suis sûr que j'ai fait une grande œuvre, plus grande et d'un plus noble aspect que ce qu'on a fait jusqu'à présent." We should hardly go so far as this, but gladly bear witness to the fact that it is a work of imposing grandeur, full of significant ideas, and a dramatic truthfulness and definiteness of characterization difficult to surpass. The dramatic motives are taken from Virgil's "Æneid," and the contents of the second act relate to the story of the wooden horse. The rôle of *Cassandra* was assigned to Mme. Materna, and we need not point out that such a rôle is eminently in keeping with her vocal style and the highly tragic parts which constitute her specialty. The remaining soloists were Mrs. Osgood, Miss Winant, and the Messrs. Campanini, Toedt, Galassi, Remmertz, and Whitney. A want of steadiness characterized parts of the finale, and the choral forces might have been increased to advantage. But otherwise the performance was very good. The concert closed with the chorus "Wake! Wake!" from the third act of the "Meistersinger," a more imposing, soul-stirring chorus than which could not have been found for fittingly closing the great Festival. At the end Mr. Thomas was repeatedly recalled, amid such demonstrations of enthusiasm as are commonly supposed to be characteristic of Italians and South-Germans alone.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 18, 1882.

The Week.

THE Dublin murders formed the subject of many sermons on Sunday, and furnished materials for many startling conclusions. The Rev. James King, who gave a sketch of Irish history, from the fourth century, in a Methodist church, said "he knew that in every Irish town where British soldiers were quartered, there was a premium set on lechery." The report of this may be imperfect, but to give the observation value or pertinence it ought to be accompanied by an explanation where the premium comes from. If furnished by the British Government out of the revenue, nothing can be more dastardly. Moreover, Mr. King, in trying to account for "the coarse features and quarrelsomeness of the Irish immigrants," proposes an experiment which is clearly impracticable when he says, "Take our most cultured people, New England for instance, and oppress them for eight centuries, and they would have worse-looking faces than the Irish!" It may be so, but to give the suggestion practical value, a shorter period of oppression ought to suffice. We think the beauty could be taken out of an average New England face by even twenty years of oppression. The Rev. Dr. Newman, the noted Stalwart, also discoursed on this subject, but he simply pointed out that assassination as a remedy for political and social wrongs is a failure. Dr Talmage, however, acquitted Irishmen of the deed, and laid it to the charge of "Desperation and Nihilism," and declared that Nihilism "would cut the throat of every decent man or woman on the planet," but fixed $25,000 as the proper amount of the reward for the detection of the Irish assassins. All above this amount would, he said, constitute "a premium on perjury." The Rev. James O'Connell, at the Masonic Temple, made the assertion that "cold-blooded assassination was not in accordance with Irish ideas," and that he "had never heard or read of an Irishman stealing up behind his victim and stabbing him in the back." Mr. O'Connell, if this be true, cannot be a newspaper reader. Cold-blooded assassination may not be in accordance with "Irish ideas" of what is right, but unhappily it appears to accord fully with a great many Irish ideas of what is expedient, and has played a more prominent part in recent Irish history than in that of any country in the world. It may be more discreditable to steal up behind a man's back with a knife than to lie in wait for him behind a hedge with a rifle, but the distinction is one for which few men who were going to be murdered would care a straw.

The annual argument on the subject of the disposition of the money paid by Great Britain under the Geneva Award began on Thursday in the House. The bill reported by the majority of the Judiciary Committee was a measure framed in the interest of all the claimants other than the insurance companies, and, as was to be expected, it was passed on the following day. The matter now goes to the Senate, where the insurance companies have a better chance. But there is little probability of any bill getting through both Houses and becoming law. This latest proposed scheme of distribution furnishes a glaring instance of the incapacity of Congressional committees to deal with claims against the Government in a satisfactory manner. The provision which it makes for the payment of claims for the destruction of vessels by the "exculpated cruisers" is simply a piece of spoliation. An "exculpated" cruiser means any one of the Rebel war cruisers for the acts of which England was decided by the tribunal at Geneva *not* to be liable to our Government. What we submitted to the tribunal was, the decision of the damages which England should pay us for injuries inflicted upon our commerce by Rebel vessels which were negligently allowed to escape from its ports. Consequently, the very first question the court had to decide was, what vessels had been allowed to get out in this way. It decided that the *Alabama*, *Florida*, and *Shenandoah* were the only cruisers for whose acts England could be held responsible. As to a number of others it exonerated England altogether, and these became known as the "exculpated" cruisers. The money was awarded for the acts done by the three ships we have mentioned.

Now, there is no dispute whatever about these facts. The "war-premium" claimants have invented a mysterious argument that the "war-premium" claims were recognized in some occult way by the payment of the Award in a "lump sum"; and all the opponents of the insurance companies contend that their receipt of war rates is an argument against paying them any of the fund. In other words, with regard to these classes of claims, there has been from the first some show of reasoning *pro* and *con*. But there never has been any pretence of a reason for the payment of the "exculpated cruiser" claims. No legal or moral argument has been advanced in support of them, for the simple reason that there is nothing to be said, the very term used to describe them showing that they have no standing of any kind. They are confessedly illegal claims, having been determined by the Court to which they were submitted to have no validity. The money which, if the present bill were passed, would be used to pay them, belongs either to the insurance companies, to the war-premium claimants, to the United States, or to Great Britain. That the Judiciary Committee of the House of Representatives should year after year recommend the payment of claims which every single member of it knows to be illegal, is about as striking an illustration of the irresponsible way in which the decisions of legislative committees are reached as could be had. The reason why the Committee recommends the payment of claims ruled out of court really is *because* they were ruled out of court.

The foreign exchanges so ruled during the week that it was necessary to export about $3,600,000 more specie, of which about $3,000,000 was gold; and shipments of at least as much more have been engaged. Our merchandise imports continue much in excess of our merchandise exports; accordingly, either specie or securities have to make up the balance, and Europe is not freely taking the latter, although late in the week it was announced that one loan of $5,000,000 had been negotiated in London for the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé Railroad on its six per cent. trust mortgage bonds. The drafts against the loan are to be made in instalments, so that its effect on current operations was not large. Aside from the balance due on the excess of merchandise imports over exports, a large amount of what are known as loan bills are maturing, and a part of the gold shipments have been on this account. The gold going to London is expected, through its influence on the market there, to increase, in due time, the demand for American securities, particularly if our harvests prove as good as they now promise. Thus far the loss of the $17,000,000 of gold shipped since January 1 has had no influence on the rates for loans in this market; it has simply checked the rising tendency of the surplus reserve of the New York banks; this surplus having last week been still above $8,000,000. The time when the loss of this gold will be felt, if at all, will be next autumn, but before then the European demand for American securities, or the trade exchanges, by reason of the outcome of the growing crops here and in Europe, may have changed the whole situation. At the Stock Exchange it was the dullest week of the year for speculation. General trade was rather quiet during the week. In the iron industries considerable depression is reported. Railroad traffic east of Chicago was only moderate in volume; west of that point it was large on account of the business in connection with the immigration movement, which continues to be unprecedented. The crop prospects remain excellent, the heavy rains of the week having done more good than harm.

Mr. R. P. Flower's observations in the House of Representatives, as to the necessity of passing a Refunding Bill as an adjunct to the Crapo Bank Bill, have considerable force, in view of the fact that the session is now so gorged with business that there is little chance of considering any new measure, which must needs run the gauntlet of both Senate and House. A Refunding Bill adequate to the emergency, and sufficient to cover the next three years, has passed the Senate, and can be passed by the House at any time under a suspension of the rules. Mr. Flower points out that bonds held as security for $41,000,000 of circulating notes will be paid off by the first of August next, and that in the absence of a Refunding Bill the banks will not be able to replace the security, and must, therefore, retire the notes. This would be a very severe, if not disastrous, contraction of the currency, coming at the beginning of the crop-moving

season. A more comprehensive measure than the Refunding Bill will be needed soon, in order to deal with the currency and bank question, seeing that within a few years the bonds will all be paid off; but for the present the Refunding Bill now before the House, or some equivalent measure, seems to be requisite to meet the exigency pointed out by Mr. Flower.

A telegram from Des Moines, Iowa, says that the "Western Miners' Bureau, representing twenty-two corporations and a capital of $42,000,000, have passed a resolution favoring an increase in the amount of silver in the standard silver dollar, making it intrinsically worth one hundred cents." The Western Miners' Bureau is an organization which we never heard of before, and we infer that the $42,000,000 of capital represented by it must consist largely of stationery and printers' ink. Nevertheless, their resolution is an approximation to common sense. It is, unfortunately, not practicable to make the silver dollars intrinsically worth 100 cents without recoining them every time the market value of silver changes. But for this difficulty, the resolution of the Western Miners' Bureau would be the embodiment of sound financial doctrine. If it could be put in force, there would be no objection to the free coinage of silver on the same terms as of gold. The action of the Bureau is nevertheless significant at the present time as showing that the owners of silver mines feel that the existing practice of the Government—expending $2,000,000 per month in the purchase of bullion not wanted for any earthly purpose—is untenable, and cannot be long continued. But the Western Miners' Bureau will not be harmed if this resolution is objected to by Congress on the ground of insuperable mechanical difficulties, for if it could be carried into effect its net result would be to give them only the market price for their silver from day to day. This is what they obtain now.

It is reported that a resolution will be introduced in the Assembly requesting members of Congress from this State to vote for a bill to allow citizens of the United States to buy foreign-built ships and run them under the American flag, provided that this permission shall not extend to the coasting trade. The last Legislature did something practical for the revival of shipping when it passed the act to exempt vessels from taxation. The present Legislature might well give moral support to the revival by passing the proposed resolution. It is true that the regulation of ocean commerce is not within the jurisdiction of the State, but this consideration surely need not repress an expression of opinion on the part of the Assembly, which lately instructed the British Government as to the theory it should adopt in its proceedings against the murderers of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke. The city and State of New York are more directly interested in the free-ship question than any other part of the country, and the people will not be likely to make a point of order against a formal declaration of their views on this subject by their representatives at Albany.

The Attorney-General of the State has given an opinion which bids fair to ruin utterly the prospects of female suffrage in this State. In other words, he says the State Constitution confines the suffrage to males, and it cannot, therefore, be given to females without an amendment to the Constitution. Now, an amendment to the Constitution has to be passed by two successive Legislatures and then submitted to the people, and it is all but certain that no proposal to give women the ballot could survive such a process, within any period sufficiently near to be worth considering. The number of men who soberly and in the society of their own sex consider that the community would be benefited by having women vote is very small, and is certainly not growing, and the worst of it is that the deadliest silent and secret opposition to it comes from women themselves. As a general rule the women who influence men most do not want the suffrage for themselves, and do not wish other women to get it, so that the scheme would have no chance before the people. In the Legislature, where its advocates catch a small body of men with their judgments about women disturbed by absence from their wives and families, it might be possible to get a majority for one passage of the amendment, but few would face the final passage. In short, the prospects of the movement, whatever one may think of its merits, are gloomy.

Mr. Oscar Wilde delivered a lecture, on Thursday evening, on "Art Decoration," in which he gave a curious account of his reformatory æsthetic efforts in Leadville, where he has lately been laboring. In all his travels, he says, the only well-dressed men he has seen have been the Western miners. "Their wide-brimmed hats, which shaded their faces from the sun and protected them from the rain, and the cloak, which is by far the most beautiful piece of drapery ever invented, may well be dwelt on with admiration. Their high boots, too, were sensible and practical. They only wore what was comfortable and therefore beautiful. As I looked at them, I could not help thinking with regret of the time when these picturesque miners should have made their fortunes, and would go East to assume again all the abominations of modern fashionable attire." So concerned was he at this thought that he made some of them promise that when they come East, they will "still continue to wear their lovely costume." The account the poet gives of his reflections at Leadville brings out in an interesting way the difficulties with which the reformer has to contend. He says that when he thought that all the shining silver he saw coming from the mines was to be made into "ugly dollars," he became "sad." But this is just what makes the picturesque Western miner glad. What he is thinking about is the ratio of sixteen to one, and the good clothes he can get at a "dry-goods emporium" in Broadway, and the ugly "palatial residence" he will build in Fifth Avenue with his "ugly dollars." Still, if Mr. Wilde has taught even one miner to long to "live up" to his hat, boots, and cloak, his visit will not have been wasted.

The French journalists are getting into serious trouble over the term "snobisme," which has been adopted from the English, but has apparently somewhat changed its meaning in the transfer. M. Weiss wrote an article lately on the "Conservative Republic," in which he used "snobisme" as the equivalent of silly idleness, which is a clear perversion. As defined by Thackeray, snobism, or snobbery, was "mean admiration of mean things," and a snob was a person whose mind was filled with the importance of external social distinctions, and who sought to raise himself in the social scale by humbug and pretence. Busch gives an account of a discussion on the proper use of the term at the German headquarters during the siege of Paris, in which Bismarck took part, but in which it plainly appeared that he, too, though a good English scholar, had failed to grasp the true and original sense of the term. The party had, however, just been lunching off a *croustade* with mushrooms and a pheasant with sauerkraut, washed down with champagne, and were probably not, philogically considered, in good condition. The Chancellor, at all events, held that a snob was simply a self-satisfied simpleton, a narrow-minded person, or, in other words, that the word was merely the equivalent of the German "Philistine," which is clearly an error, though the definition comes very near that in most common use in this country. Here a snob is, in popular parlance, not so much a person like Thackeray's snob, who is dissatisfied with his own position and is trying to raise himself by low arts, as a person who thinks a good deal of his position, and shows it by giving himself airs. In fact, it may be said, that the snob in America looks down on others, while the English snob looks up to others, and tries whimperingly to climb up to where they are. Further west the term is applied to men particular about their dress, and there are regions where the habitual use of a pocket-handkerchief or tooth-brush would put a man in the snob category.

The crisis which has long been impending in Egypt seems at last to have arrived, and pretty much in the shape in which it has been expected ever since February of last year, when the garrison of Cairo compelled the Khedive to release certain officers who were being tried by court-martial. This surrender to the mutinous troops of course meant the transfer of his power to the Army. He has ever since had but the shadow of authority. In the following September Arabi Bey, the Colonel who had headed the outbreak in February, seized the command of the troops, and ordered the Khedive to dismiss the then Ministry, increase the strength and pay of the Army, and grant a Constitution. He conceded everything except the Constitution, and for this he substituted a Chamber of Notables, who were simply such persons from each district as the local functionaries were directed to send up. When the Chamber met, it drew up an organic law which handed over the control of the budget to a committee composed of members of the Chamber and of Ministers in equal numbers, but made no place whatever for the so-called European Control over the finances exercised by two representatives of France and Eng-

land respectively. These gentlemen protested, and their Governments warned the revolutionists not to go too far. More than this could hardly be done, however, because the Control was not established by treaty, but by a decree of the Khedive, and therefore foreign interference would not be justifiable until it appeared that the establishment of the new régime was actually disturbing the existing financial arrangements. Arabi Bey and his friends, however, declared loudly that they had no intention of disturbing the existing financial arrangements. They simply wished to reform the Government by making it parliamentary and giving Egypt to the Egyptians. In other words, they set up as a national and constitutional party, seeking to overthrow the old despotic system working under foreign influence, and in this character they managed to get a certain amount of countenance from a portion of the English and French press, besides deluding a certain number of English travellers into the belief that they represented the Arab revival in Islam.

Things have remained in this condition ever since last September, France and England waiting to see what the Army and the Chamber would do, the Sultan waiting for a chance to interfere in his character of lord paramount, and thus reassert the Caliph's authority over Egypt, and the Army waiting for something to turn up. What the end would be, few calm observers have ever doubted. To suppose that a Constitution and Chamber created and set in motion by a mutinous army could last long, would be to disregard all experience. No Legislature which cannot control the Army ever lasts long, much less a Chamber which the Army has called into existence. In fact, Arabi Bey has made no secret during the past six months of the fact that the Army rules Egypt, and the knowledge of this fact has already produced considerable dislocation in the financial system, and notably a revival in the provinces of the old abuses in the mode of levying the taxes. The exact nature of the complication which has just arisen at Cairo is a little difficult to understand on the information furnished by the telegraph, but the Ministry, which represents the Army, came to loggerheads with the Assembly, and the latter refused to meet on the summons of the former. Arabi Bey's plan seems to have been to procure from the Chamber the deposition of the Khedive and his family, or, failing that, to enforce it with the aid of the troops. The deposition of the Khedive would be of but little consequence to France and England if his proposed successors professed to respect the Control, but instead of this they actually talk of the expulsion of all foreigners. So that the two Powers must either sacrifice their bondholders over whose interests they have been watching tenderly for seven years, and submit to humiliation which would make it very difficult to restore their prestige, or else take active steps to put Arabi Bey down. They have apparently solved the problem by sending ironclads to Alexandria and threatening to let the Sultan land gendarmes. This appears to have broken down the mutineers, for on Tuesday evening Arabi Bey and the rest of them went and begged the Khedive's pardon, and kissed his hand and the hem of his coat. He received them coldly, however, and they went away, it is said, "humiliated." If he will now bastinado them all round, Egypt will again be peaceful and happy.

The confidence of the *Times* and other London papers in the efficacy of the new Coercion Act is very curious, considering that there has been the same confidence in the success of every coercion act ever passed, and notably in that of Mr. Forster. One can compare this confidence to nothing but the perseverance sometimes displayed by incurables in the consumption of quack medicines. The twelfth bottle they often think will do the business, though the other eleven may not have brought the slightest sign of improvement. A meeting of Irishmen was held here on Friday night to denounce the Dublin assassinations, at which the Mayor presided, and at which resolutions, on the whole, moderate and sensible, were passed. But there was considerable disturbance from the presence of the dynamite and blatherskite variety of Irish patriot, and of Mr. James Redpath, who yelled out, "God bless dynamite in Russia!" and expressed admiration for the Nihilist publicists of that country.

Mr. Gladstone has introduced his bill providing for the relief of the tenants who were prevented by their owing arrears of rents from taking advantage of the Land Act. The hardship of their case was clearly perceived by the Ministry before the Land Act was framed, and the bill introduced by Mr. Forster, and which the Lords rejected in the winter of 1880-81, was intended to give them temporary protection from eviction on account of the arrears. Most of the arrears are due to three bad harvests, and most of them are arrears of rents which the Land Act Commissioners would undoubtedly pronounce too high if the tenants could get into court. But they have hitherto been prevented from getting into court by eviction, and a large proportion of the recent outrages are ascribed to the disappointment thus caused. Mr. Gladstone now proposes that any tenant who pays one year of arrears shall have another paid for him by the Government out of the remainder of the Church property, and that the landlord shall be compelled to forgive the rest, which will occasion no difficulty, because there was not the least chance of his getting it. The sum the Government will have to provide is estimated at about $10,000,000. The landlord will, therefore, be put in possession of two years of exorbitant rental, of which he had no expectation; the tenant will receive a complete discharge and be able to make a fresh start in life. It is true that this bill only applies to tenants whose rent falls below $150 on the Griffith valuation, and this will cover all cases of real hardship. The tenant will have to prove his inability to pay before the County Court, but this we suspect will be an easy task, because nobody will be much interested in impeding him. In fact, the ease with which the dishonest will here be able to escape from their obligations is the weighti est objection to the measure.

There was a very acrimonious debate at the introduction of the bill on the point whether there had been a bargain between the Ministry and the Parnellites before the recent change of policy. Mr. Forster read a memorandum, showing that he had had a conversation with a Captain O'Shea, a friend of Parnell's, which looked to him like a Parnellite offer to make a bargain, and disgusted him, and caused him to drop the matter. Mr. Gladstone denied that there had been any official stipulation, but hardly denied that there had been an understanding with the Parnellites. To such an understanding there was no real objection on grounds of practical statesmanship. The suspects were locked up because there were outrages. It was found that keeping them locked up did not stop the outrages. It was, therefore, perfectly rational to let them out on their proposing to stop the outrages. But there was in it sufficient offence to English pride to give the Tories materials for a savage attack, in repelling which Mr. Gladstone seems to have lost his temper. The fact is that the Tories stood ready to bargain with the Parnellites themselves. Their proposal to create a peasant proprietary is a distinct bid for the Land League vote, and what is enraging them now is that the Liberals should have got the whip-hand of them.

Mr. Parnell has read in the House of Commons the letter he wrote to a friend, on seeing which Mr. Gladstone is said to have resolved on a change of policy and to have entered into what the Opposition jeeringly calls the "Treaty of Kilmainham." The letter simply says that if the arrears of rent question were settled, the Irish party in the House would regard it as a practical settlement of the land question, and would exert their influence, with probable success, for the stoppage of outrages, and would be able to coöperate with the Liberals in the support of Liberal measures regarding England. This last part of the letter he did not read till called upon, and when read, it called forth ironical Tory cheers, but why, it is hard to see, inasmuch as it contains no proposal in the nature of either conversion or perversion. The Irish have commonly acted with the Liberals in general legislation, so that what was here promised was simply to return to normal courses if the Irish questions were out of the way. The Irish judges are said to have forwarded a protest, which the Government are considering, against the proposal contained in the new Coercion Bill to compel them to discharge the functions of both judge and jury. If they should refuse to sit in the new tribunal altogether, they would be within their strict rights. They were appointed to perform the ordinary duties of British judges, and sitting in quasi-courts-martial, created as part of a system of terrorism for a short period, is no part of these duties. Their main and strongest objection to the rôle which it is proposed to assign to them probably is, however, that it would greatly lower the popular respect for their office, by ruining popular confidence in their impartiality, if they consented to become part of a system of coercion by doing what no British judges have ever done before, even in Ireland—consenting to pass in capital cases both on the fact and the law. What they recommend is a majority verdict from juries.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

MR. WORTHINGTON'S nomination to be Collector of the Port of Boston was confirmed by the Senate on Monday, the vote being 38 to 14.

Senator David Davis's bill to establish a Federal Court of Appeals was passed by the Senate on Friday, the vote being 32 to 18. The minority was composed of Democrats. The bill provides for the appointment of two additional judges in each judicial district. The two new judges, the Supreme Court justice assigned to the Circuit, the present Circuit judge, and two of the District judges in rotation are to constitute a Court of Appeals, intermediate between the Circuit and District and the Supreme Courts. The amount in controversy must exceed $500 to entitle the litigant to an appeal, except in cases of unusual importance, when the case may be sent up by the Circuit or District Court.

By a vote of three to two, the Senate Select Committee on Woman Suffrage have agreed to recommend for adoption Senator Lapham's joint resolution proposing a sixteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, that "the right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of sex." Congress is given power to enforce the provisions of the amendment by appropriate legislation.

The National House of Representatives, on Wednesday, passed, by a vote of 172 to 7, the bill creating an Executive Department of Agriculture, under the supervision and control of a Secretary of Agriculture, who shall be an experienced and practical agriculturist. It also establishes the following bureaus: of Agricultural Products, of Annual Industry, of Lands, and of Statistics.

On Friday, the House of Representatives passed the Geneva Award Bill, which provides for the reëstablishment of the Court of Commissioners of Alabama Claims, and for the distribution of the remainder of the Geneva Award. The court is to continue in existence for one year, and all claims must be filed within four months of its organization. It is provided that the court shall award damages for claims directly resulting from damage done on the high seas by Confederate cruisers during the late rebellion; and for claims for the payment of premiums for war risks, whether paid to corporations, agents, or individuals, after the sailing of any Confederate cruiser.

The River and Harbor Bill was reported to the House of Representatives on Saturday. It was ordered printed and recommitted. The aggregate amount appropriated is about $17,000,000. The House Committee on Appropriations have completed a bill appropriating $100,000,000 for pensions for the coming fiscal year.

During four days of last week the Sub-Committee of the House Committee on Foreign Affairs was in this city taking testimony in regard to the Peruvian scheme. Mr. Robert E. Randall, who as agent of the Crédit Industriel made the contract with Morton, Bliss & Co. to act as consignees for Peruvian nitrates and guano, testified that soon after Minister Morton's arrival in Paris he called upon him and spoke of the contract with the New York firm. Mr. Morton said: "Mr. Randall, that is a matter which you have been conducting with Mr. Bliss, so far as my firm is concerned, and I prefer, for many reasons, that it should so continue, and, in fact, I do not want to know anything about the matter whatever." Mr. George Bliss, of the same firm, testified before the Committee in regard to the contract, which he said was an ordinary business transaction of no special significance. The Sub-Committee have returned to Washington, as Mr. Shipherd refused to appear before them, alleging as an excuse that he had not had an opportunity to peruse Senator Blair's recent testimony.

It is reported that the Secretary of the Interior has decided to adopt the policy of disarming all the Indians in the Western States and Territories who are subject to the effective control of the Government.

The bill of exceptions in the Guiteau case was argued before the court in banc of the District of Columbia, last week, Chief-Justice Cartter presiding. Col. Reed appeared for the defence. He made an able argument, the chief points of which were that the courts of the District had no jurisdiction to try Guiteau, because the President died in New Jersey; that the sentence is void, as the day of execution was not fixed within thirty days after the next term of the Supreme Court of the District, and that Judge Cox confused the jury by his charge. Mr. Reed was answered by Col. Corkhill and Mr. Davidge. On Friday afternoon Col. Reed made the closing speech.

It is authoritatively stated in Washington that a decision in the Guiteau case will be rendered on Monday next, overruling all the exceptions and, consequently, affirming the sentence. Mr. Reed, counsel for Guiteau, says that he will then appeal to the Supreme Court of the United States for a writ of habeas corpus, on the ground of lack of jurisdiction.

Guiteau is reported to be very despondent over the supposed decision of the court in banc against him. He says that he now relies wholly on Executive clemency.

John W. Dorsey unexpectedly appeared in court, at a hearing of the Star-route cases in Washington on Tuesday. Bail was fixed at $10,000 and was secured.

The Virginia Bourbons are severely denouncing Senator Mahone on account of his vote with the Republicans, by means of which the Tebbs case was referred to the Committee on the Judiciary. They arraign Mahone on the ground of disloyalty to the Confederate cause. Young Tebbs, who was in the Confederate service, desires to become a surgeon in the United States Navy, and wishes to have the law which forbids ex-Confederates to enter that service set aside as to his case.

The Mississippi Democrats in Congress are disturbed over the fact that General Chalmers, lately replaced in Congress by the colored Republican, Lynch, has gone home with the announced purpose of organizing an Independent movement in Mississippi against the Bourbons. He has issued a circular announcing himself an Independent candidate for Congress.

Nine leading Georgia Independents have indefinitely postponed the mass meeting called for June 1, and urge their followers to support Alexander H. Stephens for Governor.

The Tennessee Senate has passed the bill to refund the State debt at 60 cents for the 100, and 3, 4, 5, and 6 per cent. interest. The lower House will also probably approve it.

The Pennsylvania Republican State Convention met at Harrisburg on Wednesday. Senator Cameron had agreed to give the nomination for Lieutenant-Governor to Charles S. Wolfe, the Independent leader, in order to reconcile that wing of the party. The proposal, however, was so distasteful to Mr. Cameron's followers that he was compelled to restore State Senator Davies to the "slate." The Convention nominated the following ticket: Governor, James A. Beaver; Lieutenant-Governor, William T. Davies; Secretary of Internal Affairs, John M. Greer; Judge of the Supreme Court, William H. Rawle; Congressman-at-large, Thomas M. Marshall. This ticket is Cameron's own, with the exception of the candidate for Congressman-at-large. The discontented elements unexpectedly united in nominating Mr. Marshall. The platform adopted is, substantially, the recent declaration of principles agreed upon by the Stalwarts and Independents at the Philadelphia conference. The leading Independents, such as Senator Mitchell, Wharton Barker, and Francis B. Reeves, are dissatisfied with the arbitrary way in which the ticket was nominated more than with the personnel of the ticket. They assert that the Independent Convention on May 24 will probably nominate a full ticket, though they may approve Marshall for Congressman-at-large.

The Assembly at Albany, on Wednesday, passed a bill providing that in case the carriers of immigrants to the port of New York refuse to pay not less than fifty cents for each alien passenger landed at Castle Garden, to the Commissioners of Emigration, the Commissioners shall be authorized and required to exclude the carriers from landing immigrants at Castle Garden, and from the benefits of the State emigrant institutions at Ward's Island.

A new charge was brought, on Friday, before the Assembly Judiciary Committee of this State, now investigating some of Judge Westbrook's acts. Mr. Rufus F. Andrews wrote a letter alleging that, in proceedings with reference to the Stewart estate before Judge Westbrook in 1878, Judge Hilton paid, through his attorney, $5,000 for the purpose of influencing the decision of the Judge with regard to the substitution of Ira Shafer as attorney for an alleged heir of the late A. T. Stewart, and that Judge Westbrook's decision was in accordance with Judge Hilton's wishes.

The Attorney-General of this State has given an opinion that it would be unconstitutional for the Legislature to enact a law giving women a right to vote.

An Irish-American mass-meeting was held in Cooper Institute, this city, on Friday evening, for the purpose of denouncing the assassination of Lord Cavendish and Mr. Burke, but the time was mostly spent in denunciations of the British Government and the new bill for the repression of crime in Ireland.

Five Bishops were elected on Tuesday by the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, in session at Nashville, Tenn. They are the Rev. A. W. Wilson, D.D., of the Baltimore Conference, the Rev. Athens G. Haygood, President of Emory College, Oxford, Ga., the Rev. J. C. Grandberry, D.D., late Professor of Mental and Moral Philosophy at the Vanderbilt University, the Rev. Lewis Parker, and the Rev. R. Hargrove.

The twenty-second annual Convention of the United States Brewers' Association met in Washington on Wednesday, and remained in session two days. Large sums of money were appropriated for the purpose of opposing prohibition in the Western States.

Crop reports for the past week show that in the Northwest the outlook for a good wheat harvest is excellent. In the South and Southwest, where the wheat is much further advanced, great damage has been done by the prevailing rain and storms.

Brevet Major-General John Gross Barnard, of the Corps of Engineers, U. S. A., died in Detroit, Mich., on Sunday. He was a brother of President Barnard of Columbia College. He was graduated at West Point in 1833, and served in the Mexican war with such credit that he was brevetted Major. His services during the Rebellion were important and meritorious. He was Chief Engineer of the Army of the Potomac in 1862, and on June 5, 1864, was appointed Chief Engineer of the armies of the field, on General Grant's staff. Several important military works were written by him.

Ex-Governor Cadwalader C. Washburn, of Wisconsin, died at Eureka Springs, Ark., on Sunday. He was the youngest of the three brothers who have occupied a prominent place in American politics. He was born in 1818. Early in life he removed from Maine to Wisconsin to practise the legal profession. There he entered politics, and was soon elected to Congress, where he made a good reputation. He served on the Special Committee of Thirty-three which considered President Buchanan's last message, and made recommendations intended to prevent the civil war. In the war he rose to the rank of Major-General. He was elected Governor of Wisconsin in 1871. He

has given very liberally to the Madison, Wis., University.

Mr. E. W. Kingsland, of Jersey City, for twenty years Treasurer of Hudson County, N. J., and President and practical manager of the Provident Institution for Savings, of his city, one of the largest savings banks in the State, attempted to commit suicide, on Friday morning, while alone in his banking-room. He fired five shots at himself from a revolver, one of which took effect, passing in at the right cheekbone and out at the left side of the nose. He regained consciousness late Friday afternoon. The wound is not necessarily fatal. The bank officers say that the funds of the Institution are all right. The Institution was subjected to a run on Friday and Saturday, but met all its obligations promptly. It is supposed that disease, aggravated by worry over many business affairs, caused Mr. Kingsland to attempt suicide. No reverses in business have occurred to him, as far as known.

In the Malley trial at New Haven, during the week, the prosecution has offered testimony to show that during the last two days of Jennie Cramer's life she was almost continually in the company of James and Walter Malley, and Blanche Douglass. The most important testimony offered was that given by a witness who asserted that he saw James Malley and Jennie Cramer together at Savin Rock after eight o'clock on Friday evening, August 5, the supposed night of her death. It is said that the prosecution will soon produce testimony to show that ten months ago Walter Malley purchased four ounces of white oxide of arsenic at a New Haven drug store. The entry was made in the record book of the store.

At three o'clock on Saturday morning the steamship *Pliny*, of the Liverpool, Brazil, and River Plate Mail Steamship Company, from Rio de Janeiro for Brooklyn, ran ashore at Deal Beach, N. J., and foundered. The passengers and crew were rescued by the Life-Saving buoy of Station No. 6. The vessel and cargo are a total loss.

FOREIGN.

In the House of Commons, on Thursday evening, Sir William Harcourt, the Home Secretary, introduced Mr. Gladstone's bill for the repression of crime in Ireland. The bill provides that, in those places where the ordinary law is not observed, special tribunals, consisting of three judges, shall be appointed by the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland to try cases without a jury. The judgment of the court must be unanimous. Appeal can be made to the Supreme Court, which may diminish but not increase the severity of the sentences. Power is given to enter houses, by day or night, under a warrant of the Lord Lieutenant, to search for secret apparatus of murder. Persons prowling around at night, and unable to give an account of themselves, are to be arrested and dealt with summarily. The bill provides for the arrest of strangers and removal of foreigners considered dangerous to the peace —thus reviving the Alien Act. Membership of secret societies is made an offence under this Act. Unlawful meetings are to be dealt with summarily. Seditious newspapers are to be suppressed. Outrages are to be dealt with summarily by courts which are to consist of two stipendiary magistrates. Compensation for murder and outrage will be required of the districts where they occur. The Lord Lieutenant can proclaim districts to which this act may be applied. The bill places almost unlimited authority in the hands of the Lord Lieutenant. Its operation is limited to three years. This measure will be followed by one dealing with the arrears of rent.

In the debate on the Repression Bill, Sir Stafford Northcote said the Opposition desired to give the Government all the assistance in their power, but held them responsible for the way in which they discharged their duty. Mr. Parnell denounced the bill, and declared that it would result in an hundred-fold greater failure than what had gone before. Mr. John Dillon followed with even more vehement denunciation. He said that the bill would bring disaster, and destroy all faith in ultimate justice. The only way to deal with Ireland, he asserted, was to accept the aid of himself and his friends. The bill was passed to a first reading by a vote of 327 to 22, the minority consisting of Home Rulers.

The London *Times* believes that the Repression Bill covers the whole ground and grapples every part of the subject resolutely and boldly. The *Daily Telegraph* and *Standard* have also approved the bill, but it is bitterly assailed by the *Pall Mall Gazette* and Dublin *Freeman's Journal*.

The funeral of Lord Frederick Cavendish took place at Chatsworth, England, on Thursday. Mr. Gladstone appeared among the mourners. It is said that fully 30,000 people witnessed the ceremonies.

On Saturday three arrests were made at a hotel in Cork, on information which it is said will lead to important revelations. The Dublin police have discovered that the name of the man who drove the assassins' car is Rush.

The Dublin police believe that the Irish assassins are now in that city, and that they are afraid that if they should be separated one would turn traitor. Later information shows that at least twelve persons were engaged in the tragedy, and that it is probable they intended to murder eight persons.

Mr. Holden is the Liberal, and Mr. Charles Gathorne-Hardy the Conservative candidate for Lord Frederic Cavendish's seat in the House of Commons.

Mr. Parnell, it is reported, has received police protection, owing to rumors which are current, and to threatening letters which he has received. He has denied the rumor, but it has been ascertained that an application was made for his protection by another Home Ruler, without his knowledge.

A canister twelve inches long and six inches in diameter, filled with blasting powder, was discovered by a policeman on Friday night attached to the railing in front of the Lord Mayor's mansion in London. The policeman extinguished a burning fuse connected with it in time to prevent an explosion. There is no clew to the persons who are connected with the plot.

Messrs. Parnell, Kelley, and Davitt went to Paris on Friday to consult with Mr. Egan, Treasurer of the Land League. It is said that their visit has some significance in view of rumors of a break between the Parnell and Rossa factions of Irish agitators and sympathizers.

Mr. Gladstone introduced the Arrears of Rent Bill in the House of Commons on Monday evening. The bill is limited to tenancies up to £30, Griffith's valuation. It is to be administered by a land commission, before which the tenant will be obliged to prove inability to pay arrears. The bill deals with two years' arrears, and requires the tenant to pay one year's arrears from November, 1880, to November, 1881. When that is paid the whole of the remaining arrears will be cancelled. The Government will contribute the remaining rent from the residue of the Irish Church Surplus Fund, the estimated amount of which is about £1,500,000.

In the House of Commons, on Monday afternoon, Mr. Parnell read a letter, which he wrote to Mr. O'Shea, a Home Ruler, before his release, and which was to the effect that reforms of the Land Act in regard to arrears of rent were necessary, and that on the completion thereof the Land League would do all that was possible to suppress outrages in Ireland, and the Land Leaguers might act cordially with the Liberals, in support of Liberal principles. This letter led to a heated debate on Tuesday. Mr. Gladstone declared that there had been no official communications or stipulations with Mr. Parnell before his release, and that such accusations were a disgrace to those making them

A memorial window of stained glass, presented by Americans to St. Margaret's Church, Westminster, England, inscribed with Raleigh's name, was unveiled on Sunday. Minister Lowell wrote a four-line poetical inscription for the window. Canon Farrar preached he sermon at the unveiling.

Anarchy has again appeared in Egypt. At an audience with the Khedive on Tuesday evening, May 9, Mahmud Barudi, the Prime Minister, insisted on a modification of the decree commuting the sentences of the rebellious Circassian officers. He spoke insultingly of the foreign Consuls, and threatened violence to Europeans. The Khedive declared that he would not yield. The Ministry then, in violation of the Organic Law, summoned a meeting of the Chamber of Notables over the head of the Khedive; their real object being to depose the family of Mehemet Ali, to which the present Khedive belongs, and put Arabi Bey, the present revolutionary Minister of War, at the head of the Government. They entirely rejected the authority of the Khedive, and their relations with the English and French Controllers-General were ruptured.

Unexpectedly, the Egyptian Notables refused to convene on Sunday unless convoked constitutionally. When Arabi Bey heard of their decision he exclaimed: "Then we shall have civil war!" He manifested a disposition to depose the Khedive by an array of force, without the aid of the Notables. One regiment, however, remained true to the Khedive. The situation was still further complicated by an announcement made on Saturday to Arabi Bey that if he attempted to depose the Khedive by means of the army, the Bedouins would enter Cairo. Large bodies of Bedouins had already gathered in lower Egypt.

Mahmud Barudi resigned on Sunday afternoon, and Mustapha Fehmy, Minister of Foreign Affairs, was offered the Presidency of the Council, but refused it. The Khedive then resumed his original attitude toward the Ministry. The Porte on Monday sent a despatch of warning to the Ministry.

Relations were resumed, on Monday, between the Khedive and the Egyptian Ministry, and the latter submitted completely to his authority.

Lord Granville, Foreign Secretary, announced in the House of Lords on Monday that the Government's policy in regard to Egypt was the maintenance of the Sultan and the liberty of the Christian population. They were in accord with the French Government.

The French Mediterranean squadron of Toulon was on Saturday ordered to sail immediately for Egypt, and the English Channel squadron will be ready to join them on May 28.

Bismarck's troublesome Tobacco Monopoly Bill was referred to a committee of 28, by a vote of the German Reichstag, on Saturday.

The Italian Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 172 to 82, has approved the treaty of commerce with France.

Returns for the past four months show that imports in France have increased 78,000,000 francs, and the exports 133,000,000 francs, as compared with the corresponding period last year.

General Kaufmann, one of the Czar's most brilliant soldiers, and Governor of Turkestan, is dead.

The Peruvian Minister at Washington has received despatches from his native country which say that Envoy Trescot reached Huaraz, an interior city, on April 25, and was received by provisional President Montero. He presented the Chilian project of a truce, the principal conditions of which are that Chili should keep the province of Tarapaca as a conquest, and that Peru should be obliged to sell to Chili the province of Arica. Peru rejected the propositions.

TUESDAY, May 16, 1882.

THE THEORY OF THE WORTHINGTON APPOINTMENT.

THE confirmation of Mr. Worthington, the editor of the Boston *Traveller*, as Collector of that city, is not simply a striking illustration of the small amount of importance which men in office attach to platform professions about civil-service reform, but also a striking illustration of the difficulty there is in getting from the defenders of the spoils system a definition of what the spoils system is. It is seldom that any two of them ever tell the same story about it. Whenever they do, it is almost certain that before very long their practice will prove a total denial of their theory. When the reformers say, as the Cincinnati platform said in 1876, that Senators ought not to distribute the appointments, the spoilsmen make answer that nobody is so fit to distribute them, because they know more about the candidates for office and the needs of the public service, in their respective States, than the President can. While we are thinking over this doctrine, however, and asking whether after all there may not be a good deal in it, appointments are made not only without consulting the Senators from the State in which they are made, but in defiance of them. So, also, when the reformers say that merit ought to rule in the work of selecting candidates, the spoilsmen acknowledge that merit ought to rule, but say that in seeking for merit, and rewarding it, you should also aim at promoting the harmony and efficiency of the party organization in the place where the appointment is made. But it is not at all improbable that, while we are turning this rule over in our mind, we shall hear of an appointment made, not only without the consent of the Senators, but in the teeth of the violent opposition of a majority of the party in the State.

Nor is the puzzle diminished by consulting the speeches and articles of the spoilsmen, for they never hang together about a single point in their system. When Messrs. Conkling and Platt resigned last year, they wrote a long letter justifying their course. In that letter they attacked the appointment of Mr. Robertson to the New York Custom-house on the ground that the Senators had not been consulted about it; that neither the interests of the party nor those of the public service would be promoted by it; that it was wrong to remove without cause, to make places for those whom "the President or a member of his Cabinet may wish to repay for being recreant to others or serviceable to him"; and also wrong to "put a man who had no training for the position, and could not be said to have any special fitness for it," into a vacancy made by the dismissal of "an experienced officer." That President Arthur was heartily in sympathy with these views then is fairly to be inferred from the fact that he went to Albany and lobbied vigorously, in the teeth of much public condemnation, to procure from the Legislature an endorsement of the resignation of the two Senators. If it be said that Mr. Robertson's appointment differed from Mr. Worthington's in that his predecessor was removed in the middle of his term, the answer is that President Arthur disposed of this distinction in his first message, in which he laid it down that the tenure of public functionaries should be "stable." The law does not say that Collectors shall be dismissed at the end of four years. It simply says that they shall require a fresh commission.

Now, however, the President has done in Boston everything which, either as logical spoilsmen, or logical civil-service reformers, or faithful readers of his own biography, we had a right to expect him not to do. He has appointed a Collector in defiance of the Senators of the State, and in defiance of the Republican merchants and importers of the city, and of the best portion of the party; he has removed an experienced officer to make way for a man without the slightest experience, and in doing so has shown that he does not believe in his own doctrine that the tenure of office should be stable. To convict him, or the Republican Senators who voted to confirm his nominee, of inconsistency or bad faith is, however, a matter of small importance. The chief use of the incident lies in the proof it affords of the very small account which reformers should take of the professions contained in platforms and messages. Party managers began to make these in 1868, and have continued to make them with growing unction ever since. They are substantial admissions that in their opinion the public is becoming more and more convinced of the need of a change in the constitution of the civil service in order to arrest the degradation of the Government which the present system works. But they are evidently nothing more than this. They do not mean that the managers will take any active steps for reform until some stronger pressure than has yet been applied begins to be felt. They are really neither pledges nor promises.

What is now needed is the attack of the spoils system at the polls by voting against every candidate, by whomsoever nominated, who is not sound on this subject; or, in other words, by making the reform "the main question" until it is embodied in or fortified by legislation. No reform is ever effected until it has become a main question for enough voters to terrify men seeking election or reëlection. Such performances as the Worthington confirmation will continue to occur, until the Senators who vote for them come to believe that they thereby imperil their continuance in public life, and until the Senators who vote against them come to believe that they thereby give themselves a stronger hold than before on their constituents. The present position of the civil-service reform question is in fact highly demoralizing to our public men, and has done much to debauch the Republican party. Nothing can be worse for a party organization than the maintenance of a recognized piece of humbug. Hypocrisy is a bad thing for individuals, but it is worse for congregations. A single hypocrite almost always believes his neighbors are sincere, and this saves him from utter shamelessness; but when a whole assembly agree to play the hypocrite together, there is nothing between them and total moral ruin.

THE PLANS FOR THE RELIEF OF THE SUPREME COURT.

THE two reports of the Committee of the American Bar Association on the Supreme Court show a radical difference of opinion on the whole subject. The majority, five in number, favor the plan of an intermediate Appellate Court in the several circuits. The minority, four in number, favor that of a division of business among the judges according to their convenience. They have abandoned the idea that a permanent division of the Court itself would be necessary. They say that the "sections" ought "not to be made up by permanent assignment of judges, but by such system of division as the Court may from time to time find expedient; no judge to sit upon review of his own decision; and the causes not to be distributed by their subjects, but according to the discretion of the Court, under such regulations for the despatch of business as they may deem expedient." Causes of which the Court has original jurisdiction, and all those involving questions under the Constitution or treaties of the United States, would be heard, as now, before the whole Court, and the Court would of course have power to direct any cause to be so argued, if it seemed advisable.

The minority of the Committee insists with much earnestness that this scheme does not contravene the provision of the Constitution requiring that the judicial power of the United States shall be vested "in one Supreme Court." In the first place, they say in any case the whole Court would determine what causes should be heard by a division; that division, upon hearing the cause, would determine whether a hearing before the whole Court should be required, and if required it would be had; upon the report by a division of a decision arrived at, it would still remain competent for the whole Court to require a further argument; and all judgments, when finally pronounced, would be judgments of the whole Court. Again, it has always been understood that Congress has power to decide how many judges should form a quorum of the Court:

> "They have exercised that power, and the constitutionality of their action has never been questioned. By the statute now in force, six judges are made necessary for a quorum. In the absence of any statute, five judges, being a majority of the Court, would upon common principles be sufficient. Whence did Congress derive the power to enact that more than a majority should be requisite for that purpose, unless under the clause of the Constitution above quoted? And if that clause confers the power, as it is conceded, what limit does it prescribe to the exercise of that power? The whole subject is left in the hands of Congress. It may be said that if Congress can make four judges a quorum for certain purposes, then it may make one a quorum, which would be a perversion and abuse of the functions of the Court. Perhaps they may. The safeguard is in the wisdom and discretion of Congress, in their responsibility to their constituents, and in the potency of public opinion."

The majority does not attempt any reply to this argument drawn from the power of Congress to prescribe the number of judges which shall constitute a quorum, perhaps because they see that it goes too far to have much weight. Whatever the exact object of the founders of the Government was in vesting the judicial authority of the Government in "one Supreme Court," it certainly could not have been their intention to give Congress au-

thority to vest it in a single judge. Such an authority would give Congress a power dangerous to the last degree to public rights and to the security of life and property. The majority, however, do not point this out, but content themselves with reiterating the assertion that judgments of the Court on the proposed plan would be wholly void.

As we have before now pointed out, there is only one way of settling this dispute about the meaning of the phrase "one Supreme Court" as used in the Constitution. The judges of the Court can tell, and no one else in the universe can. If they think that the Constitution requires that causes must be heard by the whole Court or a majority of the judges, then it does so require, and any such bill as that proposed by the majority is so much waste paper. If they do not, then the names attached to the minority scheme as well as the simplicity of the plan itself entitle it to the most serious attention. The question will undoubtedly come up in the House, and we trust that when it does some one will be able to say, authoritatively, what the opinions of the judges are with regard to it. The existence of serious judicial doubts on the subject is enough; there would be a glaring absurdity, after all the years of delay in reaching the point at which Congressional legislation seems possible, in conferring powers which might turn out to be wholly void, and the case seems to be one in which the opinions of the judges should be communicated to Congress in some way in advance.

The fact that lawyers of such high standing as Messrs. Evarts and Merrick still insist strenuously on the scheme of "sections," is hardly explicable unless they believe that there is nothing in the constitutional objection. It is high time that this fundamental question should be settled. We have little doubt that the opinion of the Court is sufficiently adverse to the minority scheme to make it a waste of time to continue to carry on the contest over it, and the sooner the attention of the profession is devoted wholly to criticism of the Senate bill, the better. There are many parts of this which need the most searching examination and criticism that can be given. Messrs. Phelps, Parker, Evarts, and Merrick solemnly warn the country that "the proposition to create nine local sub-executive departments, or nine local Congresses, to sit for even limited Federal purposes in widely-distant sections of the country, would be justly regarded as almost the certain forerunner, if adopted, of so many ultimate divisions of the Union"; and the inference which they draw from this assumption is that a system of local appellate courts is fraught with the same danger. We must do them the justice to suppose that they really believe this, and, if so, we are brought face to face with the extraordinary alternative of a bill for the relief of the Supreme Court declared by one-half of the best lawyers of the country to be wholly void, and another declared by the remainder likely to entail a dissolution of the Union. This gloomy suggestion is unsupported by any very effective argument, but the minority is bound to do its utmost to protect us against any such disastrous possibility by securing such amendments and modifications of the majority scheme as are practicable, rather than by continuing to insist upon a scheme which in all human probability cannot get through Congress, and even then might be declared void by the Court itself.

THE PENNSYLVANIA CONVENTION.

The practice of nominating candidates for election by the people in party conventions rests upon the theory that such conventions are composed of faithful representatives of the party, freely chosen by the members thereof in local primary meetings. In this way conventions were expected to give true expression to the will and wishes of the majority as to the policy as well as the candidates of the party. That it was so immediately upon the adoption of the system, and for some time afterward, cannot be doubted. But in Pennsylvania and some other States things have been greatly simplified since. For years we have not been so fortunate as to see there a free and full conference of delegates as to what the rank and file of the party in different localities desired, or as to what it would be best to do for the benefit of the party and the promotion of its cause; but we have seen a certain leader of the party quietly establish his headquarters in a hotel of the town where the Convention was to take place, and without much circumlocution inform the Convention, through his lieutenants or aids, what candidates he wanted to have nominated, and what platform adopted, and it was done. This leader had the public patronage at his disposal, and by its use attached to himself a large following. When the time for a Convention approached he considered in his own mind what men it was best to nominate for the offices to be filled, so that his own power might thereby be confirmed and fortified; next he directed his henchmen to secure the election of delegates to the Convention who would be obedient to his will; and then he ordered the latter in a business-like way to "put through" the nomination of the candidates determined upon by him, which in an equally business-like way they did. In this style the Camerons, father and son, have ruled the Republican party of Pennsylvania for many a year. And this power they have hoped and expected to keep in the family, and to bequeath from sire to son, as long as there should be a party in Pennsylvania to boss and an office to occupy or to give away. In pursuance whereof, Mr. Cameron, the younger, held his State Convention at Harrisburg on the 10th instant.

But there is always a spirit of rebellion against so simple a form of government, demanding that the people should have something to say in these things; and that rebellious spirit has become so painfully apparent of late as to oblige the reigning Mr. Cameron to give it some consideration. It had shown itself obstreperous and troublesome in 1880; it had actually gathered 50,000 "Independent" voters in support of a revolt last year, and it threatened to do worse this summer. Mr. Cameron, therefore, instructed his confidential lieutenants to meet the leaders of the rebellious Independents in conference some time ago, so that "harmony" might be restored; "harmony" meaning, in the understanding of the boss, an agreement upon certain terms on which his power over the good things of this world would be acquiesced in by the rebellious spirits. In that conference the lieutenants of Boss Cameron, for the sake of "harmony," agreed to a string of resolutions in which in every form of speech the boss system was condemned as a very bad thing, and various measures recommended to put an end to it; and these resolutions were also to be adopted as the platform of Mr. Cameron's Convention at Harrisburg. They agreed also that some men who had hitherto been objectionable to the boss should be put on Mr. Cameron's slate as candidates. But upon one thing the lieutenants insisted: that Mr. Cameron's Convention as called must be held this year, and that his candidates for the places of real power must be accepted; in other words, they insisted that the boss should keep in his hands all the strong instruments of power, for present and future use, while giving to the Independents, for the sake of "harmony," some less important places and no end of declarations on paper.

Mr. Cameron's Convention on Wednesday carried out the orders given it by the boss, at least substantially. It received the resolutions agreed upon in the conference, which lustily condemn the boss system with all its methods, with sly winks and "derisive laughter," but nevertheless it adopted them without balking. They had been changed in committee only in one point, making the packing of primary meetings a little easier. The Convention nominated the candidates determined upon by Mr. Cameron one after another, with the exception of the last one, for the place of Congressman-at-large; but with regard to that nomination Mr. Cameron had already signified his gracious willingness that the Convention should be allowed a little latitude. In short, Mr. Cameron's programme was carried out substantially without any difficulty.

And yet, the boss is not as serene as he once was. There are two very dark spots on the horizon. One is that, although his programme has been carried out, it was not such a programme as he would have resolved upon had he been free to act. As it stands it is a confession that he is no longer free to do as he pleases, and that he no longer feels himself master of the situation. He was compelled to treat with the rebels against his rule. He had to submit to humiliating conditions. Of course, he cares nothing about platform paragraphs, but it is after all not pleasant to him to have resolutions condemning his whole political existence adopted by his own Convention. It may be of comparatively little importance to him what man holds this or that place without political influence. But it certainly jars upon his feelings to acknowledge the necessity of nominating men who have been his enemies, especially such a man as Mr. Thomas Marshall, of Pittsburg. Altogether he has had to take pills very bitter for the head of a reigning family.

But that is not the worst of it. All these concessions and humiliations will, after all, not "harmonize" the Independents. The most influential leaders of the latter are loudly declaring that the adoption of anti-boss

and civil-service reform resolutions by the boss's own henchmen, who do not believe a word of it, is nothing better than a roaring farce; that promises of this kind, made by such men without immediate performance, are written in water; that while Mr. Cameron's lieutenants are making such promises, he himself is dealing in appointments and removals in the old spoils and boss fashion; that the nominations dictated by Mr. Cameron are to be opposed, not on the ground that they are particularly bad, but that they are dictated in a despotic way by a boss, instead of being resolved upon in an open consultation of the party by freely chosen representatives; and finally that, while the Independents want to be Republicans, they do not want in any way to support and serve a party owned by Mr. Cameron. The Independents will therefore hold a Convention of their own toward the end of this month, and it is thought that they will also nominate candidates against those selected by the boss. In that case the defeat of Mr. Cameron's ticket is very probable, and boss rule may before the end of this year be as dead in Pennsylvania as it is now in New York. It may be considered now in an exceedingly precarious condition.

THE NEW POLICY IN IRELAND.

We greatly fear that the opportunity for a new departure in Ireland, on the part of the Liberals, which the feeling excited by the late murders created, has been destroyed by the new bill introduced by Sir William Harcourt on Thursday. The main objection to it is not that it suspends trial by jury and gives the Lord Lieutenant almost unlimited power of search and seizure, and greatly increases the summary jurisdiction of the magistrates—for all these things may be necessary—but that all these things are done without the advice or consent or approbation of that portion of the House of Commons which really represents the bulk of the Irish people. The first reading was passed by 327 to 22. Twenty-two is a wretchedly small minority, it is true, but if the experience of the past two years proves anything, it proves that it is these twenty-two who speak for the great body of the Irish population in the West and South, and that any legislation, and especially any legislation of a penal character, which they condemn is likely to prove abortive. It is, therefore, to our minds, all but certain that Parnell's prediction that the present bill will prove a complete failure will be literally fulfilled, and that before the end of the three years for which it is to be enacted the Government will have to acknowledge this and ask for other and greater powers. Mr. Dillon's remark that the only way to deal with Ireland was "to accept the aid of himself and his friends," contained the whole philosophy of the Irish situation. Mr. Goschen's answer, in which, according to the telegram, he "repudiated the notion that the kingdom was to look to members steeped in treason for protection to life and property in Ireland," contained in one short sentence the secret of English failure to protect life and property in Ireland—a failure which, as they have not been protected over a period of nearly two hundred years, may be considered well established, and, indeed, somewhat notorious. The main object of English attempts in this direction is—as that of the attempts to subjugate the American colonies, which Burke so mercilessly exposed, was—not so much to restore order, as to restore it in the way most gratifying to English pride. There has been no period of English history when persons hostile to English authority in any part of the world were not considered by English opinion "persons steeped in treason," whom it would be degrading to England to treat with or conciliate. In other words, Mr. Goschen expressed exactly the sentiment which lost the American colonies, and which would have lost Ireland in the last century also, had Ireland been further away, stronger, and more civilized.

The difficulty in the way of the protection of life and property in Ireland has never been that there were not police enough, or courts enough, or jails enough, or judges enough, or summary jurisdiction enough, or penalties enough. In 1827, a bill was passed under which a man was liable to transportation for seven years, or, in other words, to penal servitude beyond the seas, for being found in a public house between nine o'clock at night and six in the morning, for precisely the same purpose for which it is proposed to pass the present bill. The Irish difficulty has always lain in the fact that the people were not on the side of the law, and that even if they disapproved of the crime they would not capture or testify against the criminal. The statesmen who should overcome this, and make them feel that the law was their law and they were responsible for its execution, would solve the Irish problem, in so far as crime and outrage are concerned. We do not say that this can be done in a day; but if the opportunity afforded by the Cavendish-Burke murders had been seized, and the Home Rulers had been taken into counsel and been asked to draft the measure for the suppression of secret societies and the prompt punishment of murderers and intimidators, a long step would have been made toward it. Those remarkable powers of combination which are now used to screen criminals and baffle the police, would probably have been turned in the other direction, and the national pride or vanity—in Ireland a very powerful force—would probably have produced extraordinary exertions to give England and the world an example of what the Irish could do in the way of self-government. This has not been done, however. A great opportunity has been again allowed to slip by. The new bill will be received as a fresh English insult to the Irish people, and the chances are that the assassins and intimidators will find their task easier than ever. If any one asks how we know this, our answer is that we know it from the history of about fifty other bills of the same character tried within the last hundred and twenty years.

Of course it is very likely that with such a Secretary as Mr. Trevelyan, and such a Lord Lieutenant as Earl Spencer, the Act will be executed in such manner as to cause the least possible amount of irritation. But the least possible amount of irritation which such a measure can cause is sure to be very great, because in Ireland, no matter who holds the reins of government in Dublin, a Coercion Act has to be executed by an army of functionaries who have been long used to consider the people as a conquered people, and who by no endeavor can ever give arbitrary searches, arbitrary prohibitions of meetings, arbitrary suppressions of newspapers, arbitrary arrests for being out at night, a mild or conciliatory character. The whole scheme is in short a huge mistake, committed, as hundreds like it have been committed, in deference to English opinion on the one subject of all subjects in the world on which English opinion is probably least informed, most prejudiced, and most misleading—the remedy for Irish turbulence.

THE COMING PUBLIC LIBRARY IN NEW YORK.

The commandment, "Thou shalt not look a gift horse in the teeth," has been repeatedly disobeyed by New York in the matter of the Astor and Lenox libraries. From their very foundation there has been a constant succession of newspaper criticisms on the management, chiefly finding fault with their inaccessibility, which is declared to be so great that they do not deserve to be called public libraries. But it may be doubted whether Mr. Astor and Mr. Lenox ever thought of establishing public libraries in the sense in which that term has come to be understood of late.

The Lenox is not a library at all, but a museum—a collection not of books to read but of books to show. Here, perhaps, it may be allowed that the founder's name was a misnomer. But he never styled it the Lenox Public Library. It was in fact his private museum of book rarities, which grew too large to be kept entirely to himself, and so was ordered to be opened occasionally to the public, like the picture-gallery in an English nobleman's country mansion. It is a little more difficult to get access to the Lenox Library than to a Duke's castle, to be sure, and the library is open fewer days in the week than most of the English show houses; but that is a matter of detail. On the other hand, Mr. Lenox magnificently built a separate house for his book-gallery, which is an ornament to the handsomest part of the city, and another reason why New Yorkers should not be dissatisfied. Moreover, he put it out of the power of himself and his heirs to sell the collection—a termination of galleries and libraries which is not unexampled. Whatever rights the public has in the library are secured to it forever. The right to complain is not among the number.

As to the Astor, the library was hardly ope when people began to show their ingratitude. A collection of 80,000 volumes was nothing if the books could not be taken home. They wanted a circulating, not a reference, library. It was of no use to compare the British Museum, and urge the comfort of being sure that all the books in such a library will be there when one wants them, and to point out that a book which has been taken home practically does not belong to the library; all this did not avail to prevent a constant succession of reproaches. However, on this point the trustees stood firm; no book has been allowed to go outside of the walls, and nearly a generation has exhausted itself in futile grumblings. Side by side with this was a real grievance, if there can be a grievance where there is no right. Granting, it was said, that it is best to confine the books to the building, why limit their use to hours when no man who has his living to earn can go to the building? If you would let us study the books at home, even a

couple of hours a day might be enough for their delivery and return; but if you oblige us to come to the library, let it be open at hours when we can come; and let it be open long enough to enable students from the country or from other cities to get a full day's work. Some of us cannot afford to live in New York for only six hours' work a day.

Now, if the library had been a public institution, supported by the people's money, this would have been, we repeat, a real grievance, calling for very strong language, as showing that the trustees entirely failed to comprehend the public needs. But the case was different with a privately-founded library. The trustees must be assumed to have comprehended the wishes of the founders, for the founders were members of the Board. They could not have intended the library to be of use—at least of convenient use—to the mechanic, the clerk, the merchant, the professional man. It was plainly designed for those who are not tied down to any fixed hours of employment during the day. These should have been, and probably were moderately grateful. Other people ought to have held their peace, as the matter did not concern them at all. Lawyers might as well have complained because a medical library did not contain law books, and was accessible only at hours when they were engaged in court. Nevertheless, the outcry was so loud on this point that, after twenty-seven years' resistance, the authorities last year lengthened the opening an hour at each end; and there are even rumors, the wish perhaps being father to the thought, that at a not too distant future a room will be opened in the evening where books can be studied for which orders have been left either in person or by mail during the day. When that is done it will be in human nature to complain that the light is poor and the ventilation bad. If we may argue from a considerable experience of evening reading-rooms, both assertions will be true, but we hope they will not be publicly made, at least till the newness of the favor is a little worn off.

But now a new objection has been brought forward which at least avoids the charge of ingratitude. You may not too closely inquire into the age of the nag given you by a kind friend, but suppose the present prevents another friend from giving you an Arab steed, because you are thought to be well provided for in the matter of horseflesh. May you not ask your friend to take back his gift, or may you not let it be generally known that you are not quite satisfied with the slow gait and staid demeanor of your dobbin? This is what a contemporary critic has done:

> "While the Astor Library continues to exist and to grow in superficial area and in the number of its hoarded volumes, the State will not give us what we need; the legislator at Albany will point to the ponderous and drowsy building in Lafayette Place. Let the Astor stand out of the way."

We must say that the suggestions here, actual and implied, do not strike us favorably. It is not easy to see how the Astor can "stand out of the way"; it is not at all likely that the legislator at Albany will give a library to New York city out of the State fund; and the proposition to add a new screw to the "Machine" is one which taxpayers will regard with dismay.

The true solution is not a State grant, not a city establishment managed by a political commission, not an institution founded by one man for objects dear to him alone; but a fund raised by combined generosity, where no one person can have a prevailing influence, vested in the hands of trustees who, receiving it for the public use, will be sensitively on the watch for all methods by which the public good can be furthered; not committed to any one policy, but able to reshape their course from time to time as experience teaches them. Such a library will not need to demand that any of the older ones shall stand out of the way, for those to whom the new organization will look for support will never imagine that the older libraries supply the need. Moreover, it has been noticed elsewhere that a little rivalry between public institutions is a useful stimulus to the generosity of their friends. The late lengthening of the hours at the Astor gives ground for hope that its arrangements may in time be so modified as to meet the requirements of busy as well as of leisurely students; the Mercantile, the Young Men's, and the Apprentices' will supply certain somewhat different needs, and the New York Free Library will cover all the ground that is left; for it is incredible that any institution which does so much good work should long be allowed to labor with such inadequate means. This is not so showy a method as that of meeting all wants by one great public institution, as at Boston; but perhaps it may turn out to be as useful in the end, and as well suited to the circumstances under which the apparently rather clumsy system will have grown up.

SOUTHERN PINE.

THE future of the Northwestern lumber industry has already been discussed at some length in these columns, in the light of Prof. Sargent's investigation into the forest wealth of the United States. Forestry Bulletins covering several of the Southern States have lately been issued by the Census Office, and it is now for the first time possible to obtain an accurate idea of the extent and composition of the great maritime pine belt which stretches from Virginia nearly to the Brazos. The statement that, at the present rate of consumption, twelve years would practically exhaust the pine of the Lake Region, must have seemed startling to persons unfamiliar with the actual condition of the Northwestern pineries. It will be no less a surprise, even to those best informed in regard to Southern forests, to learn that Louisiana contains over 84 billion feet of merchantable pine, or more than was left standing at the end of the census year in Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota; or that Arkansas, which has never been looked upon as a great pine State, contains, in addition to its unrivalled hard-wood forests, over 41 billion feet of yellow pine, or rather more than the amount of white pine credited to Wisconsin. Texas is believed to possess some 67 billion feet of pine. These three States contain more than 190 billion feet of merchantable pine, or more than double the amount supposed to remain in the three Lake States from which of late years the country has been chiefly supplied with white pine. The Southern pine belt, running through nine States, is believed to have contained, at the end of the census year, not less than 255 billion feet of merchantable pine, or enough to last, at the rate of consumption of that year, some two hundred and fifty years.

The value of this great body of timber is enormous, and must have an important influence in developing the material prosperity of the South. But because Southern forests contain a greater amount of pine than they have been supposed to contain, the almost total destruction of the white pine of the North is none the less a national calamity. The Southern forests produce no pine which can take the place of white pine. The long-leaved pine, of which the forests of the Southern coast are largely composed, is one of the most valuable timber-trees. The wood of no other pine at all equals it in strength or fitness for all kinds of heavy construction. It is, however, as compared with white pine, difficult to work, especially when seasoned, and so full of resin as to be unfit for those uses to which white pine is universally applied. The yellow pine of Arkansas, which also covers much of Louisiana and eastern Texas, is a valuable building material, although inferior to the long-leaved pine in strength, and without the peculiar qualities of the white pine. The destruction of the white pine will deprive Eastern America of her most available and, all things considered, most generally valuable lumber, and Southern pine, whatever its value, can never take its place.

The study of the actual condition of our forests indicates important commercial changes which may be expected to grow out of the changing conditions of the lumber trade. New Orleans seems destined at no distant day to become one of the greatest lumber-distributing and manufacturing centres of the world. Its position with reference to vast forests, its commercial importance, and the ease with which logs may reach it by river and lake, point to this conclusion. A great deal of Northern capital has been invested during the last few months in Southern timber lands, and the number of persons seeking such investments is rapidly increasing. The best-informed Northern lumbermen realize at last that the time has come when they must seek new fields for their operations or abandon the business entirely. These men are getting ready to move their mills, capital, and energy into the South; and their attention is naturally directed to the Gulf States. The outlook for new investments of this sort in the South Atlantic States is not favorable. The four Atlantic pine States, including the whole of Florida, contain less than 24 billion feet of pine. The most accessible timber, situated along the streams and railroads, has already been removed, and much of the remainder has been injured in the manufacture of turpentine. Alabama and Mississippi contain great bodies of pine, but in the three pine States west of the Mississippi, pine forests in which the sound of the logger's axe has never been heard extend over tens of thousands of square miles. Here during the next twenty-five years will be seen, we believe, the great lumbering operations of the continent—if, indeed, these forests can supply during twenty-five years the demands which will probably be made upon them. It is not easy to foresee how great these demands will be. The population of an enormous territory must procure its building materials from these trans-Mississippi pineries. From the Brazos to the Sierra Nevada of California, except on the high and usually inaccessible mountain range of the Southern Rocky Mountain region, a tree fit to saw into boards does not grow. The northern Mexican plateau is destitute of valuable forests, and must depend, with growing prosperity, upon the United States for its lumber. West of El Paso, the country will be supplied from the Pacific Coast; east of El Paso—that is, all of Texas and the provinces of northeastern Mexico—it must draw its lumber from the pine forests immediately west of the Mississippi River. It is needless to point out how rapidly western Texas is now becoming settled, or to estimate even the growing demand made upon these particular forests. Their position with reference to a treeless, although rich agricultural and grazing, region insures their entire destruction at no very distant day.

The demand for Southern pine for Northern consumption and export is rapidly increasing also, and the country must not make the mistake, which it made first in regard to the pine supply of Maine, and then in regard to the pine supply of Pennsylvania and Michigan, and which the Californians are now making in regard to their redwood, and conclude that, because the Southern States contain vast quantities of pine

the supply will last for ever. No forest is inexhaustible if nothing is done to protect or perpetuate it. The recklessness which has marked the management of forest property at the North has not been wanting in the South. The Southern pine forest, as it stands to-day, is mature throughout, and ready for the axe. No young trees are coming up to take the place of those which have reached, or nearly reached, their prime. The custom, first instituted by the Indians, it is said, has long prevailed in the South, of carefully burning over every spring the whole territory occupied by the pine forest, to improve the poor and scanty grazing the forests afford. A more ingenious system for destroying the permanent value of a forest could not have been devised. A forest fire kindled every year does not find much to feed upon, and cannot burn long enough to greatly injure the old trees, but it sweeps up the humus from the surface of the ground, destroys the vitality of any seed that may have fallen during the winter, and exterminates all seedlings and young trees.

Looking forward fifty years, the future of these forests is not brilliant, and, unless some general change of management can be initiated, their extermination is inevitable. It may take a few years less or a few years more, as the country is prosperous or otherwise, to find a market for the 255 billion feet of lumber which Prof. Sargent tells us these forests may be expected to contain; but unless fire and grazing animals can be excluded from them, their days are numbered. The South has only to turn to Maine, New York, Pennsylvania, or Michigan, to learn how quickly forests which were only a few years ago deemed inexhaustible may melt away before reckless disregard of the simplest laws of nature.

"THE RANTZAUS."

PARIS, April 27.

"LES RANTZAU" is the great event of the Théâtre-Français, as "Francesca de Rimini" is the great event of the Opéra. MM. Erkmann-Chatrian were very successful in adapting their novel of 'Ami Fritz' to the stage, and they were fortunate enough to have their piece played by the best actors in the world. The "Ami Fritz" was at first very much criticised: it was not dramatic; it was a mere succession of tableaux; there was too much eating and drinking; and even love was too much intermixed with gourmandizing. All this must be admitted. Nevertheless, there is all through "Ami Fritz" a freshness, a natural exhibition of the simplest emotions of the human heart, a certain sort of rural innocence, which conquered the Parisian public, blasé as it is, and perhaps because it is blasé. I have heard "Ami Fritz" so often that I know every intonation, every gesture of the actors, and I must confess that I can still hear it with pleasure. It is so really "Alsatian," it brings back the healthy odors of the Vosges; the noisy gayety of *Fritz* and of his friends seems to do me good, and to scatter the mist from my thoughts.

I was, therefore, quite prepared to admire "The Rantzaus"; and in order not to spoil my pleasure, I did not read the novel, 'The Two Brothers,' which served as a canvas for the piece. I knew that M. Perrin, the director of the Français, had taken the greatest pains: that the scenery was true; that the best actors played in the piece—Got, Worms, Maubant; that Mlle. Bartet was to be the heroine; and Mlle. Bartet, though she is only one of the minor stars of the French stage, has a very pure and delicate light. I must confess that I was much disappointed. The story of "The Rantzaus" is very simple; it is even common. Two branches of a family are separated by a great hatred, and the two descendants fall in love with each other. It is the story of the Capulets and the Montagus, of "Romeo and Juliet," transferred to a country village of Alsace. But in order to give something poetical to this subject, you must give some poetical cause to the family hatred; you must give it the character of a vendetta: some crime must be avenged. Mérimée did not forget this rule in his admirable 'Colomba,' which is a Corsican version of the old story. The great and almost revolting defect of "The Rantzaus" is the terrible vulgarity of the cause of the family hatred: the two brothers hate each other, and for thirty years keep up one against the other a state of perpetual and savage warfare, merely because their father's will did not leave them equal parts in the inheritance—one of the Rantzaus received as much more than the other as the French law allows. For two brothers, this *quotité disponible*, as the law calls it, is one-third; one of the brothers having two-thirds, the other only one-third (with three children, the disposable amount which can be given to one of them in excess is one-fourth; with four children, it is one-fifth, etc.). The hatred of the Rantzaus is as vulgar in its origin as it is in its expression: the two brothers bid against each other whenever there is a piece of meadow to be sold in the valley; they fight each other with the help of notaries and lawyers. It is impossible to take any interest in two such disagreeable creatures; and, as they are perpetually on the scene, the whole piece is spoiled by their presence.

I will add, also, that the two Rantzaus having no real local coloring, the piece is not truly Alsatian, as is "Ami Fritz." It might just as well take place in Burgundy, in Provence, in Brittany—wherever there are any avaricious people. Even the dress of the Rantzaus is disagreeable; they are bourgeoisie rather than peasants, and are dressed in the fashion of 1820. Maubant and Got reminded me all the time, with their top-boots and their odd hats, of some very absurd dramas I once saw at the Porte Saint-Martin or at the Ambigu. The lovers are not much more interesting than their parents. The girl dresses as a demoiselle; she has not the pretty country costume which Mlle. Reichenberg wears in "Ami Fritz." She is a silly, foolish young thing, who says nothing bright; she is in perpetual fear of her father, who is a brute, and who beats her when she refuses to marry the man he intended her to marry—the elegant *garde-général* of the state forces, an official with a fine green uniform embroidered with silver. The scene between Rantzau and his daughter is absolutely revolting. The poor girl does not even avow her secret love for her cousin; she is hardly conscious of it; she simply says that she will not marry the *garde-général*, and she asks permission to enter the convent of Molsheim, where she received her education. This declaration drives Rantzau to such a pitch of fury that he positively knocks his daughter to the ground.

Such scenes are not made for the French Theatre. The audience at the first representation was shocked and dissatisfied; but this is a picked audience, and experience shows that it no longer makes public opinion. There is in reality no public opinion left in theatrical matters; the directors can play almost anything they like, as there are always hosts of foreigners and of *provinciaux* in Paris. The railways bring every day an enormous floating population, which rushes to all the theatres. The same piece can be played a hundred, two hundred, sometimes three hundred times. Even when people hear that a play is not good, they will see it once for curiosity's sake. Our age can really be called a theatrical age. Thirty years ago "The Rantzaus" would not have been tolerated at the Porte Saint-Martin; it is tolerated now at the French Theatre.

The end of Erckmann-Chatrian's new piece is of course the reconciliation of the Alsatian Capulets and Montagus. It is brought about by the coarsest means. The young daughter falls ill, almost unto death, and is cured by the simple means found long ago in the "Amour Médecin." The favorite character in the piece is a schoolmaster, who acts as go-between, for the two Rantzaus hate each other so fiercely that without this intermediate character there could be no communication, no play at all. The schoolmaster's part is played by Coquelin; and it must be said, in justice to him, that he filled the rôle of a country schoolmaster—good, virtuous, sentimental, the friend of every woman and child in the village—with a singular perfection. The schoolmaster is in this play what the rabbi was in "Ami Fritz": he is sententious, he says things which might be put in schoolbooks, he is timid, he is kindly, he succeeds in his undertakings by the mere force of truth and of virtue. He discovers the secret passion of the two lovers; he brings them together; he is the universal confidant. His bonhomie is in striking contrast with the coarseness and ill-temper of the Rantzaus. However, if such a part were not played by an actor like Coquelin, it would be simply insipid and dull.

It is really a pity to find so great a distance between the production and its interpretation—such admirable instruments employed in such ordinary work; but such seems to be the destiny of the stage at present. The multitude of spectators accept almost any sort of theatrical work upon two conditions: the *mise-en-scène*, the scenery, must be a pleasure to the eye, and the actors must be as perfect as possible. The importance given to the material accessories of the stage—furniture, chairs, curtains, etc.—is not a very good omen; for it implies that the spectators care less for the drama itself than for its *cadre* or mounting. They know when a room is furnished in the Louis XIII. or Louis XV. style; but do they know as well what forms the play of the eternal human passions took at these periods? The importance given to the actor himself, to his personality, is also a bad symptom; it is not well that the papers should be informed every day of whatever concerns the life of every eminent actor or actress, with as much care as if they were kings or queens. We are positively invaded by what the Parisian calls vulgarly the *cabotin*. A Republican actor was once hissed, toward the year 1831. He advanced gravely to the front of the stage, and said: "Are these hisses for the actor, or are they for the citizen?" "They are for the *cabotin*," answered somebody. The *cabotins* are now everywhere and everything. I dare say—I am sure—there are in the theatrical profession some good, conscientious, even some virtuous people; but it cannot be denied that the profession of actor has never been regarded as one which tends to elevate the character of a man or of a woman. There have been a few very great men and women, in England, in France, in Italy, who showed real genius on the stage, and who associated with the best people of their time; but this is the exception which confirms the rule. Actors and actresses have lately become too prominent. I do not object, in one sense, to the decoration of the Legion of Honor given last year to M. Got, of the Comédie-Française, though it seems strange to associate an order of chivalry with *Mascarille*, or some other parts. I suppose some of the subscribers of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* will not object to the article written in the last number on a play of Molière's by M. Coquelin, who takes the part

of the schoolmaster in "The Rantzaus." In this article M. Coquelin comes out again as schoolmaster, and explains his views on the woman question. His article has nothing very new or original, and its style, though it is not bad, can hardly be compared with that of Fénelon in his 'Éducation des Filles.' These incidents, trifling in themselves, show, however, one thing: the actors and actresses of the day are not satisfied with coming before the public in the various characters which they must assume on the stage. Their vanity has been so cultivated by the press, by the admiration of the public, that they wish to be admired in themselves. They take off the mask, and wish to be applauded and courted as men or women. In our democratic society they are, with the leaders of the popular parties, perhaps the most notorious characters. It is not to be wondered at that Gambetta and Coquelin are very intimate; they both feel that they are before the public, and that they have something to learn from each other.

My analysis of "The Rantzaus" has carried me perhaps a little too far, and it is quite useless to moralize on the fashions of the day. It is interesting, however, to note that literature can be inferior while the art of acting is getting more and more perfect. It is the same, perhaps, in all arts: the mechanical part of painting and sculpture can be very perfect while there is a great lack of ideas among the artists; houses can be very comfortable and very splendid, and yet the architecture be very poor and insignificant; the *virtuoso* can play admirably, while the music he plays has no sense, harmony, or melody. The greatest works of mankind have perhaps been made with the meanest tools.

Correspondence.

THE NEW VIRGINIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On Thursday of last week the Readjuster Board, lately appointed by Governor Cameron for the University of Virginia, met here to effect an organization, and to prepare for the reorganization of the institution next month. For the first time in its history since founded by Jefferson, aspirants for various positions in the institution were here *in person* urging their claims upon members of the Board. It was a novel spectacle to see the entrance and steps of the Infirmary, where the Board is accustomed to hold its meetings, crowded with men from whose pockets protruded voluminous testimonials, while those a little less pushing stood beneath the trees and lined the fence!

This lobbying, undignified method of pushing their claims demonstrates the fitness of these aspirants, as well as the fitness of the *Liberal Party*, which has introduced this system, for the trusts and responsibilities it has so rudely assumed. Unless something can be done to save the University of Virginia from the fate which has overtaken its sister institutions, and which now threatens it, truly the eagles have not gathered together too soon. Daylesford.

Charlottesville Va., May 8.

Notes.

Estes & Lauriat, Boston, have in preparation a map of the headwaters of the Aroostook, Penobscot, and St. John Rivers, compiled by Thomas Sedgewick Steele. It will be mounted on cloth, and must commend itself to campers-out, hunters, and canoeists. The size is twenty by thirty inches.

Ginn, Heath & Co. are on the point of issuing the first of a 'College Series of Latin Authors,' edited by Professor C. L. Smith, of Harvard, and Professor Tracy Peck, of Yale. Cicero's 'Brutus,' edited by Professor Martin Kellogg, of the University of California, heads the list.

'Among the Azores,' an illustrated volume by L. H. Weeks; 'Essays from the *Critic*'; and a new novel, 'A Reverend Idol,' are among the forthcoming publications of J. R. Osgood & Co.

In Mrs. Oliphant's "Foreign Classics for English Readers," the new volume to be published by J. B. Lippincott & Co. is 'Rousseau,' by Henry Graham. The same house has in press 'Zoölogical Sketches,' by Felix Oswald, and 'Brushland,' by John Darby.

American editions of the Rev. Andrew Jukes's 'Types of Genesis,' and 'The Restitution of All Things,' will be published by T. Whittaker, who has just issued a third edition (in this country) of Mr. S. Baring-Gould's amusing and edifying life of Robert Stephen Hawker, 'The Vicar of Morwenstow.'

A. D. F. Randolph & Co. publish immediately 'Across the Atlantic,' a daily manual for ocean travellers, which contains, besides appropriate Scriptural selections, a map and a miniature memorandum log-book. Of the same class is the little volume recently put forth by this firm—'Red-letter Days: a Memorial and Birthday Book'—compiled by Frances Ridley Havergal.

M. Jules Lévy's monthly periodical, *Le Français* (Cambridge, Mass.), which presently terminates its second year, has maintained itself in all respects on a level of excellence never before reached by any similar pedagogic work in this country. A cultivated taste presides over the selections, and large experience enables the editor to anticipate and to meet the difficulties of students of the French language. *Le Français* is scrupulously printed.

The first of the three volumes of Mr. Pierre Irving's 'Life and Letters of Washington Irving' has just appeared in the "Geoffrey Crayon" edition of the Messrs. Putnam.

M. M. Ballou's 'Notable Thoughts About Women' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) fills 403 pages with 3,471 "elegant extracts" of varying length. The compiler says he "has been exercised by a catholic spirit," and begs not to be committed to the sentiments of every author whom he quotes. But he has been less than catholic in admitting, as if applicable to only one sex, sentiments like these: "In love, anger is always a mistake." "It is easy to fall in or out of love." The index to "love," by the way, is appallingly long.

From the same publishers we have 'A Satchel Guide for the Vacation Tourist in Europe,' the eleventh edition. This handy work, besides the usual annual revision, has this year added to it a select list of famous pictures to be seen in European galleries.

More diminutive, but not less authoritative within its sphere, is Mr. T. W. Knox's 'Pocket Guide for Europe' (New York: C. T. Dillingham). Mr. Knox is a veteran traveller, and his instructions have an element of humor which is not a common feature of guide-books. The book will serve for the Levant.

Mr. Knox's latest volume for the young folks is 'The Young Nimrods Around the World,' to be issued shortly by the Messrs. Harper.

A laborious example has been laudably set by Mr. C. C. Royce in his 'Cessions of Land by Indian Tribes to the United States, illustrated by those in the State of Indiana,' which forms a chapter in the first annual report of the Bureau of Ethnology, and has also been struck off separately. The subject is very obscure, but is not without its fascination for the student. Mr. Royce gives a large colored map of Indiana and a corresponding list of cessions.

At the Matt. Carpenter sale the monotonous succession of law books at five or six dollars each was varied by knocking down the 1,111 volumes of public documents at *eight cents* apiece. A Washington bookseller was the courageous purchaser.

On Monday of this week (May 15th), after the long rain-storm, occurred the semi-annual change of weather, the correlative of the November atmospheric wave of cold, dry air which introduces our six-months' winter. Accordingly, we are at last again arrived at summer—the true meteorological summer, which, being a natural epoch, is not arbitrarily exact in its advent, but is this year more than three weeks later than it was last.

Mr. H. H. Warner, of Rochester, N. Y., offers a number of prizes, from two hundred dollars to fifty, for the discovery of new comets in the United States, Canada, Great Britain, or Ireland, during the present year, or for meteoric stones found there (*a*) with fossil remains, or (*b*) without them.

In the volumes of astronomical observations issued by the United States Naval Observatory, Washington, it has been the custom, from 1866 to 1876, to print the observations with the transit circle in very full detail; but in the 24th volume, lately issued—that for the year 1877—the system has been changed, and only the results of the observations and their reductions are printed. The consequent diminution in the size of these volumes will be agreeable to all who have occasion to handle them. The 26-inch equatorial appears to have been very active during this year: it will be remembered that it was in the month of August that the satellites of Mars were discovered with this instrument by Professor Hall. Six appendices conclude the volume, the more important of which are, "Observations of Double Stars," by Professor Hall; "Investigation of the Objective and Micrometers of the 26-inch Equatorial," and "The Multiple Star Σ 748," by Professor Holden; and "The Solar Parallax from Meridian Observations of Mars in 1877," by Professor Eastman. From this latter investigation results a value of $\pi = 8.''953$—which is only another contribution to the certainty that either astronomers do not yet know how to discuss observations of this sort, or that this method of determining the solar parallax is worthless.

The twenty-eighth volume of *L'Art* (J. W. Bouton) has the usual abundance of full-page etchings after ancient and modern masters; portraits of Edmondo de Amicis, of Theodore Rousseau, and of David d'Angers; some outline Campagna sketches, of great breadth and force; a sketch of the highly successful Rabelais statue set up at Chinon, etc.

In No. 837 of the *Nation*, attention was called to Finamore's valuable 'Vocabolario dell'Uso Abruzzese.' The author has undertaken a series of volumes devoted to the popular literature of the same locality, consisting of tales, legends, poems, and proverbs. The first volume, 'Tradizioni populari Abruzzesi,' has recently appeared. It contains fifty-two tales. The value of the work, however, does not consist in the interesting variants it offers of well-known stories, but in the careful treatment of the dialect and the philological introductions prefixed to the stories of each commune. These constitute a significant contribution to Italian glottology.

—To the growing practice among book-lovers of publishing catalogues of their collections we owe a privately printed 'Catalogue of Books on Angling, from the Library of a Practitioner of more than fifty years' experience in the Art of Angling,' which has the imprint of the University Press at Cambridge, Mass. Catalogues of

angling collections in this country are not plentiful (we have seen but two before this), and are of great use to the increasing number of those interested in this department of literature. Mr. John Bartlett's (for our "practitioner" is none other than the author of the 'Familiar Quotations') enumerates about 600 volumes, many of them rare and nearly all standard books on the subject. It is very rich in Waltons, containing copies of about fifty editions (including the very rare first), seven of the John Majors, and, we think, all of the Pickerings. There are four of Berners, four of Bowlker, four of Venables's 'Experienced Angler,' the second to the thirteenth inclusive of Thomas Best, and two copies of T. P. Lathy's interesting poem "The Angler," of which the original manuscript was lately for sale in London. Coming to the more modern and, we think, more desirable books, for the mere reader, there are Scrope's 'Days and Nights of Salmon Fishing'; Henderson's 'My Life as an Angler,' a charming narrative; Stoddart's five volumes, Francis Francis, Chitty (Theophilus South), Blacker (in our opinion the best book on fly tying), and numerous others well known to lovers of angling. We must not omit mentioning the two sets of the Newcastle "Fisher's Garlands," of six and ten volumes respectively. The collection, though not large, is excellently selected, and the editions are generally of the best; the print and paper of the Catalogue are creditable to all concerned.

—The English lecturer does not err by an overestimate of the intelligence of his audience; and Mr. Freeman, last winter, took an hour to make it perfectly plain to the meanest understanding that we—or at least the bulk of his audience—were not Britons, but Germans, and, after much emphatic iteration, we all knew to our heart's content that we had no part or lot in Caractacus, Caratacus, Caratucus, Caradoc, or whatever may be the last fashion of spelling the name of that hero. Moreover, we had no share in the glory of Boadicea. She was not our grandmother; not a drop of her blood flows in our veins. And yet the fascination of the mere soil survives. Poor boys, doomed to read Cæsar, do not care a button for Ariovistus, although he was their cousin never so many times removed, and yet like to read the Fifth Book and learn something about Britain. Surely it would be cruel to take a lesson from Mr. Freeman and tell them that they must not take to themselves Cæsar's complimentary notice of the inhabitants of Kent. In spite of the great historian, we feel that the Roman occupation of Britain is a personal concern of ours, and so Prof. Hübner, the distinguished editor of the 'Inscriptiones Britannicæ,' has done well to publish a separate and more accessible edition of his essay on the Roman army in Britain, which appeared first in a recent number of the *Hermes*. This essay, based on a close study of the inscriptions and of the topographical finds, as well as of the scant indications in ancient authors, will be welcome to wider circles than those usually reached by the pages of a philological journal; and students of English history have reason to thank Prof. Hübner for this resumption and extension of his previous studies. His sketch begins with the army of occupation under Claudius, or rather under Plautius, and breaks off at the reorganization of the Roman army under Diocletian. The first part treats of the legions; the latter part deals with the difficult question of the auxiliaries—Gallic, German, British, Pannonian, Spanish. An outline map enables us to represent to ourselves the distribution of the legions. *More Germanorum*, Prof. Hübner gives his predecessors a touch of his critical quality, but he is not unmerciful. There is a special charm of reality about a work of this kind, as there is nothing like contemporaneous documents.

> "Perish'd many a maid and matron, many a valorous legionary,
> Fell the colony, city, and citadel—London, Verulam, Camulodúne."

That seems far away, unreal, as artificial as the accents on Camulodúne. Much nearer to us is this simple statement: "The only inscriptions of the XIVth legion that have been found in England are two which mark the graves of legionaries who seem to have fallen during the expedition of Paulinus to Mona; in both the legion appears without the name *Martia Victrix*, which it did not receive until the recovery of Camalodunum." What a pity, in this age of pedantic exactness, that Mr. Tennyson did not know that Camalodunum, not Camulodunum, was the old, original spelling.

—A French library journal has been started, to match the German *Neuer Anzeiger* of Petzholdt; the English *Monthly Notes* of the Library Association, and our *Library Journal*. A new series of *Le Cabinet Historique*, to be edited by M. Robert, of the Manuscript Department of the Bibliothèque Nationale, is to consist of three parts: First, all documents about the service and the organization of libraries and archives; second, extracts from archives and inventories or catalogues of manuscripts in public or private libraries; third, a *Courrier*, or, as we should say, letters "from our regular correspondent." The new journal evidently looks rather to the historical and bibliographical than to the practical part of bibliothetics, which naturally has less interest for the European mind than for us, since in long-established libraries most details are settled beyond the possibility of change. Another promised periodical (approximately bi-monthly) will devote itself not so much to the librarians as to the bibliomaniacs. The *Guide du Libraire-antiquaire et du Bibliophile*, edited by J. de Beauchamps and Éd. Rouveyre, undertakes to keep its public informed of the changes in the prices of rare books. In the rapid fluctuations of the present day any volume like Brunet's 'Manuel de l'Amateur' is out of date almost as soon as published. Nothing but a periodical can give information sufficiently contemporary to be of much service. We have not for a long time met with a more impressive example of the pace at which we live nowadays. That the want of such information has been felt is shown by the fact that since the first announcement, in July, 1881, two thousand subscriptions to the new journal have been received. Its editors say that they have been preparing for the work for ten years—not consciously, we suppose—and have collected nearly 25,000 card-titles of the most important rare books, which they have kept constantly annotated with the prices obtained at auction sales or demanded by the second-hand booksellers, not neglecting bibliographical information and anecdotes concerning the literary or artistic value of the books. The *Guide* will be sold in separate *livraisons*, at three francs. Each twelve parts will make a volume, and be provided with an introduction and indexes of titles and of authors.

—Under the title of 'Schottische Reiseskizzen' (Leipzig: Schottlaender), Prof. von Holtzendorff has collected the letters contributed by him to several German periodicals while a delegate to the Social Science Congress of Edinburgh, in October, 1880. These letters, although mainly devoted to the proceedings of the Congress, commend themselves to a far wider public than can now be interested in that occasion. Prof. von Holtzendorff is emphatically an author who could not write a dull page if he tried; and one would think that the opportunity of trying were given in the task of condensing the arguments of Scotch speakers and commenting on Scotch law. He is, however, so great an admirer of British institutions, and withal so keen and genial a discerner of foibles—whether British, German, or purely human—that neither readers of the author's 'English Country Squire' nor of his "Political and Unpolitical Notes" (*Politische und unpolitische Zeitglossen*) will be disappointed in these 'Sketches of Scottish Travels.' We transcribe at random some of his happy touches. A learned assembly of German specialists, as contrasted with the heterogeneousness of the Scotch gathering, strikes him as "a fair for the mutual exchange of opinions which everybody is fully determined never to part with." The astonishing progress of the United States in the technical sciences, in spite of the inferiority of American schools to those of Germany, he ascribes to the fact that the Army and Navy offer so little attraction to men of ability. In Germany the higher grades of the Army and the civil service absorb much of the best talent of the country, while in the United States "the scramble for office and the yoke of partisanship repel the better elements." In discoursing with a lady on the Scottish Sunday, he thus defends the attendance of freethinkers at divine worship against the charge of hypocrisy:

> "Where a people in its entirety is religiously inclined, . . . I consider it even creditable in a freethinker to do violence to his feelings during the few hours of Sunday service. By your presence in church you do not pay your respects to the pastor, . . . but to the congregation. He who accuses you of hypocrisy because you make concessions to the sentiments of your community or of your servants, must also call the lord of the manor a hypocrite who, at the village festival, according to ancient custom, leads off the dance with the oldest maid in his employ."

Here is a glimpse of Lord Brougham, who presided over the meetings of the Social Science Association in its first years:

> "I made the acquaintance of the old gentleman in Dublin, in 1861, and marvelled equally at the prodigious memory of the octogenarian, who quoted literally entire passages from the Parliamentary proceedings of forty years ago, and at the occasional ignorance of the great jurist, who knew more about French law than about the criminal law of Ireland."

—In one of the instalments of the "Zeitglossen" (*Gegenwart*, No. 10, 1881) Prof. von Holtzendorff had briefly but vigorously recorded his opinion of the many-headed nuisance comprised in the word "Trinkgeld" (*pourboire*), and but vaguely hinted at by the English "waiter's fee." The subject is now exhaustively and learnedly treated, as to origin, ethical and economic importance, and remedial measures, in the April number of *Westermann's Monatshefte*, by Rudolf von Jhering, a distinguished colleague of Prof. von Holtzendorff, and, like him, a frequent contributor to the periodical press. The learned Professor, pursuing the strictly scientific method, begins *ab ovo* with the legal definition of the *Trinkgeld*, and, after properly subdividing his subject into three classes, confines himself more particularly to the most obnoxious species—*i. e.*, the "waiter's fee." In its crude beginning a bribe pure and simple offered by a guest to secure extra service, the obsequious waiter soon learned to exact it as his due. In its further development, the greedy innkeeper stepped between it and the waiter's pocket, and insisted on having it turned over to himself. Skill and dishonesty, however, baffled greed, and in the next stage of its evolution the *Trinkgeld* advanced to the dignity of a perquisite taken into account in fixing the wages. As it approached perfection, the landlord not only paid no wages at all, but even de-

rived a handsome revenue from the letting out, under contract, of the chief-waitership, which in turn never failed to yield a large income. The *Trinkgeld*, having now been fully established as a tax which must not only be paid but computed by each chafing guest, the obliging landlord proposes to do away with it altogether, and the result is the introduction of "service and candles" into the hotel bill. But, unfortunately, "the porter is not included in the service"; the unsuspecting guest pays the porter, and the "service," and the "candles," and the waiter, and the maid, and the "boots," and the head-waiter—and the *Trinkgeld* has at last reached the height of perfection. Nor is its pernicious activity confined to the hotel, for, according to Prof. von Jhering, it threatens to sap the very foundations of the hospitality of the social board. No entertainment in a friendly circle, no cup of tea, however weak, without its corresponding *Trinkgeld*, given under the very eyes and with the sanction of the lady of the house. In order to remedy this distressing state of affairs, Prof. von Jhering advises his countrymen first of all to take courage from the example of the English traveller, who dares to brave the frowns of the indignant waiter, and has actually succeeded in introducing into a first-class hotel of Lucerne the regulation: "MM. les Étrangers sont priés de ne plus donner de pourboire aux employés de l'Hôtel." The possibility of reform being demonstrated, the Professor sees, as in a vision, the speculative innkeeper of the future advertising the fact that in his establishment no *Trinkgeld* is tolerated, profiting thus by the very disappearance of the nuisance. And, while urging the formation of anti-*Trinkgeld* clubs, Prof. Jhering, mindful of the dictates of justice, wishes the annual contributions of the members to form a fund for the benefit of needy waiters and servants of all classes. It must be added that he is himself not very sanguine as to the success of his measures; but he may justly claim the credit of having been the first to take a particularly unmanageable bull by the horns.

—Apropos of the rapacity of landlords, a writer in *Vom Fels zum Meer*, under the tempting heading of "Unselfish Innkeepers," describes a state of society from which one of the elements of the innkeeper's greed—direct interest in fostering the intemperate habits of his guests—has been happily eliminated. We refer to the Swedish city of Gothenburg, where, for the past fifteen years, the control of the liquor-traffic—the source of so much evil in the north of Europe—has been in the hands of a stock-company guided solely by humanitarian motives. Formerly every landed proprietor in Sweden had the right to distil brandy for his own consumption, until in 1830 the number of such distilleries reached 173,000, producing annually about 42 million gallons. The efforts of the friends of temperance, who finally succeeded in abolishing all but steam-distilleries, had in 1871 reduced the number of inns and grog-shops among the rural population of Sweden (comprising about 3½ millions) to 460; while in the towns pauperism caused by intemperance continued to increase. The stock-company referred to began operations by acquiring of the city of Gothenburg the exclusive license to carry on the liquor-traffic. Of the sixty-one inns which thus passed into its hands, the company suppressed twenty-one. The rest, transformed into well-appointed dining-rooms, are managed by employees of the company, who have the right to sell on their own account beer, tea, coffee, etc., and are thus directly interested in discouraging the indulgence of their customers in stronger beverages. The profits of the company are turned into the municipal treasury, while losses are to be borne by the shareholders. In 1876 the gains amounted to about $175,000. The example of Gothenburg has, so far, been followed by fifty-seven of the ninety towns of Sweden, Stockholm included, and nineteen towns of Norway.

—Whether "the wickedest man in New York," of whom we used to hear so frequently a few years ago, has slidden back from conversion into his earlier broad way, we cannot affirm; but, even if he has unhappily done so, his record, unless he has gone on transgressing with most illaudable enterprise and persistence, must pale before that of an erring sister who has emerged into sudden notice across the Atlantic. Jane Johnson, just now well known there by her photograph, is this palmary heroine. Her age is four-score and four; and the total of her inferential delinquencies is no less remarkable than her vivacious anility. In the course of her career, she has been an inmate of Leeds prison two hundred and forty times, and the walls of the jail at Bradford are likewise very familiar to her. So, at all events, testifies Mr. Elijah Cadman, "Major of the Yorkshire Division of the Salvation Army," who has benevolently undertaken to "exploit" the veteran culprit's cast-off rags of naughtiness. Jane "has been saved now two months, and spoke four times yesterday in Hull," according to Major Cadman, in a letter which he has communicated to a London journal. To what, then, may the eloquence of Jane, if she only keeps steady, wax when she shall have been "saved" twice two months? However, be it, or not, that her tongue is destined to get more and more loosed as she grows established in reputable living, let us hope that May and June will find her in the same frame of mind that she was in during March and April. As her admiring impresario further informs us, "she holds her stick, which she calls her 'old man'; and with him she used to thrash the policemen." Catholicism has often shrewdly utilized fanatics; and an ancient virago, once bridled and snaffled, could undoubtedly be turned to much worse account than by being impressed in the service of the proletarian church militant.

—One of the most attractive figures in the Norse annals is that of King Olaf Haraldson, whose efforts to convert the heathen of his realm won him a crown of martyrdom when he fell by the hand of his rebellious subjects on the field of Stikklestad. The sanctity of the dead hero was confirmed by many miracles, and his canonization followed as a matter of course. The popularity of the saint was enormous, his cult extended from Norway to Spain, and his legend was duly treasured up in the vast storehouse of Christian mythology. One of these legendaries was compiled by Augustinus (Eystein), second Bishop of Trondhjem, who died in 1188, and is extant in several incomplete and anonymous forms. An examination of a MS. in the Library of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, revealed the complete version and the author's name. This version has recently been edited by F. Metcalfe, M.A., under the title, 'Passio et Miracula Beati Olaui' (Oxford: Clarendon Press. 1881). The editor has prefixed an admirable introduction, containing the story of Olaf and an account of the author. The contents of the MS. (a facsimile of which is given) do not call for any detailed notice, as they differ but little from the ordinary wearisome mediæval legendaries. Only one miracle has any comparative interest—namely, that of the two penitent parricides (p. 96), whose chains break of themselves—those of one brother at Jerusalem, of the other at the shrine of St. Olaf. This episode occurs in other legends, and recalls the bursting of the iron bands in the story of the Frog Prince (Grimm, No. 1).

HUXLEY'S SCIENCE AND CULTURE.

Science and Culture, and Other Essays. By Thomas Henry Huxley, LL.D., F.R.S. D. Appleton & Co. 1882.

THE various articles, lectures, and addresses collected in the volume before us have been delivered by Huxley during the past seven years. They cover a variety of subjects which the author delights to expound, and his treatment of which cannot fail to leave a deep impression on his hearers or readers. He has an admirable skill as a popular expounder and critic, and chiefly as such he will be recognized hereafter in the scientific history of his time. His original scientific memoirs have been far less numerous and important than those of many less well-known naturalists, but the stamp of the master-workman is on all that he does, and no one understands better than he how to explain a new subject or illumine an old one. These essays, treating of education, philosophical speculation, and biological theories, show us the range of his knowledge, and in each he has given full play to his characteristic method of attacking the subject in hand.

The opening of Sir Josiah Mason's Science College at Birmingham has furnished Huxley with an appropriate occasion to press the claims of science as an essential element of a liberal education. He speaks for all scientific men when he says: "After having learned all that Greek, Roman, and Eastern antiquity has thought and said, and all that modern literatures have to tell us, it is not self-evident that we have laid a sufficiently broad and deep foundation for that criticism of life which constitutes culture." But this broader standard is by no means generally accepted. The man who has learned Latin and Greek is still considered the educated man *par excellence*, while he who has perhaps reached the highest eminence in other branches is considered a specialist, and left "outside the cultured caste." Our universities are still practically in the hands of the "Philistines." Their highest honors, their chosen degrees, their greatest prizes are not within the reach of the scientific student, unless he be also a classical scholar. Indeed, they are less liberal toward the learned professions of our day than were the ancient universities to those of their time: *they* opened their doors to the faculties of medicine, divinity, and law, which have remained ever since an integral part of the university programme, while scientific professions of more recent growth, but no less vitally connected with the progress of knowledge, stand outside, or are admitted on sufferance. The scientific student asks only to share, not to curtail, the honors of his classical and literary fellow-students. In the nineteenth century, when every year is broadening the domain of knowledge, no set of men can claim to be the dispensers of true culture. Huxley has well said that in the ideal university "all sources of knowledge and all aids to learning should be accessible to all comers." Such a university the age demands, and if the men of the past do not meet the men of the present half way, they may find themselves left behind among the priests of the monastic period of the nineteenth century. We cannot leave the material claims of the community out of consideration. Scientific investigation is shaping the opinions of men, and daily proving its right to recognition by the cultivated classes. The despised practical men are often the most eminent specialists of their time; they have obtained a "firm grasp of principles" by personal experience.

Our modern universities need the sympathy of

the artisan, the inventor, and still more of the original investigator, who provides them both with ever new materials and resources. They are the men whose pulse is felt to the furthest borders of the land; and yet these men, unless they have had some smattering of Latin and Greek, are excluded from the so-called educated class. Neither Hugh Miller, nor George Stevenson, nor Davy, nor Faraday, nor Franklin could receive university honors. It may be asked how the university can confer her degrees upon those who, from force of circumstances or from deliberate choice, have not fulfilled the conditions upon which their degrees are based. To this one can only answer that the university must enlarge her borders. Let her offer every man such instruction as he has time and means to accept, without binding him to a given period or a certain enforced amount of Latin and Greek; and in her awards let eminence in any department of true knowledge be accepted as evidence of learning and intelligence. Let the physicists, the chemists, the engineers, the geologists, the mathematicians, and the naturalists enter the charmed circle of the historians, the poets, the philologists, the metaphysicians, who have hitherto represented the cultivated class. So will the universities strengthen their own hands and draw to themselves the men who are peers in attainment, however distinct may be the fields of their activity.

In his opening address as Lord Rector of the University of Aberdeen, Huxley defines the proper functions of universities from his point of view, and emphasizes again the risk for themselves in excluding from their domain the science of to-day. This and the foregoing Birmingham address are supplemented by one on technical education delivered to the Workingmen's Club and Institute. The lecture on the "Method of Zadig" contains an admirable popular account of palæontological methods and their practical application, enabling us to predict from the later terms of one genealogical series its earlier ones, and so turning backward the tide of prophecy. Huxley's crisp clearness of statement is especially felt in the lecture on the border territory between the animal and vegetable kingdoms, where a subtle subject is so presented to the unscientific reader as to give an exact idea of the questions at issue, and of the problems with which we deal when we attempt to decide upon the animal or plant nature of organisms which seem to share the properties of both. In his chapter "On Certain Errors, Respecting the Structure of the Heart, Attributed to Aristotle," Huxley finds a field for his cold and critical acumen. He traces with a nice precision, and with clear insight, the share which Aristotle has had in our knowledge of this organ, repudiating Cuvier's criticism, without, however, sharing his reverence for the great old investigator. His treatment of Cuvier can hardly be called generous. He seems to delight in forcing his pen, scalpel-like, between the joints of his statements, and is indeed too prone to judge not Cuvier alone, but all our immediate scientific predecessors, by the knowledge of his own day rather than by that of theirs. Nowhere, perhaps, is this better shown than in his lecture on the coming of age of the 'Origin of Species.' Huxley's power as a critic is especially felt when he thus analyzes the special history of any given point in biology; and yet his own standard applied to himself, within the limits even of his scientific generation, would reduce Huxley to a far less prominent position than he now occupies. One is, therefore, naturally impatient when he judges his predecessors rather by what they have failed to do than by what they have done.

Huxley's well-known Belfast address on "Animal Automatism," and his lecture on the sensiferous organs, are philosophical discussions of questions which have rarely been treated in a general and popular way. In the former he becomes the champion of Descartes, and asserts his claim to be considered no mere speculator, but a physiologist of the first rank, the first to lay the foundation of the modern physiology of the nerves. This lecture has been so long before the public, and so much discussed, that further notice of it here would be out of place.

In the lecture on "Evolution in Biology," the development of the doctrine itself is fully, though rapidly, sketched from the time of Descartes, De Maillet, and Erasmus Darwin through that of Treviranus and Lamarck to that of Charles Darwin and Wallace and the principal expounders of the modern evolution theory, Spencer and Haeckel. He dwells at length on the great difference between the position of the doctrine of evolution as understood to-day and its attitude a century ago. He shows his readers how Cuvier and Von Baer, by their recognition of four distinct plans of organization among animals—the one reaching his result by the study of structure, the other by the study of embryology—knocked down the ladder on the successive rounds of which animals had been arranged in a regular series from lowest to highest, instead of which they are now disposed like the twigs and branches of a tree united in one stem at its base. Another step in the same direction was the recognition of the correspondence between the series expressed by the relations of animals in any one great group and the series expressed by the embryonic phases of any highest member of that group—a correspondence hinted at by Meckel, St.-Hilaire, and Serres, and developed mainly by Agassiz in his "Poissons Fossiles." To these changes must be added the foundation of the science of morphology; the investigation into the significance of rudimentary organs; the study of living organisms as affected by physical conditions; the study of geographical distribution and geological succession. On all these powers Huxley calls as leading up to the modern evolution theory, which, he says, can no longer be considered "an hypothesis, but an historical fact, leaving only the physiological factors to which that evolution is due open to discussion." Many of these workers believed in evolution only in the closer scientific sense, as manifested in cycles of development which can be seen and followed by the patient investigator. That they have, however, contributed to make the present attitude of the theory possible is certainly true; and yet from Huxley's own statement the investigations are narrow as compared with the inferences, and hardly afford sufficient foundation for an "historical fact" as wide as the organic kingdom and as comprehensive as life itself.

The closing chapter of this interesting collection of essays contains Huxley's address before the International Medical Congress of London. It is perhaps the least satisfactory of all. It was delivered almost at the same time with a similar address by Virchow, and the English production suffers by comparison with the German essay. We find it difficult also to reconcile many of the views in relation to the proper methods of medical education formerly enunciated by Huxley with his later statement, in which all will cordially concur, that the future of practical medicine depends upon the extent to which those who occupy themselves with these subjects are trained in the methods and impregnated with the fundamental truths of biology.

GARDNER'S WATERLOO.

Quatre Bras, Ligny, and Waterloo. A Narrative of the Campaign in Belgium, 1815. By Dorsey Gardner. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1882.

THIS is a good-sized quarto, of rather more than five hundred pages. It is "intended," Mr. Gardner tells us, "to afford a somewhat detailed *narrative* of the events of the campaign in Belgium during the four days, June 15–18, 1815. Military criticism, as far as possible, is excluded, and, where it is essential, the writer has in general preferred to use the words of those entitled to speak with an authority to which he has no claim." This is a very good description of the book. It is, perhaps, the most complete narrative of the Waterloo campaign that has yet appeared. It is, of course, in great measure, a compilation—there are long extracts from Siborne, Thiers, Kennedy, and Charras in its pages; but it is well worked up, and the reader will find it no mere piece of mosaic. He will, on the contrary, find that, by a diligent search among the authorities, Mr. Gardner has been able to set before him the various views in which all, or nearly all, the chief questions connected with the campaign are seen by the principal writers on the different sides.

The most unique feature of the book consists in the notes and appendix. In these the author has inserted extracts from the descriptive and poetical literature which this famous battle has called forth. Byron, Scott, and Southey contribute largely from their poems, so celebrated at the time; extracts from Victor Hugo's wonderful description of the battle in 'Les Misérables' are inserted in the appropriate places; Mercer's entertaining diary is largely used; the familiar chapters from Thackeray's 'Vanity Fair' greet us at the beginning of the action; even Erckmann-Chatrian's novel, 'Waterloo'—in which the experience of the soldier, which is most graphically told, leads him through the crises of the battles of Ligny and Waterloo—is largely made use of for illustrating the fortunes of the fight. The result is a really very interesting book, unique in its plan, and successfully carried out. It cannot be said, perhaps, to add much to our knowledge of the events of the campaign, but it does put within the covers of a single volume all the narrative parts of the most authoritative works on the campaign of which it treats. And the story is illustrated throughout by personal experience, and by the prose and poetry which this most dramatic of all military catastrophes has evoked from the most brilliant writers of our times.

In two matters, moreover—and they are both of great interest—Mr. Gardner has collected the facts with great pains, and the result is well worth the careful attention of the student. The health of Napoleon during this period is made the subject of a very valuable note, on pages 31–37, and the conclusion is reached that some malady, the nature of which is unknown, prostrated him at intervals during the campaign, and was "quite sufficient to account for the constantly-recurring delays and general slackness in the French operations." The other subject to which we refer is the treatment of his subordinates by Wellington, and it must be confessed that the instances adduced by Mr. Gardner show the great Duke in a most unattractive light.

Mr. Gardner evidently intends to be impartial. He has, however, made the mistake of trusting too entirely to the writers of the school of Charras and Chesney. This new school of writers on the campaign of Waterloo had its origin in the political animosity against the Second Empire. Charras and Quinet were themselves exiles, and Chesney unconsciously imbibed

their tone. They contributed very much to our knowledge of the campaign, but they must be read with the remembrance of their political bias.

Truth compels us to say that Mr. Gardner's treatment of the agency of Marshal Grouchy in causing the loss of the battle is not very satisfactory. He tells us that the sun rose at 3:48 A.M., yet he says that Grouchy's orders to Vandamme and Gérard, his corps-commanders, to move at six and seven respectively were "orders for the timely movement of his troops." Surely these hours were very late for troops charged with a pursuit. The men had gone into bivouac at ten at night; by four in the morning they should have been on the march.

We are told that "Grouchy was instructed to ascertain whether the enemy [*i.e.*, the Prussians] were 'separating from the English or bent on uniting with them to save Brussels, and try the fate of another battle.'" This instruction was contained in the only written order which reached Grouchy up to the time of his movement on Wavre, and he received it not later than 2 P.M. on the 17th. There is not a word in this despatch about going to Wavre; the name of the town, even, is not mentioned. The first question for Grouchy, evidently, was to make up his mind whether the Prussians were bent on uniting with the English or not. When he found, as he did during the night, that they had retreated in the direction of Wavre instead of to the eastward, toward Perwez and Liége, he knew that they must be intending to join the English. The question then was, What was the true direction for him to take? As to this there can be no doubt. Charras's reasoning puts it beyond a question, that Grouchy's true course was to make with all possible speed for the bridges of Mousty and Ottignies, and get into communication with the main army under the Emperor. Yet we find Mr. Gardner, when speaking of the discussion between Grouchy and Gérard as to the advisability of making this movement from Sart-à-Walhain, where they were when they heard the cannon of Waterloo, actually saying that the question was, whether to make this cross movement "or to adhere to the Emperor's orders to follow the Prussians"; and again, that "Grouchy persisted," in opposition to the advice of Gérard, "in adhering to the orders the Emperor had given him." Statements like this hopelessly confuse the subject. The Emperor's orders were to find out whether the Prussians were intending to unite with the English and try the fate of another battle; he left the course to be pursued, if his lieutenant found this to be the fact, to the judgment of that officer, unhampered by any other orders whatever. The alternative was not, as Mr. Gardner puts it, to do what the Emperor had ordered or to do what Gérard counselled, but whether the direct movement upon Wavre or the cross-march to the bridge of Mousty was the proper course to be taken under the circumstances.

Mr. Gardner, also, like Chesney and some others, misunderstands the purport of the orders which reached Grouchy later in the day, and which approved of his marching in the direction of Wavre. The vital question, as we have stated, was whether the Prussians were retreating east, toward their base, separating themselves from the English, or north, toward Wavre, to unite with the English. Grouchy wrote the Emperor, at 10 P.M. of the 17th, that, as he found they had gone, he would himself direct his own movements, either eastward by the town of Perwez, or northward "in the direction of Wavre." Soult, the Emperor's chief-of-staff, having this despatch before him, writes to Grouchy, at 10 A.M. of the 18th, that the Emperor "desires that you direct your movements upon Wavre, *so as to approach us.*" That is, his direction was to be that of Wavre as distinguished from that of Perwez, and the object of this direction was that he might approach the main army under the Emperor. As Thiers justly says: "It was evident that Wavre was only a general expression signifying the direction of Brussels in opposition to that of Liége." But this remark, so obviously correct, is stigmatized by our author as "gross casuistry," and as sufficient to deprive Thiers of any title to respect. This simply shows that Mr. Gardner has something to learn about military despatches. To order an officer at a distance, in command of 30,000 men, to direct his movements upon A instead of upon B, is a very different thing from ordering him to go to A by the shortest road from where he may happen to be when the despatch reaches him. It is the *direction of the movement* which is the essence of a despatch of this kind; the names of the towns simply serve briefly to indicate this direction; there is no order to go to the particular town mentioned. In closing, we may remark that our author is in error in supposing that Vandamme supported the advice of Gérard; he was not present at the discussion.

On page 62, Mr. Gardner has accidentally omitted from the enumeration of the troops of Ney the four divisions of D'Erlon's corps. We were rather surprised not to find any quotations from Leeke's interesting narrative of 'Lord Seaton's Regiment (the 52d) at Waterloo.'

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

A New History of the English Stage, from the Restoration to the Liberty of the Theatres in connection with the Patent Houses. From original papers in the Lord Chamberlain's Office, the State Paper Office, and other sources. By Percy Fitzgerald, M.A., F.S.A. 8vo, 2 vols., pp. xii.–437, 463. London: Tinsley Bros.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1882.

The Elder and the Younger Booth. By Asia Booth Clarke. [American Actor Series.] With illustrations. 12mo, pp. 194. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1882.

Charlotte Cushman. By Clara Erskiné Clement. [American Actor Series.] With illustrations. 12mo, pp. 193. Boston: Osgood. 1882.

Private Theatricals: Being a Practical Guide for the Home Stage. By an Old Stager. With pictorial suggestions for scenes, after designs by Shirley Hodson. 8vo, pp. 118. London: W. H. Allen & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1881.

Le Théâtre de la Révolution, 1789-1799. Par Henri Welschinger. 8vo, pp. 525. Paris: Charavay; New York: F. W. Christern. Third edition. 1881.

La Faustin. Par Edmond de Goncourt. 8vo, pp. 343. Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern. 1882. (In English) Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros.

Aus dem literarischen Frankreich. Von Paul Lindau. 8vo, pp. 383. Leipzig: Schottlaender; New York: F. W. Christern. Second edition. 1882.

We have given in full the title-page of Mr. Percy Fitzgerald's ponderous work, because it sets forth plainly what the author in his preface claims for it—that it is a *new* history of the English stage, and especially of the patent houses, based on a study of the official documents, patents, licenses, orders, decisions, and what not, preserved in the Government archives. Mr. Fitzgerald asserts that it is only by the use of these documents that the history can be told scientifically; and in this we may agree with him, though we must deny emphatically that he has done what he declares desirable. Indeed, we feel bound to say that very rarely have we seen so irritatingly unscientific a history as this. Scattered through Mr. Fitzgerald's two volumes are many important papers now for the first time printed; and for these we must thank him, but for these only. The rest is the loose sort of composition familiar to those who have read the author's books on David Garrick and the Kembles. He seems to have set out with the excellent idea of supplementing the records by extracts from contemporary authors, with only such additions of his own as might be necessary to connect what he copied, and thus supplying the reader with the facts on which he could form his own opinion. A history of the English theatre on this plan is greatly to be desired, but Mr. Fitzgerald has not provided us with it. His chronological sense is extremely defective; he very rarely gives chapter and verse for an assertion or a quotation; he prints long extracts with no clew, or only the faintest, to their source. Passages of importance, a page or two in length, are introduced with "A writer says" or "A contemporary records," when it would have been just as easy to tell us who was the writer and where the contemporary recorded.

Of course the book is not wholly worthless. Not only are the reprinted documents of value, but some of Mr. Fitzgerald's own work is useful. His reading has been very wide in theatrical annals; and if he were only as accurate as he is industrious, he might enjoy a high reputation as an authority. One instance of his carelessness is as good as a hundred. On pp. 322–3 he gives an account of Palmer's attempt to open the Royalty Theatre in defiance of the patents. He tells us that "Palmer had actually engaged Garrick, Johnstone, Mrs. Wells, and others." On both of these pages Mr. Fitzgerald prints the date of this attempt—1787. But in a previous chapter he had told us of Garrick's death in 1779. Even Mr. Fitzgerald's index is a disappointment, being as careless as the book itself. Under Sheridan, for example, there are references to Richard Brinsley, but none to his father, the friendly rival of Garrick, or to his son, who helped him to mismanage Drury Lane Theatre, although both names occur in the text. It refers to Goldsmith's "She Stoops to Conquer" and Davenant's "Rivals," but not to the "Rivals" of Sheridan or to his "School for Scandal."

There were already in existence three lives of the elder Booth. The first in point of time is the very scarce volume called 'The Actor; or, A Peep Behind the Curtain,' published here in 1846. The second is 'The Tragedian: an Essay on the Histrionic Genius of Junius Brutus Booth,' still in print; and the third is the volume of 'Booth Memorials' put forth in 1866 by his daughter, Mrs. Clarke, who is also the author of the book before us, which is, indeed, a carefully amended and elaborated version of her earlier effort. For the general reader, it is certainly the best of the four, and it has the advantage over its predecessors of giving the outline of Mr. Edwin Booth's life as well as of his father's. Still, it is merely an outline of her father's and brother's careers that Mrs. Clarke attempts, and she exhibits very unusual restraint in the execution of her task. We have here an authoritative statement of the facts of the elder Booth's life, and we are told all we have a right to ask in regard to his son's. The only fault we have to find with the book is a vagueness in the references, like that we have just reprehended in the case of Mr. Fitzgerald. There is a delightful story (p. 97) of J. B. Booth's getting into a fit of depression while on a trip South on the steamer *Neptune*, and finally jumping overboard. Tom Flynn, the actor,

who accompanied him on the voyage, was in the small boat which picked him up, and he reported that the first words of the would-be suicide were: "I say, Tom, look out! You're a heavy man; be steady; if the boat upsets, we'll all be drowned."

Mrs. Clement had a freer field than Mrs. Clarke; for her only predecessor, Miss Stebbins, had, in her life of Charlotte Cushman, written the least theatrical and the least dramatic of all histrionic biographies. Miss Stebbins had much to say about Miss Cushman her friend, but very little indeed about Miss Cushman the actress. Mrs. Clement has taken great pains to set the artistic career before us at full length. Hers is a well-made biography, revealing only here and there the writer's unfamiliarity with the stage and its history. In eleven chapters, rigorously headed by dates, she traces Miss Cushman's life from beginning to end. A twelfth chapter gives extracts from her letters, and a thirteenth contains the special reminiscences of Mr. Wm. T. W. Ball. There are abundant quotations of criticisms and citations of authorities. For the two most striking passages in the volume Mrs. Clement is indebted to Mr. Lawrence Barrett. One is a strong description of the effect of Miss Cushman's acting as *Nancy* after *Bill Sikes* had given her the death-wound. She kept her face away from the audience, and begged *Bill* to kiss her. By the peculiar management of her voice, she produced a feeling of chilly horror; for it was as though "she spoke through blood!" The other is the fact that she told Mr. Barrett that during the more important scenes of the play, both *Macbeth* and *Lady Macbeth* were under the influence of wine.

Of the making of books on private theatricals there is no end, and "An Old Stager's" is one of the weakest and worst. The suggestions it contains and the instruction it gives are for the most part either erroneous or of such an elementary nature as to be useless. The only chapter of interest is the seventh, on "Some Celebrated Amateur Actors," which contributes a few facts for the future History of Private Theatricals, a very amusing work, still waiting to be written.

M. Welschinger's history of the Parisian stage during the French Revolution is not without a certain freshness. It is true that M. Louis Moland had already made a volume out of the best-known political plays of the revolutionary epoch, and that M. Théodore Muret, in his 'L'Histoire par le Théâtre,' had considered the production of these pieces; but M. Welschinger is more comprehensive, and has sought to study the stage in all its phases during the ten years of turmoil. He takes up in turn authors, actors, and censors; discusses the presentation on the stage of French society under its changed conditions, with special chapters on the family, on divorce, on religion, and so forth; sets forth the new types brought forward for the first time or revived by the accident of appropriateness; takes up the pieces which contained among their characters the historic figures of the day—Voltaire, Charlotte Corday, Robespierre, for instance; and, in a final part, dwells on the *grandes journées*—the 14th of July, the 10th of August, the 9th of Thermidor, and the 18th of Brumaire. An appendix gives a list of the laws and decrees concerning the theatres from 1790 to 1799, and there is an ample and admirable index. The work is very well done. M. Welschinger is a hostile critic, and does not attempt to conceal his bias against the men who made the Revolution. It is perhaps this polemic tinge which has carried the book into its third edition.

M. de Goncourt's latest novel belongs among books about the stage because it is a study of the life and character of an actress of extraordinary ability and—to our mind at least—of decidedly abnormal nature. The novel is constructed with M. de Goncourt's accustomed skill, and may be described as a dissection of an artistic temperament under unhealthy conditions. Many of the incidents and minor touches are evidently transcripts from life. There is an account of a rehearsal of "Phèdre" at the Comédie-Française seemingly of stenographic fidelity to the actual fact. The book is one to be read attentively by those who take an intellectual interest in the art of acting, but it is not for young men and maidens.

Paul Lindau's volume is a collection of biographical and critical sketches of French authors gathered from the monthly *Nord und Süd*, and from the weekly *Gegenwart*. All of the ten authors treated have written plays, and the three finest studies are of writers known especially for their dramatic works—MM. Victor Hugo, Émile Augier, and Eugène Labiche. The sketch of Hugo's career is the amplest of all, and fills a fourth of the volume. The chapters on Gérard de Nerval, Georges Sand, Gustave Flaubert, Ernest Renan, and Jules Claretie are slighter, but scarcely less admirable in their interpretive criticism. It is perhaps from the careful study of these French writers that Herr Lindau has caught an ease and a grace of style and of construction not at all common among German critics. Especially to be recommended is the vigorous dissection of M. Émile Zola's literary and dramatic theories, though the supplementary criticism of 'Nana' is scarcely as acute as Mr. Henry James, jr.'s.

The Decay of Modern Preaching. An Essay. By J. P. Mahaffy. New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882.

Mr. Mahaffy has turned up in a new character. Heretofore he has been best known as a writer on the social life of Greece, and other kindred topics. Now he appears as a critic of modern preaching, announcing its decay and suggesting various remedies for the state of things which he discovers and deplores. Whatever value his discussion may have for the class for whom it is primarily intended, it will have much less for any American preacher or layman. The circumstances and conditions which it sets forth are those of the Established Church of England. The preachers and the laymen of this Church may find something which, if considered earnestly, may be to their advantage; but all others, even the Dissenting ministers of England, will find little in Mr. Mahaffy's book pertaining to their case.

His diagnosis of preaching in the Established Church is no doubt sufficiently correct. He does not overstate the indifference, the *ennui*, of the average congregation. It is probably true, as he says, that the most regular and attentive churchgoers do not fall behind the rest in speaking freely of the dulness, sameness, inconsequence, laxity, and length of the sermon. No congregation now would beg the preacher to reverse his hour-glass and give them another hour. Endeavoring to discover the causes of this state of things, Mr. Mahaffy reports that some of them are historical, others social, others personal. By historical causes he means those which depend on great changes in human life and opinion produced by the course of time. The preacher's situation now is entirely different from that of the first preachers of Christianity. These, when they said, "Believe in the Lord Jesus Christ, and thou shalt be saved," meant something very sharp and definite. There was boldness and novelty in their preaching; they were announcing a new God and demanding a new life. In a despised minority, to speak at all they had to be men of force and courage. The increase of general culture is another historical cause of the decay of preaching. Formerly the preacher was qualified to instruct his people; they listened to him as a person of superior intelligence. They do not any longer, as a rule. Mr. Mahaffy's historical causes are not confined to these, but some others that he mentions are of little weight, and he makes no allowance for the fact that the growth of infidel opinions in our time gives to the preacher who is still thoroughly convinced of the truth of Christian orthodoxy a better opportunity for the display of force and courage than the preachers of the immediate past have had.

The causes of the decay of preaching which are here characterized as social are peculiar to his own Established Church. The first is the force of custom—the insistence on the adhesion to certain forms of speech. The preacher must never be amusing; he must always have a text. Debate in the pulpit is frowned upon as an exhibition of bad taste. Again, consider that marriage in the English Church is almost as compulsory as celibacy in the Church of Rome; and Mr. Mahaffy is clearly of the opinion that a married clergyman cannot do justice to his work, and that his domestic relations will be apt to prejudice his social influence.

Under the head of personal causes, Mr. Mahaffy names, first, "lack of ability." The lack of piety on which others insist, he assures us, is far less important. This cause is surely not peculiar to the English Church, but there are circumstances attending the stocking of the ministry in this Church which make ability even more rare in it than among the preachers of other churches. So, too, the lack of special training is a cause which is much more largely operative there than elsewhere.

The fifth section of Mr. Mahaffy's book is a review of certain "defective types" of preaching. One is "the logical extreme," by which is meant the tendency of those "who think that everything ought to be clearly proved." He instances the bargain theory of the atonement and the doctrine of eternal punishment. Apparently Mr. Mahaffy is not himself entirely sound upon these doctrines. His remarks on "the emotional extreme" have very general application: the type suggested is not by any means confined to the Established Church of England. Another defective type is that of extreme orthodoxy. Under this head Mr. Mahaffy returns to his account with the doctrine of eternal punishment, and proves, if nothing else, that he is one of many in the Established Church for whom this doctrine has lost much of the attractiveness it had in former times. But he conceives that "extreme heterodoxy" is also another defective type, by which we are to understand a general laxity of dogmatic energy—an allowance that dogma is of little importance if the life is strictly moral. Mr. Mahaffy is decidedly opposed to moral preaching. Dogmatic preaching, not moral preaching, he insists, has been the world's salvation—a point on which he might easily stir up a lively opposition. Under the heads "Excessive Sameness" and "Excessive Variety" he is somewhat contradictory. The examples of excessive variety which he enumerates are "excursions into politics, popular science, secular poetry." Here, again, it would not be difficult for him to find opponents who would like to break a lance with him. There are those who think that "preaching politics" and other secular matters would do as much to arrest the decay of preaching as any of Mr. Mahaffy's specific remedies.

To these he does not give so much attention as his readers will be apt to desire. Those which he enumerates are the avoidance of extremes, ma-

terial inducements—*i.e.*, larger pecuniary temptation to compete for influence in the Church; higher culture, both general and special; the celibacy of the clergy; a system of itinerant preaching; the publication of "authorized sermons" for men to read who cannot themselves write a decent sermon; and, finally, greater elasticity in the sermons. Of all these remedies the dreariest—not even the celibacy of the clergy excepted—is that of "authorized sermons." We do not expect any remarkable improvement in preaching to result from Mr. Mahaffy's essay. His tone is miserably low. His problem is, How to get good preaching out of weak, incompetent, immoral men. The real problem is, How to get strong men, competent and moral men, into the ministry.

Popular Dictionary of Architecture and the Allied Arts. By W. J. and G. A. Audsley. Third edition. Vols. i., ii. London. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THE appearance of two volumes of a third edition of Audsley's 'Dictionary of Architecture and the Allied Arts' indicates that this laborious and in many respects admirable work is bearing good fruit for its authors. As this edition seems to be largely prepared for the American market, though in fact it introduces no new elements, and confines itself mainly to textual revisions of no importance and to the correction of typographical errors, it deserves a new introduction. The scope of the dictionary is unusually wide for special works of this sort, and, although objections have been made to it on this ground, they are obviously hypercritical. Any work which, like this, treats of architecture as a fine art cannot exclude the allied arts without denying to "the art preservative of all arts" one of its most essential functions. It is therefore not without good reason that we find in this 'Dictionary of Architecture' the terminology of sculpture and painting, mosaic, costume, armor, heraldry, embroidery, enamel, pottery, metalwork, and stained glass, as well as the aspects and attributes of all the heathen deities and of the celestial hierarchy of Christendom in their relations to art, and the iconology of the saints, doctors, and prophets of the Church. This is a comprehensive scheme, and appears much more grotesque and incongruous in the statement than in the work itself. There is little here which the architect, the critic, and the student do not at some time need to know in the direct line of this all-embracing art.

In the first volume the most noteworthy titles are *Altar*, *Ambo*, *Angel*, *Aqueduct*, *Amphitheatres*, *Application*, *Apostles*, and *Apse*. These are reasonably full essays, attractively presented, with descriptive quotations from the best authorities and some indications of intelligent special research or independent observation. The titles *Angel* and *Apostles* are well developed in their way, and fairly exemplify the archæological tastes and resources of the authors. The article *Apocalypse*, in its relations to painting and sculpture, is especially instructive, and contains much information not elsewhere readily obtainable. The treatise on the *Apse* occupies about fifty pages, has some twenty-seven illustrative plans, and is a symmetrical and well-prepared historical study. We cannot detect in it the omission of any important link of evidence. Nothing is more easy than to discover faults of omission and commission by diligent research in a work of this sort—as in the failure, under the head *Angle-column*, to note the characteristic Greek treatment of this feature, and to explain by proper illustrations such words as *Anthemion*, *Angular shaft*, *Annulated shaft*, etc.; but, on the whole, there are rather too many than too few titles, and the fault of saying too little under any title is not common.

In the second volume the principal subjects are *Arabesque*, *Arch*, *Architect*, *Assyrian architecture*, *Atrium*, *Aureole*, and *Baptistry*. *Arabesque* is mainly devoted to the discussion of the Roman and Raphaelesque methods, and dismisses the interesting and characteristic work of Byzantium with a brief paragraph. The more legitimate *Arabesque* is to be found, much too barely stated, under the heads *Arab-ornament* and *Alhambresque*; but more is promised under the title *Moresque*. The article *Architect* occupies some forty pages, and is a full compendium of the best and latest authorities on the functions of the architect in antiquity and the Middle Ages, with well-compiled descriptive lists of the most famous names in the several schools. *Aureole* favorably compares with *Angel* and *Apostles* for well-directed archæological study. *Atrium* has sixteen pages, and *Baptistry* thirty-four.

It is but just to the Messrs. Audsley to note that, unlike most of their countrymen who have written upon art, they have avoided the error of taking a merely English view of the subjects of which they treat, and have been sufficiently cosmopolitan to give to English examples and English customs no more than their fair share of notice under the general titles. Our young architects have scarcely yet recovered from the insular bias created in their minds by the distorted historical perspectives in nearly all the popular English writings on the Gothic style. The high standard of performance set by M. Viollet-le-Duc in this department of literature must necessarily act as a severe strain upon all who follow him in similar fields, not only in respect to the thoroughness, learning, and ingenuity of his essays, but as regards the wondrously graphic quality of their illustrations. It is in the latter quality especially that the present work must by every reader be found wanting. Though the illustrations are in general sufficiently apt, they none of them are brilliant, and they are but grudgingly bestowed. Some of the archæological articles, like *Angel*, have diagrams enough to give the subject its full value; but throughout the work numerous opportunities for effective exposition by the pencil are lost. In such titles, for instance, as *Apse* and *Aisle*, it is a serious omission to have plans alone, and no sections or elevations by which to define the characteristic types of construction and design. We have no hesitation in saying that the starving of such a work in such a way is false economy, and that, by a more liberal and intelligent use of illustrative prints and diagrams, the practical value, if not the pecuniary success, of the work would have been increased threefold, without any essential additions to the text. Indeed, such illustrations should have been afforded at the present price of the work to subscribers.

Life and Writings of Frank Forester (Henry William Herbert). Vols. i. and ii. New York: Orange Judd Company.

HENRY WILLIAM HERBERT may be justly called the father of American sporting literature, and it is by his contributions to that only that he is still almost entirely known in this country. It seems from this book, however, that it was not until after repeated failures in other lines of literature that Mr. Herbert devoted himself to writing on sporting topics. He was the author of a number of novels, chiefly historical, several of which, notably 'The Brothers of the Fronde' and 'Oliver Cromwell,' passed through several editions, and were highly commended in England, though here they met with a very cold reception.

Mr. Herbert was the son of the Dean of Manchester, grandson of the Earl of Carnarvon, and a graduate of Caius College, Cambridge. He came to this country in 1831, and after a short experience in school teaching took the editorship of the *American Monthly Magazine*, which had but a short existence, seemingly due to his intemperate and quarrelsome disposition. For a number of years after, he was connected with several magazines and journals, among them the *Courier and Enquirer* and the *Commercial Advertiser*, and did for them and in the preparation of his romances a good deal of literary work. His final failure in journalism was owing, his biographer says, to "his being prolix and diffusive in general style, lacking ability to concentrate passing ideas into telling paragraphs, while upon general topics he was autocratic and dictatorial, ever inclined toward aggressive assertions, and paying little attention to popular prejudices." In the latter qualities he was apparently a few years too early for success. Although before 1837 Mr. Herbert began the contribution of occasional sporting sketches to the *Turf Register* and *Graham's Magazine*, it was not until 1848 that the first of his standard books appeared, 'The Field Sports of the United States and British Provinces of North America.' This was soon followed by 'Fish and Fishing of the United States and British Provinces,' probably the best and most enduring of his works; and in 1857 by 'The Horse and Horsemanship in North America.' There are several minor and less-known volumes on kindred subjects, but on the three last named rest his best claims for reputation.

Mr. Herbert's life, as told, was on the whole a singularly unhappy one. Unable, through his habits and proneness to quarrel with his best friends on trivial provocation, to retain the companionship of those with whom his birth and education entitled him to associate, conscious of repeated failures in the branch of literature he most desired success in, the last days of his life were passed in melancholy and gloom. His first wife lived but a few years, and it is hinted her death was hastened by his passionate and overbearing disposition. A second alliance, contracted in 1858, was terminated by his wife leaving him a few months after marriage; and soon thereafter Mr. Herbert invited a number of his friends to a dinner in New York for the purpose, as was ascertained, of making it the occasion of his suicide. But one guest appeared in response to the invitation, and toward two o'clock in the morning Mr. Herbert rose from the table, walked in front of a mirror, and shot himself directly through the heart. Two letters left for the coroner and "press of America," respectively, showed the act to have been long deliberated, and requested that his tombstone might be inscribed with the word "Infelicissimus."

Mr. Herbert was gifted with many accomplishments and charming social qualities when he chose to exert them, and for years his home, "The Cedars," near Newark, N. J., was the resort of many well-known men of letters and position from New York and elsewhere. Col. Picton gives some interesting stories of the house and its frequenters. One of the prominent characters was "Sailor," a large Newfoundland dog which had a passion for pulling people out of the water, and, Col. Picton says, "in this way frustrated several attempts at suicide, and notably those of two of Herbert's guests, both distinguished in the world of letters, who, beneath the influence of *mania a potu*, plunged into the waters of the Passaic and were dragged out by the dog despite their frantic opposition. The

life of one of Herbert's friends was thus saved upon three distinct occasions." Col. Picton's biography of Herbert occupies one-third of the first of the two volumes, which are meant to be the beginning of the republication by the Orange Judd Company of Herbert's writings, and is well written and interesting, while, intentionally or not, it contains a lesson no reader can help observing. The rest of the book consists of sketches and short stories by Mr. Herbert, concluding with several "American historical ballads" of questionable merit.

The Life and Public Services of Ambrose E. Burnside, Soldier, Citizen, Statesman. By Ben: Perley Poore, with an Introduction by Henry B. Anthony. Providence: J. A. & R. A. Reid. Illustrated. 8vo, pp. 448.

THIS work is elegantly printed and will be welcome to a large circle of friends and constituents. General Burnside's friends were always devoted ones, and his power of attaching others to him personally has been universally recognized. Mr. Poore has had the means of learning some things of the early life of Burnside which have not been made public before; but in reference to his military career, which is the only important thing for the general reader, it cannot be said that any valuable addition has been made to our former knowledge. The character which Burnside maintained down to the close of his life reacts upon the history of his military service, as it is right that it should do. He impressed his associates in the Senate, as elsewhere, with the conviction that he was an earnest, modest man, who meant to be entirely sincere in all he did, and was guided by pure principle and a high sense of honor. Such a character is inconsistent with any intrigue, and in considering the long-mooted question whether he was sincere in objecting to be made commander of the Army of the Potomac in 1862, when he relieved McClellan, it may justly be said that his subsequent and prior life should settle the question in favor of his absolute sincerity.

By the same evidence we see that he was not a man of great intellect, and that his modesty was based upon an honest self-judgment. He had a reasonable measure of success in operations of the second class, like the Roanoke expedition and the campaign in East Tennessee, and was a faithful subordinate when commanding a division or a corps in a great army. His repulse at Fredericksburg did not in itself prove that he was incapable of handling a large army, but the exasperation which he showed toward those of his officers who had criticised him, seemed to prove that he could not dominate or manage the chafing elements of which a large army is composed. His march to Fredericksburg was well conceived and carried out, and he would have secured solid footing south of the river had the authorities at Washington despatched the pontoon trains in time. In his exasperation he tried to march a little later when the elements were too much for him, and he left the command because the President did not feel that he could afford to dismiss a considerable list of general officers whose conduct closely resembled insubordination.

It can hardly be said, therefore, that Burnside's military capacity was fully tested, but the impulsiveness and impetuosity of temper which led to his resignation must be admitted to be an element unfavorable to success under very large responsibilities. He was, besides, very unsystematic in business details, and lacked the method in current affairs which enables a man to keep all the threads of complicated duties well in hand. Regimental officers have been known to send hundreds of miles for deserters from the ranks, but these, when brought back, have produced an irregular furlough written by Burnside upon the fly-leaf of a memorandum book, of which no report or record had been made. To those who served him in good faith and with zeal, he allowed the largest latitude, and would unhesitatingly assume the responsibility for what they did, whether the result were good or ill. But they had also to expect the most eccentric interference with their subordinates, if it occurred to him to countermand directions which they had given. All these things combined to make a peculiar character, and it is not easy to gainsay those who deny his fitness for a great command. It is plain, however, that this is rather a conclusion from probable reasons than a thing proved by his career while in command of the Potomac army.

Zhizn za Okeanom. [Life Beyond the Ocean: A Sketch of the Religious, Socio-Economic, and Political Life in the United States of America.] By A. Lapukin. St. Petersburg.

MR. LAPUKIN has made a very entertaining book from his impressions of life in New York during a stay of some two years as Psalmist of the Russian Chapel. (The psalmist is a functionary combining in varying proportions the offices of deacon in the Episcopal Church with that of clerk in the English sense, and of choir-leader in ours.) His object in writing was to supply his countrymen with something of the information for which he had sought in vain before leaving home. "For us Russians the New World is yet a *terra incognita*, and we must still wait for our Columbus who may anew discover America—especially for us." He brought to his task a quick and ready eye and a most kindly sympathy, while, within its brief limit, the book is rather rapid and cursory than superficial. It might be called 'The New World, as seen from New York,' since the writer's personal experience was confined to this vicinity, and his information in general was mainly derived from New York sources. The book reads almost like a history of 1880 and 1881, but from a standpoint so unlike that usually taken by foreigners that it has a most attractive freshness. For one thing, mere physical magnitude does not overpower our author: space and stretch of country are no novelty to him. Then, the book is strictly written for Russians; there is not the faintest suggestion that Americans would ever see it. Hence, in a way, it is a remarkable example of how others see us.

America is not perfect in Mr. Lapukin's eyes; it is not the land of promise. Nevertheless, it is evident that he brought hither a tradition of admiration and affection rarely found in foreigners. We are always "our transatlantic friends." Of course his subjects are multifarious; yet if his choice is sometimes a little surprising, the point is not missed. Of Tanner: "At the end he was the most notorious doctor in the United States; and in the United States notoriety is money." "He who has not seen New York has never seen a grand procession." He believes the Concord School of Philosophy to have been founded by "Alcott, a rich American," but describes it as an example of "the American fondness for uniting profit with pleasure." "Besides the regular professors, there are at the readings of the lectures a number of amateurs who delight the party with the fruits of their philosophic speculations. At intervals the orchestra plays, and not far off are the 'refreshments.' At the close of the readings teachers and pupils scatter in the beautiful park, and continue special conversations on philosophic subjects. The rustling of the leaves and the murmur of the river give a romantic character to this philosophic pleasure. . . . The founder of the school himself, now an old man of eighty, jumps for joy, like a child, at the realization of his long-cherished dreams."

Seventy pages are devoted to the Presidential campaign, which was watched with keen and discriminating interest. Writing for his public, the story could but begin with the canal-boat; it ends at the moment when the hope of recovery last summer was strongest. As a careful and impartial, though quietly humorous, picture of the external aspects of our quartain fever, it would be worth something to the American public. Quite another side of the book is the religious one, though the writer has expressed himself more fully in a special work of which we shall speak hereafter. We make one extract, to comfort those who fear that the Bible is going out of fashion:

"The Bible in America is not only the book of books in the usual sense of the words, but it has gone into the very body and blood of American society. To take away from the American people the Bible would be to rob it of half its substance. With the Bible, for an American, are united the sweetest memories of a happy childhood. As soon as a child is conscious, so soon he begins to see, without exception, in every home, a thick, gilt-edged book which a gray-haired grandfather or a wrinkled grandmother reads each morning and evening by the fireside. Later, at Christmas, with the other presents, the father gives to the son or the daughter a beautiful little Bible. After that school begins, and the sweetest recollections of the home life of the child are renewed and perpetuated by the daily reading. A good knowledge of the text of the Bible is thus obtained by children in America at an age when European, and especially Russian, children have hardly any conception of the book itself."

Mr. Lapukin's work should be of value for the light it affords about the Russians themselves. It is a grief to him to find his country so misrepresented, so little known. "Entire ignorance of the Russian language stands like the great Chinese wall as a complete bar to any acquaintance between the two peoples." "Even in London, among ten different newspapers, Russian affairs are in the hands of Poles or Jews. Among them all there are but two Englishmen." With what pleasure he regards Schuyler's 'Peter the Great.' Of the Mission Chapel he says:

"The congregation was usually of the most varied character. There were the Greek millionaire trading in cotton with the Indies and Australia, and a whilom Russian actor selling needles in the streets, a Russian doctor, and a student of the University of Moscow; a wandering sailor serving as clerk in a toy-shop, and a nobleman making coffee in a restaurant; a merchant's son escaping from military service; a former lieutenant of the army living by picking rags in the streets; an Austrian Serb acting as Russian interpreter in the hotels, and the Russian radical living by borrowing without paying; a Pole boasting himself half-Russian and a lieutenant of the Russian fleet, working at the smoking of sausages in a German establishment. Usually there were a few Americans of both sexes, and from time to time came representatives of the American clergy of different denominations. Of Russians of high rank, the church saw within its walls the Grand Dukes Alexis Alexandrovitch and Constantine Constantinovitch at the time of their visits in New York, and the reverend Bishops John and Nestor of Alaska at the time of their journeys through New York."

Of Russian immigrants, he says there are very few: "The papers reported in the course of a few weeks nine hundred Russian immigrants, so I went down to Castle Garden to take a look at my countrymen. What was my disappointment and surprise to meet only Poles, and only long-nosed Polish Jews at that." The Americans distrust the Poles as not trustworthy or capable of serious work; hence they are eager to call themselves "pure Russians."

"One day one of them came to the church asking help of the charitable society. It was

necessarily refused him, but at the same time there was given him the address of one of the Hebrew societies. 'I'm not a Jew; by God, I'm not a Jew,' said the man. 'I'm a Russian, by God; I'm a Russian.' 'Then why don't you speak Russian?' 'That's no matter, no matter; by God, I'm not a Jew. I'm a Christian Tartar —Peter Troitski. By God, I'm not a Jew'—all the while working the muscles of his face to make himself look less like a Jew."

Mr. Lapukin repeats the pathetic story of the failure of the Russian colony in Brazil. Of one of those who came thence to this country he asked, "though I knew it was a cruel question": "Would you now return to Russia?" The man of Samara hung his head, then, his eyes suddenly glistening, with despairing pathos he exclaimed: "Now, heaven is nearer far for us than our foolishly lost Russia!"

Another work, by the same writer, 'Rimski Katolitzizm v' Amerikye' (Roman Catholicism in America), we can hardly more than mention here. Superficially striking is the remark that "at the time of the Civil War, the Protestant sects and bodies were completely divided, and offered no hope of reconciliation. The Roman Catholic Church alone continued to be united, with its powerful organization and its impartiality toward both the contending parties." But Mr. Lapukin imagines what never existed when he goes on to represent the public as turning wistfully to that church for aid as a mediator between the two sections. The only other sects worth taking into account, according to our author, are the Methodist and the Episcopal, which both lack historical authority. This defect the latter might supply, he thinks, by a union with the Orthodox Church of the East. To prove that such a union has been desired by the Episcopal Church in America, he produces at length, from the Proceedings of the General Conventions of 1868 and 1871, the resolutions which were sent to the authorities of the Greek Church, and also the reply received in 1874 from the Patriarch of Constantinople and the Bishops of Alexandria, Antioch, and Athens. Doubtless most who heard them believed them to be simple expressions of Christian fellowship and charity, but (we follow Mr. Lapukin) they were the first step toward union, a step so important as at once to alarm the Roman Catholic Church, to which Episcopalianism in its present shape is of the utmost value, "since from it, or through its influence, come one-half of all the converts to Catholicism." To arrest the movement, "the Roman Catholic press sounded the alarm and rushed to arms for the struggle against this dangerous tendency of Episcopalianism." "Not counting sufficient its own strength, the American press called out the reserves of French Jesuitism." Hence the appearance in this country, not only of the life of Prince Galitzin, but of such books as 'Le Récit d'une Sœur,' and the biographies of Natalia Naryshkin and Madame Svetchin, all intended to show the superiority of the Latin to the Greek Church. This influence, Mr. Lapukin is convinced, put an end to the idea of union.

Incredible as it may seem that any one should suppose such a scheme was ever seriously meditated, it will not be absurd to one who knows anything of the dream of the extreme Slavophil, that effete Western Europe is to be restored by the strong young Slavic blood, or, viewing it from the other side, to one who remembers the general tone of Dean Stanley's 'Eastern Church.' Mr. Lapukin, though with a modesty which commands respect, faithfully believes that the Russian Church in New York is a mission church.

A Primer of Art. By John Collier. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882.

THIS little book seems intended largely as a practical guide to beginners in drawing and painting. It includes a general definition of art, and a brief account of its earliest beginnings. It is hardly, however, a book from which either the special student or the general reader can derive much profit. One or two brief quotations will illustrate this. In the course of some remarks on decoration the author says: "As we hear a great deal about decorative art nowadays, it may be as well to inquire if there are any great principles of decoration. Is there any rule to which it must conform? There is only one—it must be beautiful; it is subject to no other law. Beauty is that which pleases the eye. If ornament is pleasing, it is good; if not, it is bad. As to what is pleasing, that each person must decide for himself" (p. 11). Does the author really mean to affirm that beauty is that which pleases *any* eye? There are short chapters on The Practice of Painting, Outline Drawing, Light and Shade, Texture, Anatomy, Perspective, Color, etc. In the chapter on Light and Shade (the whole chapter is in twenty-two lines) we read: "The absolute degree of light can seldom be imitated in a drawing; but this is of little consequence, as the eye is chiefly conscious of relative intensities, and these can be perfectly rendered." Now the absolute intensity of shade, in nature, can hardly be approached any nearer than the absolute intensity of light. It is difficult, therefore, to perceive the truth of this statement. There are many other loose and inaccurate statements. In the chapter on Color, thirteen out of seventeen pages are devoted to an account of the wave theory of color sensations, and the physical structure of the eye—a kind of information with which the student of art, as such, has very little concern.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderson, E. L. On Horseback, in the School and on the Road. Henry Holt & Co. $1 50.
Ballou, M. M. Notable Thoughts about Women: a Literary Mosaic. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 50.
Barbou, A. Victor Hugo and his Time. Translated by E. E. Frewer. Harper & Bros.
Bartlett, J. R. Letters of Roger Williams, 1632-1682. Providence: Tibbitts & Shaw.
Baring-Gould, S. The Vicar of Morwenstow. 3d ed. Thomas Whittaker. 60 cents.
Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexikon. 13th ed. Parts 16-18. New York: L. W. Schmidt.
Complete List of Mineral Waters, Foreign and Domestic. New York: P. Scherer & Co.
Craik, Mrs. D. M. Plain-Speaking. Harper & Bros.
Dayton, A. C. Last Days of Knickerbocker Life in New York. George W. Harlan.
De Goncourt, E. La Faustin: a Life Study. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1 25.
Elder, W. Conversations on the Principal Subjects of Political Economy. Philadelphia: Henry Carey Baird & Co.
Froude, J. A. Thomas Carlyle: A History of the First Forty Years of his Life. 1795-1835. In 2 volumes. Vol. I. Harper & Bros.

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WILL PUBLISH SATURDAY:

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The Nation.

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The Week.

THE decision of the full bench of the Supreme Court of the District in Guiteau's case leaves him only two chances of escape—an application to the Supreme Court of the United States for a writ of habeas corpus, on the ground that the court had not jurisdiction to try the prisoner, or a lunacy inquest. The latter may be dismissed as out of the question, because no judge would listen to any but the most overwhelming evidence of insanity where the issue has been recently involved in a murder trial, and has been decided against the prisoner; and there is no more reason for thinking Guiteau insane now than there was at the time of the verdict. It is possible that habeas-corpus proceedings may be attempted, but even if the Supreme Court should undertake to review the decision of the trial court by such means, it is impossible to imagine any way in which the verdict could be upset. The "jurisdictional point" in Guiteau's case—the question whether the District courts have jurisdiction over a murderer whose victim has died in New Jersey—is one on which there are conflicting decisions, and, in accordance with the usual rules governing such cases, the Supreme Court of the United States could hardly do otherwise than take the decisions of the Supreme Court of the District as finally establishing the law for the District. It would no more inquire whether these were right or wrong than it would whether the decision of such a point by the Court of Appeals of this State was correct, and for this very reason the Judges may very well refuse to entertain habeas-corpus proceedings at all, as involving a mere waste of time. In all human probability, therefore, Guiteau will be hanged on June 30.

If the steady growth of a bouffe atmosphere about a custom or institution be a sign of its approaching extinction, we are certainly near the end of the spoils system. Kauffman, one of the Cameron nominees for an Internal Revenue Collectorship in Pennsylvania, *vice* Wiley, dismissed without cause, or rather in the teeth of much cause for retaining him, has been confirmed by the Senate, the beautiful reform platform of the Pennsylvania Republicans to the contrary in any wise notwithstanding The debate over the matter in the Senate was very remarkable. Senator Mitchell opposed the confirmation by eulogizing Mr. Wiley, and by reading the beautiful platform and "public opinion" hostile to the change from Pennsylvania newspapers. To this Mr. Cameron replied by abusing Mr. Wiley, and reading "voices in the air" from other Pennsylvania newspapers favorable to the change. The beautiful platform, however, remained to be disposed of, but Mr. Cameron was not troubled by it. He met it by pleading that it had no *ex-post-facto* operation, or, in other words, did not apply to nominations made before it was adopted. In other words, the platform is like the temperance pledge of the inebriate, which was to take effect as soon as he had disposed of a keg of whiskey which he happened to have in the house. We believe, however, that this is the first time that a man in high office has produced a reform which is to begin after certain abuses already on hand have been executed.

Mr. George William Curtis has availed himself of the opportunity afforded by a letter to Senator Mitchell of Pennsylvania, apropos of the Independent revolt in that State, to utter some solid chunks of good sense about the practice, so much indulged in by reformers in and out of politics of late years, of denouncing bosses and the use of patronage for political ends without specifying the particular mode in which these abuses are to be put an end to. He shows that the common language of reform platforms on this subject now simply sounds to the country "as vapid declamation intended to conceal personal disappointment and spite"; and, he might have added, to get the control of the Machine for a new set of "workers." As soon as the reformers begin to ask for the adoption of competition as the sole mode of entering the service, and promotion as the chief mode of reaching its higher grades, so as to leave no power to "influence," the voters will begin to believe in the sincerity of Independents, and reform movements will sweep everything before them. The languid interest now felt in them is due to the strong suspicion that they originate in a desire for a "new deal."

Mr. Conkling has been again "foully slandered"—this time by the Kingston *Freeman*. This wicked sheet says that he became a candidate for reëlection "out of his own head," and not by the advice of his friends; that his friends urged him from time to time to withdraw, but that he would not; and that he was a party to a "corrupt bargain" looking to the election of himself and of "another person." It will be a surprise to most persons that Mr. Conkling should stoop to notice such slanders as these. Indeed, it seems to be a surprise to himself that he should be doing it, for in an interview on the subject he recalls the fact that his "habit has been never to reply to slanders, however foul." His friends have, it seems, persuaded him that this habit has "encouraged calumny." On their advice, he has resolved to depart from his habit in this case, and reply to the libel. In his emphatic way he now declares that "each of these charges is without truth and positively against truth." The fact, he says, is that he went to Albany at the urgent request of his friends and supporters; that he never asked any man to vote for him; that though he frequently requested a withdrawal of his name, his friends positively refused to consent to it; and that he was not a party to a bargain of any kind, corrupt or pure, on the subject. This interview has been followed by one with Mr. Sharpe, who was supposed to be one of Mr. Conkling's closest friends at the time he went to Albany, as to his responsibility for the article in the *Freeman*. He says he knew nothing of it until he saw it in print, but that he would "like to know the names" of the friends who advised Mr. Conkling to go to Albany, and then goes further and declares that the great man "never consulted" them at all, either at Washington or in this State. He also says, somewhat truculently, that the editor of the *Freeman* "has a good deal of personal knowledge" of the facts in the case, and "knows how to take care of himself." It almost looks as if Mr. Conkling's early habit of total silence worked better than replying to charges, and as if in departing from it he had been again misled by his friends. Everybody would like to know who they are. They may be good and pure men, but they are sadly deficient in judgment. Would it not be better for Mr. Conkling to pay no further attention to their suggestions on any subject?

Mr. Crapo's bill to extend the charters of national banks passed the House by a vote of 125 to 67, receiving nearly a two-thirds majority on the final test. The political division of the vote shows that 103 Republicans and 22 Democrats voted for the bill, and that 3 Republicans, 8 Greenbackers, and 56 Democrats voted against it. Approximately ninety-seven per cent. of the Republican and twenty-five per cent. of the Democratic vote was cast for the bill—three per cent. of the former and seventy-five per cent. of the latter being cast against it. Votes taken on amendments proposed at various stages of the debate show that one-third of the House, divided politically in about the same way, were not only opposed to continuing the national-banking system, but were in favor of issuing new greenbacks to take the place of the existing bank notes. The Democrats have thus signalized themselves anew as the bedlamites of finance; for although the Greenbackers claim peculiar distinction in this regard, and although in the debate they attacked the Democrats fiercely as being only hypocrites and pretenders in the cause of fiat money, they furnished only one vote in eight to the common muster-roll. It is now some fourteen years since the Democratic party first attempted to make an attractive issue for themselves out of some plan for producing financial chaos. In every single instance where they have succeeded to their hearts' desire in making this issue pronounced and definite, so that the people could divide upon it, they have been ignominiously beaten at the polls.

The most important amendment to the National Bank Bill was that which provides that all suits brought by or against national banks shall be tried in the same courts in which suits brought by or against other banks are tried—*i. e.*, in the State courts, if the parties to the suit are citizens of the same State. This amendment is of no value and is of doubtful constitutionality. In so far as it assumes to deprive the United

States courts of jurisdiction in this class of cases it is clearly unconstitutional and void. The Constitution, art. 3, sec. 2, says: "The judicial power [of the United States] shall extend to all cases in law and equity arising under . . . the laws of the United States." The National Banking Act is certainly a law of the United States. Consequently the rights of parties to sue in the courts of the United States in any and all cases arising under that law cannot be impaired. If the object of the amendment was merely to give the State courts concurrent jurisdiction in such cases, it was hardly worth the trouble of passing it. The concession seems to have been made by the friends of the bill in order to secure the support of a few State-rights fanatics who would otherwise have voted against the whole measure. Although this was the only important amendment adopted, several very bad ones were voted down: that of Bland, which provided for substituting greenbacks for bank notes, being defeated by the decisive vote of 71 to 138. The most significant vote of all was on the amendment of Mr. Springer to limit the extended charters to ten years, on the ground that as the national debt would be paid off within ten years the present banking system would necessarily come to an end. This amendment also was defeated, and the vote shows that the House does not consider the extinction of the public debt as equivalent to an extinction of the national-banking system. This is as it should be.

The House Foreign Affairs Committee has disposed of the Shipherd contempt case in a singular way. On Wednesday Mr. Shipherd appeared before it, armed with a bagful of books and papers, and was asked whether he still declined to produce *all* the documentary evidence he had bearing on the attempts to enforce the claim of the Peruvian Company against Peru. On his saying positively that he did refuse, the Committee went into secret session, and after ten minutes opened their doors and announced that Shipherd would be discharged until further notification. Thereupon Shipherd sat down and wrote a long letter to the Chairman, saying that he had a great deal of evidence to produce, which he insisted upon producing as a matter of right, including "an important letter from the President of the United States," and correspondence with representatives of Peru and the State Department. He declared that as the Committee had permitted other witnesses to discredit him, he was entitled to an opportunity to be heard to clear himself. The affair has been compared with the Hallet Kilbourn case, but there is really a wide difference between the two. When Kilbourn was called upon to testify with regard to the District of Columbia "real-estate pool," what the Committee wanted was to draw from him all the facts within his knowledge connected with that concern. Kilbourn refused, and was in consequence sent to jail, where he languished for some time, but finally got out on habeas corpus, and established his right to refuse to testify by a decision of the Supreme Court to the effect that the Constitution gives Congress no jurisdiction over "pools" of any kind, real or personal, and that consequently the House cannot compel witnesses to testify with regard to them. But Shipherd does not refuse to testify: he longs to testify. He declares that he has a letter of General Grant about the Peruvian Company; a letter from President Garfield's private secretary, by means of which the "missing documents" in the South American correspondence can be traced into the possession of Mr. Blaine; letters of Senator Blair concerning his communications with Mr. Blaine as to the Peruvian Company; besides other correspondence bearing on the use made of the State Department to advance the objects of that corporation. The offer of testimony with regard to the missing documents is particularly important, as it was in great measure to discover what had become of them that the Committee was instructed. Shipherd not only longs to testify with regard to all these matters, but insists that he has a constitutional and common-law right to do so.

But the Committee is not to be forced into taking testimony which will enable them to report to the House what they were directed to find out, so easily as this. When they found that Shipherd refused to testify on some things but really wanted to testify on others a few days ago, they immediately voted to discharge him as a witness; and now that he has offered to produce letters showing what actually became of the "missing documents," they have passed a resolution that he be allowed to submit any documents he may have for examination by the Committee, and that "if such papers be found pertinent," and "if there should be occasion therefor," or, in other words, if the Committee please, it will recall him. The case, therefore, presents the interesting and novel question whether a committee can lawfully prevent a witness from testifying before it when he says that he has evidence to give directly bearing on the matter which it has been directed to investigate.

Shipherd has published a card, couched in very impudent and abusive language, in which he offers five dollars reward, and "no awkward questions asked," for the return of "one James G. Blaine," whom he describes as "missing," and, when last seen, "making across the country south-southwest at the approximate rate of sixteen and three-quarter miles per hour." He declares that Mr. Blaine has carried off the Foreign Affairs Committee with him, and he wants them both back, in order to continue his "narrative." He says, however, that he has received "requests" for the tale, with the accompanying documents, "from nearly every State in the Union," and he is now considering the expediency of continuing it "in some other place than the now deserted Committee-room." There is no reason why he should not comply with these requests, and "thunder it out," as Guiteau would say, to the American people. They have a right to know what the tale is, even if the Committee has grown sick of its task.

Among some interesting information of the cost of churches given by the Rev. Joseph Pullman, of Brooklyn, on Sunday, was an estimate that "the cost of a single war vessel would build 250 churches of a better character than the average church building to-day." The average church is far better adapted to its purpose than our average war vessel. Most of the ships of our alleged navy are either rotting on the stocks, or, if afloat, are useless for purposes of attack or defence. Our 92 vessels—"serviceable," "requiring extensive repairs," and "unserviceable"—would represent, at this rate, 23,000 churches; and it is safe to say that the latter would make about as effectual a stand as the former against the guns of a first-class European navy. The money expended on the 250 churches is made up of voluntary contributions. If they were allowed to fall into decay before they were finished, or if when completed they were unfit to be occupied, the contributions would soon cease. The war vessel is paid for by enforced taxation, and as the people are not consulted on the question of contributing the money, their complaints as to the way in which it is expended are not considered. Mr. Pullman's comparison is more suggestive than perhaps he suspected.

The Massachusetts Supreme Court has rendered a very important decision with regard to property in unpublished plays, which removes from the law of this country the last vestige of the antique notion, dear to dramatic pirates all over the world, that stealing plays by memory is not piracy, but a legitimate branch of business. Judge Devens, overruling the well-known decision of his own court, made more than twenty years ago in the "American Cousin" case, holds that while a spectator at a play is entitled to "all the enjoyment" he can derive from its representation, and may even, if he thinks such an occupation likely to give him any pleasure or to improve his mind, take notes of what he sees, for purposes of criticism, etc., he has no right to commit the play to memory, or take it down in shorthand, and then reproduce it. In other words, the author does not by the representation of his play abandon it to the public, but retains all his rights. This decision makes the law of Massachusetts and New York identical on this point, and makes the security given to dramatic property in the United States greater than that given anywhere else in the world. This, however, is the work of the courts, not of the legislature.

The strike which at one time promised to be among the most formidable and wide-reaching in its influence seems to have failed. The Pacific Mill strikers in Lawrence, Massachusetts, have spent nearly all their money and are unable to collect any more. The owners have filled their mills—partly with new operatives and partly with the old hands, of whom only 150 are now unemployed—and are doing, in some branches, more work than ever before. In this case the costly instrument for enforcing an advance or preventing a reduction of wages has not served its purpose. In other cases—particularly in this city—the workingmen have secured what they demanded. The latest to quit work are the boiler-makers, and there is a probability of concessions on the part of employers. The attitude of the iron and steel workers of Pennsylvania has for

some time been a constant menace, and is likely to take a more positive shape. The manufacturers have rejected the proposed new scale, although the operatives modified it in some important respects. If the latter make good their threats, 30,000 men will go out of employment on the first of June. They are said to have a thorough organization and a large fund; but these very possessions will make the strike, whatever its final result, a very expensive proceeding. The varying fortunes of this extreme measure may induce the workingmen to ask themselves whether it is not at best a makeshift, and whether the troubles which reappear from time to time may not be averted by an inquiry into their causes. The iron and steel manufacturers say that "they have few orders and low prices, and can better afford to shut down than go ahead." The Textile Fabric Manufacturers' Association have decided to reduce the production of certain grades of goods because they "are glutting their shelves." The effect is to put a great number of workers on half time. Here are two cases in which over-production, in the absence of foreign outlets for manufactures, has compelled payment of wages unsatisfactory to the workmen, or exclusion from employment in whole or in part. It is argued in the latter case, indeed, that popular extravagance has induced a demand for higher-grade goods, but none the less was the production of the lower grade excessive. Artificial stimulation is the beginning and end of the high-tariff system. Protectionists say that it benefits labor, but laborers may well ask whether the alleged gains are not offset by the losses, in the form of reduced pay, idleness, strikes, and lock-outs, caused by the excesses to which the system leads.

Early in the week, $4,675,000 specie was shipped, making the total shipment since January 1 $25,491,297. The market for foreign exchange then fell below the gold-exporting point, and so ruled until near the close of the week, when the settlement of another large lot of borrowed bills forced another heavy shipment. The large Treasury disbursements and the favorable condition of the domestic exchanges modified the influence of the heavy gold exports on the bank figures for the week; and the surplus reserve of the New York banks was reduced only $2,020,725—to $6,152,225. The rates for money were in no way affected by the reduction in the bank reserve, the rate for demand loans not having ruled above three per cent. At the Stock Exchange, hesitation and dulness have characterized the week. In the early part the inclination was to higher and in the latter part to lower prices. The weather is closely watched by the stock speculators, and it was admittedly favorable until the latter part of the week, when a cold wave in the Northwestern States created some anxiety. General trade continues rather dull, and depression is the feature of the iron trade and the branches of business dependent upon it. The Pacific Bank of Boston, which failed some time ago and then resumed on a reorganization, again suspended business during the week. In the foreign markets, money has been in abundant supply at low rates, and the demand for American securities has increased without becoming sufficiently large to have much influence on the foreign exchanges.

The first speech of Mr. Trevelyan, the new Secretary for Ireland, is not encouraging. He has apparently taken on the half-paternal, half-autocratic tone toward the Irish by which Mr. Forster did himself so much injury, and which, however grateful it may be to the Tories and Conservative-Liberals, must simply help to increase the difficulties of the Government in Ireland; for, after all, it is in vain that the English Tories think well of the Irish policy of the Ministry if it does not pacify Ireland. It may be very well to show the Irish that Parnell does not govern the island, but besides this they have to be shown who does govern it. This last is, as experience has proved, by far the harder part of the job. The Irish judges, except the Lord Chancellor, have protested against the proposed suspension of trial by jury, and for the reasons which we foreshadowed two days ago. They rightly feel that it would do serious injury to their own influence and authority. The effect of the whole scheme, in fact, on Irish feeling seems to be very unfortunate, and it is already stamped with failure.

Mr. Gladstone is slowly pushing the Repression Bill through. Many of the Liberals object to the provisions relating to the suppression of newspapers and the prohibition of public meetings, and the Irish judges are notoriously unwilling to become the instruments of executing the law without the aid of juries. As yet there is not from any quarter the slightest suggestion of a new and more efficient mode of procuring evidence of agrarian crime. The difficulty of procuring such evidence has had far more to do with the failure of the ordinary law to repress crime than the refusal of juries to convict. In fact, the failures of justice through want of witnesses are to the failures through the refusal of juries to convict in the proportion of about twenty-five to one. So that abolishing trial by jury, without making any better provision for getting testimony, is very like making a house tight by carefully weatherstripping the windows while leaving large holes in the roof. The unwisdom, too, of putting the whole island under a system of arbitrary rule because there happens to be a savage and, as the Government admits, justifiable quarrel between the landlords and tenants about land, is well illustrated by the following admission from the London *Economist*, one of the calmest and most impartial of English journals:

> "The law itself in these parts of Ireland is in a condition almost without a precedent in Europe. Upon all ordinary subjects it is carried out as well as it is anywhere. If a man murders a wayfarer for robbery, or steals his neighbor's spoons, or interferes with him in any way, he is punished exactly as he would be in London or Paris. There is in the worst districts nearly perfect security both for life and property if either are unconnected with land. If, however, the property is land, or the life that of a landlord, agent, or minister of the law, the insecurity is very great—greater than in the wildest States of Western America."

The concessions made by Prince Bismarck to the Catholic Church by the repeal of the principal features of the celebrated Falk laws, have so far entirely failed to produce the desired results. They have not elicited from the Vatican any valuable expression of satisfaction, in the way of an assurance that now the Church considers itself at peace with the state and will act accordingly. To a firm will supported by strength the Church has sometimes bowed, waiting for better times. But a yielding, conciliatory policy on the part of its opponents has always reanimated and stiffened in the Church the spirit of domination. The policy of "overwhelming generosity" with regard to the Church question, which has been recently announced by members of the German Government, will in all probability only result in this, that the Vatican will always be ready to take what it can get, at the same time quietly expressing its expectation of more. Bismarck has, therefore, not made any satisfactory progress in that direction. He has equally failed in securing, as he hoped, sufficient parliamentary support for his pet measure, the tobacco monopoly, to carry it through the Reichstag. The committee to which the subject was recently referred has voted and reported against the Government proposition by a majority of 24 to 4, and the fate of the measure in the Reichstag itself appears therefore no longer doubtful. But Bismarck is known as one of those statesmen who never acknowledge a defeat, and although it is given out that he will not dissolve the Reichstag on account of the rejection of his principal measure, he will bring this bill before it again and again, and have it argued over and over in Parliament, and in election campaigns, until it is finally put through by main force of perseverance, if he lives long enough to tire out the opposition. But he is now sixty-seven years old, and his health is none of the firmest; and after him the unknown.

The French, who have been long troubled about the failure of their population to grow in as great a ratio as that of their neighbor nations, are, since the census of 1880, more troubled than ever. The summary of it has just appeared, and the marriage and birth returns are rather startling. At the rate at which the French population grew in 1860, it would have doubled in 145 years. At the rate at which it is now growing, it would double in 433 years, or, in other words, is virtually stationary. There was a slight increase of marriages during the two or three years following the war, owing to postponements during the war, but ever since 1873 there has been a marked decline both in marriages and in births, illegitimate as well as legitimate. It is with the Germans that the French writers now anxiously and for obvious reasons compare the national productiveness, and there is but little comfort to be got in that way, for the German births are 3.91 per hundred of population, while the French are only 2.47. If it were not for the German emigration, in fact, the French outlook would be very dark. The lowness of the death-rate at first looks consolatory, but then examination shows this to be due to the smallness of the number of children, who in all countries make the largest contribution to the bills of mortality.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE House of Representatives further considered the bill to extend the charters of the national banks on Wednesday and Thursday. On the latter day a flood of amendments to the bill were offered, among which was one offered by Mr. Hammond, of Georgia, giving State courts jurisdiction of suits to which national banks are parties, which was adopted without a division. On Friday a vote was finally reached and the bill passed by 123 to 67. Three Republicans voted against the bill, and twenty Democrats for it. The bill as passed provides that any national-banking association may at any time within the two years next previous to the date of the expiration of its corporate existence under the present law, and with the approval of the Comptroller of the Currency, extend its period of succession, by amending its articles of association, for a term of not more than twenty years, and shall have succession for such extended period, unless sooner dissolved by the act of shareholders owning two-thirds of its stock, or unless its franchise becomes forfeited by some violation of the law. Section six provides that the circulating notes of any association so extending the period of its succession, which shall have been issued to it prior to such extension, shall be redeemed at the Treasury of the United States, in accordance with section three of the Act of June 20, 1874. These notes are to be replaced by new circulating notes, "bearing such devices, to be approved by the Comptroller of the Currency, as shall make them readily distinguishable from the circulating notes heretofore issued. Section eight provides that national banks having a capital of $150,000 or less shall not be required to keep or deposit with the Treasurer of the United States United States bonds in excess of $10,000 as security for their circulating notes, and such of those banks as now have on deposit bonds in excess of that amount are authorized to reduce their circulation by the deposit of lawful money as provided by law.

The House passed a bill, on Thursday, providing that any person, originally a citizen of the United States, who has been naturalized as a subject of Great Britain, may publicly declare his renunciation of such naturalization and resume his character and privileges as a citizen of the United States by signing an instrument to that effect.

On Monday the President sent to the House of Representatives the report from the Secretary of State, and its accompanying documents, in reponse to the House resolution concerning the imprisonment of American citizens in Ireland. The correspondence is mainly upon the negotiations after April 3, at which time nearly all the Americans had been released, and is voluminous. In answer to Lord Granville's quotation from Mr. Seward, the Secretary of State says, in brief, that the President could not expect that the exercise of sovereignty assumed by the United States when their security was imperilled should not be assumed by other powers similarly situated; but that when the system of legal administration in Ireland worked injustice to American citizens, it became the President's duty to inquire into it, and that the President is unable to see that even the exceptional condition of Ireland "furnishes a sufficient reason why an American citizen should remain incarcerated without accusation, without chance of trial, without opportunity of release." In regard to a release conditional upon the suspect's leaving the country, Mr. Frelinghuysen says: "The President has little doubt that her Majesty's Government do not intend to insist in practice upon the extreme doctrine that an American citizen, against whom there is no charge, shall, without trial, remain in prison or leave the United Kingdom. But he believes by fairly considering each case as it arises conclusions will be reached satisfactory to both Governments.

The House Committee on Civil-Service Reform has asked the House for permission to sit during the recess for the purpose of formulating a general bill on civil-service reform.

On Tuesday the Senate, by a vote of thirty-eight to twelve, passed the bill for reëstablishing the Court of Commissioners of *Alabama* Claims for the distribution of the unappropriated money of the Geneva Award. Every amendment was rejected, the Senate approving the House Bill without changing it in any particular.

The President has approved the Fortifications Appropriation Bill, the Agricultural Department Appropriation Bill, and the Act providing for the removal of the remains of the late General Kilpatrick to the State of New Jersey.

Shipherd appeared before the House Committee on Foreign Affairs, on Wednesday, and was asked by the Chairman whether he was prepared to furnish, and would furnish, "all papers and other evidence in your possession tending to show what you did or attempted to do to enforce the claim of the Peruvian Company, or induce the United States to enforce this claim against Peru." In reply to this, Shipherd positively refused to produce the papers and evidence called for. He sent a letter to the Committee later in the day, in which he asked to be allowed to reply to Mr. Blaine's statements before the Committee, and said that he was prepared "to supply in effect, though I cannot literally," all the evidence called for by the Committee. He further stated that this evidence included an "important letter from the President of the United States, and recently discovered correspondence with official and unofficial representatives of Peru and with the Department of State," and that this documentary evidence, with much more which he did not need to specify, would enable him to absolutely disprove every imputation upon his veracity. The Committee adopted a resolution on Friday that Shipherd be permitted to submit to the Committee, for their inspection, any original papers which were pertinent to the inquiry, without reserve as to any part of their contents, and that if the papers were found to be pertinent, the witness would be further examined touching them. Shipherd has since, however, issued a card offering for sale the documents which he had prepared for the Committee. He says he does not propose to "bother with the Committee any longer."

On Wednesday Mr. Frelinghuysen received a despatch announcing that Mr. Trescot had sailed for home. No news has yet been received in regard to Mr. Trescot's interviews with Montero, or the rejection of the Chilian project for a truce. It would seem that Mr. Trescot will be the bearer of his own despatches concerning the results of his special mission.

The General Term of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia handed down its decision in the Guiteau case on Monday. The verdict and sentence of the lower court are sustained. The decision of the Court is an elaborate one, and considers very fully the points raised by Guiteau's counsel as to the application of the general statute of the United States in regard to the crime of murder to the District of Columbia, and as to the jurisdiction of a court of the District over a criminal whose murderous act was followed by death elsewhere. Guiteau received the news calmly, without the least appearance of nervousness. It is said that Mr. Reed, Guiteau's counsel, will now apply for a commission *de lunatico inquirendo*.

Among the subscriptions received by Treasurer Gilfillan, for the Garfield Memorial Hospital, to be erected in Washington, were $3,352 49, contributed in London and Paris, and forwarded by Mr. Morton, American Minister to France.

The Grand Jury at Washington returned new presentments against Brady, the Dorseys, Rerdell, Turner, Miner, Peck, and Vaile on Saturday, charging them with conspiracy to defraud the United States in connection with the awards of Star-route contracts. The indictments which are now being tried will be dismissed and give place to the new presentments, and it is thought by the prosecuting officers that they close up the several loopholes which were left open in the old indictments.

Mr. Thomas M. Marshall, who was nominated on the Cameron ticket for Congressman-at-large from Pennsylvania, has declined the nomination.

At a conference of Independent Republicans, on Wednesday, Mr. Charles S. Wolfe was elected a Senatorial delegate to the State Convention to be held on May 24. In his address Mr. Wolfe referred to the recent conference of Independents and Regulars, and flatly contradicted the charge that he had made a bargain with Cameron. In concluding, he said that he deprecated the action which the Independents would be obliged to take, and that he deprecated Democratic ascendancy in the State, but that all hope of peace was at an end, "and nothing is left but war—war against the spoils system and bossism."

Mr. Alexander H. Stephens has written a letter declining a nomination for Governor from the Independent party of Georgia. He says he will accept a nomination from the regular Democratic party and no other.

The steamer *Alaska*, of the Guion Line, arrived in New York on Sunday, having made the run from Queenstown to Sandy Hook in seven days, four hours, and ten minutes, which is the shortest passage on record.

The steamer *Rio Grande*, of the Mallory Line, which was on a voyage from Galveston to New York, was discovered to be on fire at about five o'clock on Tuesday, the 16th, when she was about ninety miles to the southeast of Cape Henlopen. The passengers were transferred to a bark which fortunately happened to be near at hand, and the captain of the *Rio Grande* then ran the steamer ashore and put out the fire, and succeeded in saving a large part of the cargo.

The New York *Herald* says editorially that Mr. Bennett will take care of the widow and orphans of Lieutenant De Long, "and not of them alone, but of every widow and of every orphan of the men who sailed with the *Jeannette* and have perished."

The 107th Anniversary of the Declaration of Independence by the people of Mecklenburg County, North Carolina, was celebrated at Charlotte on Saturday. Senator Vance made a speech of welcome, Senator Ransom read the Declaration, and Senator Bayard was the orator of the day.

The prosecution rested its case in the Malley trial on Tuesday. The State has shown that the prisoners were probably with Jennie Cramer up to about seven hours before she was found dead on the beach, and that they had opportunity to give her poison, but has failed utterly to prove that she was killed by arsenic administered by either James or Walter Malley or Blanche Douglass.

The Attorney-General of Massachusetts has forbidden the further publication of Walt Whitman's 'Leaves of Grass,' by Osgood & Co., unless some indelicate passages are expurgated. Mr. Whitman has refused to consent to this, and Osgood & Co. have given up the work.

FOREIGN.

The debate on the Repression Bill was continued in the House of Commons on Thursday. Mr. Trevelyan, Chief Secretary for Ireland, who was reëlected Member of Parliament for Harwich without opposition, in speaking on the bill, declared that it would facilitate the summoning of witnesses. The Government, he said, would be slow to use their power with regard to public meetings, and where meetings were held they would regard less the utterances of the speakers than the effect which they were intended to produce.

Mr. Dillon, speaking against the bill, maintained that the failures to convict were not the result of intimidation, but of popular sympathy. The bill, he declared, would have no other effect than to provoke secret organization The debate on the second reading of the bill came to a close on Friday, and a division was taken showing a majority of 338 in favor of the measure. The most noteworthy incident in the discussion on this day was the emphatic denial by Mr. Gladstone that the bill was the outcome of English resentment. Mr. Gladstone said that the main basis of the bill, and the motives which prompted the Government in carrying it forward with all possible energy, had reference not so much to those persons of rank and station who had become the victims of the fury of criminals, as to the misery which had been carried far and wide among the people of Ireland by the infliction of outrages in every cruel and extreme form.

On Monday Mr. Gladstone moved the second reading of the Arrears of Rent Bill. He said it was impossible to compel people to borrow, and therefore the money supplied by the Government must be a gift. He stated that there were 585,000 tenants in Ireland paying under £30 rent (Griffith's valuation); out of these 200,000 were excluded from the benefits of the Land Act by being in arrears. This, he said, must be remedied. He admitted that the proposal was extraordinary, but so, he said, was the state of Ireland. Mr. Sclater-Booth, Conservative, described the Government's plan as communistic and demoralizing. He said it was an evil precedent, and most objectionable in view of the Scotch and English farmers, who suffered as much as the Irish farmers. Mr. Forster said it would be for the interest of the landlords to reduce the number of tenants, and that if the poor tenants got a fair start, they would become fewer and better off. He strongly favored the grant taking the form of a gift. Mr. Trevelyan said the bill would give the tenants the great advantage of a fresh start, with a feeling of independence which probably neither they nor their predecessors had ever before known. After some further discussion, notwithstanding Mr. Gladstone's efforts to bring about a vote, the debate was adjourned.

The Arrears-of-Rent Bill was passed to a second reading in the House of Commons on Tuesday by a vote of 269 to 157, the amendment of Mr. Sclater-Booth, that it is inexpedient to charge the consolidated fund with any payment for arrears except in the form of a loan, having been previously rejected.

Evictions of tenants for non-payment of rent, which were stopped for the moment, have been resumed in many parts of Ireland. The measures of repression proposed in Parliament are said to be creating a revulsion of feeling throughout the country. Murmurs of discontent and dissatisfaction are heard at the course pursued by Mr. Parnell. The Irish judges have protested against the proposed abolition of trial by jury in Ireland.

Diligent search has as yet been unavailing to discover the murderers of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke, although numerous arrests have been made.

The *St. James's Gazette* says that it learns that Under-Secretary Burke was followed for protection by a constable on the day of his assassination, but the constable, just before the murder, was lured away by a false report that a woman was being murdered.

Mr. Lowell opened the "Garfield Home for Working Girls" in Brixton Road on Wednesday. Mr. Lowell in his address said he had been drawn to the opening of the Home first by the name of Garfield, and second by his own real interest in the object of the institution.

At the Reform Club in London on Thursday a poll was taken on Lord Hartington's proposal that the election of members should be conducted by a committee instead of being decided by a ballot of the whole club, and it was lost by a vote of 361 to 382. It is stated that several distinguished members intend to resign on account of the result of the ballot.

The London Mansion-House Jewish Relief fund now amounts to £72,000. The Fund Committee despatch six hundred refugees to America weekly, at a cost of £5,500.

The Vienna *Presse's* correspondent at Brody says that the condition of the Jews there is more terrible than previous telegrams had led people to suppose. It is complained that the Liverpool Relief Committee transport strong young men only to America, while men and women with large families are left at Brody. Starvation is increasing, and sickness is widespread. The emigration from Russia is still going on, and the Jews are selling the whole of their property at any cost and hurrying to the frontier. Seventy of the principal business firms of Moscow have addressed a memorial to the Minister of Finance setting forth the disastrous consequences of expelling the Jews from Moscow. According to trustworthy data, the material damage done by the anti-Jewish movement, including houses, breadstuffs, and other property destroyed, and money taken away by the emigration of Jews, amounts to £22,000,000, all lost to Russia. The Jewish question has created a deadlock in the Russian Cabinet. The Minister of Finance, who sees the great loss which the exchequer must suffer from the exodus of the Jews, threatens to resign if the measures of General Ignatieff to accelerate the emigration of the Jews are adopted. On the other hand, rumors are circulated that General Ignatieff intends to resign the position of Minister of the Interior.

At a council of the Russian Imperial family recently it was decided, on account of the receipt of alarming information touching the projects of the Nihilists, to defer the coronation of the Czar for a year. It is said that the information of the projects of the Nihilists which caused the postponement was received from the foreign police. The German Embassy at St. Petersburg is said to have been warned that the German Crown Prince will incur great danger if he attends the coronation of the Czar, as there is a "deep, undiscoverable conspiracy against the Czar and his guests."

On Wednesday the London *Times* published a telegram from the President of the Egyptian Chamber of Notables, saying that the differences between the Khedive and the Ministers had completely disappeared. Other despatches stated that the Ministry would remain in office for a few days, in order to allow the negotiations between Turkey and the powers to proceed. English and French fleets have appeared at Alexandria. A despatch from Cairo on Monday said that the Ministry were making strenuous efforts to obtain the support of the Notables in inaugurating a policy of resistance to England and France. It is said that the English and French Governments are mistaken if they think Arabi Bey will be frightened into yielding by the presence of ironclads at Alexandria. Arabi Bey's adherents say that he can count upon the Army, and that he means to fight. On Monday it was announced that the Turkish Minister of Foreign Affairs had demanded of the British and French Ambassadors, in the name of the Sultan, the recall of the squadrons from Alexandria, on the ground that order is now restored. The Ambassadors have communicated the request to their respective Governments, and are now awaiting instructions.

An interview has taken place between Arabi Bey and the French Consul in Egypt in connection with the efforts which are being made to induce Arabi Bey and the rebellious Army officers to leave Egypt. The interview was without result. Arabi Bey maintained that the country was with him in favor of determined resistance. It is also announced that the negotiations between the Consuls and the Ministry have failed, and the latter refuse further negotiations unless the English and French fleets are withdrawn. A council of war has decided in favor of active military preparations. In fact, the latest despatches represent the situation in Egypt as having become alarming again, and it is generally thought that the presence of Turkish troops will be necessary to prevent an outbreak.

The French Chamber of Deputies on Monday resolved, notwithstanding the opposition of M. Say, Minister of Finance, to consider the proposal substituting a duty on alcohol for the duty on wines and beer, and M. Say thereupon, at the end of the sitting, tendered his resignation as Minister of Finance; but on Tuesday the Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 302 to 36, passed a resolution of confidence in M. Say, who will accordingly remain in office.

The action brought by the municipality of Marseilles against the ex-Empress Eugénie to recover possession of the château presented to the late Emperor by the city has been decided in favor of the Empress.

A Berlin despatch says that the Committee of the Reichstag, to which the Tobacco Monopoly Bill was referred, has rejected all the clauses to number 31 of the bill. Only four members voted in their favor. The House has adjourned until June 6.

The Crivoscians, being destitute of all means of carrying on their revolt, have crossed the Montenegrin frontier and surrendered to the Montenegrin troops.

Debate was begun in the Spanish Chamber of Deputies on Wednesday on the Government measure for instituting oral and public trials. The Attorney-General has resigned. He will introduce a counter scheme in favor of the establishment of the jury system. Several important members of the majority are said to approve this plan, and the Democrats have resolved to support it. The Prime Minister, Señor Sagasta, has declared that the country is not yet ready for it, and will make the Government scheme a Cabinet question. On Friday, however, the Minister of Justice announced that the Government would introduce at the next session a bill establishing trial by jury and a new penal code framed on very liberal principles. It was thought that this statement would appease the dissentient section of the Ministerial majority, but on Saturday the amendment proposing the institution of trial by jury was offered, and although Señor Sagasta spoke against the amendment, and said the adoption would be regarded as a vote of censure, yet twenty-eight influential members of the Ministerial party voted for the amendment, and forty members abstained from voting. The amendment was, however, rejected by a vote of 181 to 55.

The Canadian Parliament was prorogued on Wednesday with the customary ceremonies. The Governor-General, in his address, referred to the abolition of the duties on metals and other raw materials, and said: "It is satisfactory to know that a buoyant state revenue will permit these reductions—amounting to about $1,250,000—to be made without inconvenience." Referring to the rapid and successful development of manufacturing, agricultural, and other industries, the Governor-General said he thought progress in these directions would be still greater were it not that capitalists "hesitate to embark their means in undertakings which would be injured, if not destroyed, by a change in the trade and fiscal policy adopted by you in 1879," and that therefore, in order to give the people without further delay an opportunity of expressing their deliberate opinion on this policy, and at the same time to bring into operation the measure for readjustment of representation in the House of Commons, he announced that it was his intention to cause the present Parliament to be dissolved at an early day.

TUESDAY, May 23, 1882.

MR. LOWELL AND THE IRISH.

WHETHER President Arthur has determined to recall Mr. Lowell, and the *Herald* is preparing the way for an announcement of the fact, or the *Herald* has itself determined that Mr. Lowell ought to be recalled, and is trying to bring the President over to the same way of thinking, we do not know. Whatever be the reason, the *Herald* is publishing a series of articles urging the recall, on the single ground that Mr. Lowell, however fit for the place he may be in other respects, has the capital defect of not enjoying the confidence of the American Irish. There is apparently no specific charge of neglect of duty made against him. The list of Irish-American citizens whom he was some time ago accused of having allowed to languish in British dungeons, is somehow not forthcoming. In other words, the inmates of dungeons who claimed American citizenship have mostly turned out to be persons who had little or no title to American citizenship, and claimed it, not from love of liberty—for some of them refused to be released on condition that they would quit Ireland—but in the hope of making trouble between Great Britain and the United States, or, as they would themselves doubtless express it, for "divilmint."

Nor is it now alleged—though some such absurdity was broached in the beginning—that Mr. Lowell is not American enough for the Irish voters. This was probably too wild a charge for even O'Donovan Rossa to stick to. If it were true that Mr. Lowell, at the age of sixty, had forgotten how an American should feel, and had forgotten the sources of American greatness, and forgotten what American honor and fame required in the intercourse of the country with foreign nations, it would give strong support to the theory that no American could safely be trusted with the foreign policy of the Government, and that the President should select his diplomatic agents, from the Secretary of State down, from among the most recent comers at Castle Garden. So that the sole objection to Mr. Lowell is that a portion of the foreign-born population of the country do not like him, and are annoyed by the popularity which his high character, his scholarly attainments, his fame as an American author, and his attractive manners have created for him in English society.

Even if it were conceded, however, that a Minister, in other respects unobjectionable, ought to be recalled because the Irish or Germans, or any particular section of the population are dissatisfied with him, we should still have to inquire *why* they were dissatisfied with him. In this, as in all other matters, it is the majority of the American people only whose wishes have to be obeyed without explanation. It is the majority only which is sovereign. It is to the will of the majority well ascertained only that the President owes implicit heed. When a minority, and especially a small minority—the Irish number about 2,250,000 all told in a population of 50,000,000—asks to have a thing done for its special gratification, it is bound to explain why it wants it, and is bound to show that what will satisfy it will do no harm to the rest of the community. In other words, American Ministers should represent the American people, and not a portion of the American people, and if the President orders, or permits, a Minister to represent anything less than the American people, he fails in his duty. The reasonableness of this becomes obvious enough when we consider that all diplomatic representations, or remonstrances, or requirements, have the use of the national force, or, in other words, war, behind them as a possible contingency. But war has to be waged by the whole people. Its burdens, and losses, and sorrows fall on the whole people. If we should get into a war with England about dungeons, it is not the Irish who would carry it on and suffer for it. It is every man, woman, and child in the United States. So that it is the American people which Mr. Lowell is bound to represent in London, and not the Irish portion of the American people. It is American traditions, ideas, and policy which he is bound to uphold, in his intercourse with the British Government, and not Irish traditions, ideas, or policy.

As a matter of fact, no American Minister in London has ever satisfied the Irish. They were as hostile to Mr. Charles Francis Adams as they are to Mr. Lowell, and were as eager for his recall, and yet Mr. Adams was probably the most useful Minister we have ever had at that post. The inference, therefore, that they cannot be satisfied is not unfair.

This would be true even if the Irish ideas or policy which Mr. Lowell is called on to support abroad related solely to American affairs. It is doubly true when they do not relate to American affairs at all. The internal condition of Ireland about which Mr. Lowell is called upon to work himself up in London has, diplomatically considered, no more interest for the United States than the internal condition of Turkey. The United States has even less right to interfere about it than about the internal condition of Turkey. The fact that large numbers of persons who are interested in it have come to this country, and that their excitement continues in their new homes, creates no new duty for the United States Government. The one duty of the United States toward immigrants is to provide them with security for person and property, and all the opportunities for the pursuit of happiness on American soil which are enjoyed by the natives. This has been their duty from the beginning; it is their duty still. As part of this duty they owe it to foreign-born no less than to native citizens to maintain toward foreign powers the position of a great civilized nation—of a land of settled government, controlled by the international ideas and usages of Christendom; and not to allow their diplomacy or their army or their fleets to be converted into the missionaries of any collection of half-crazed revolutionists who seek refuge on their shores.

No one has a deeper sense of the wrongs inflicted on Irishmen by English misgovernment than we have. No one is more heartily in favor of anything which will not only give them material prosperity, but satisfy that remarkable national pride of theirs which has managed to spring up on such very stony ground, and has survived so many storms and frosts. But there is no one who knows anything of their agitation who does not see that it is seriously impeded by their moral isolation from the rest of the civilized world, and by the absence of leaders who command the respect of other nations, and by the savage absurdity and violence of many of their methods. Nothing has done so much for them of late years, nothing has contributed so much to create respect for their cause in England, as the fact that a large body of them have become members of a successful, prosperous, and rational community on this side of the Atlantic. It has given them a splendid chance of showing that under favorable conditions they are not wanting in political capacity, and that they can work a settled government as well as anybody. The worst thing that President Arthur or anybody else could do for them now—the most damaging to their political reputation—would be to commit this Government to barbarous or crazy courses in real or apparent deference to their wishes. Their bitter enemies in London have for weeks been repeating their wild and hysterical denunciations of Mr. Lowell as proofs that they were irreclaimable savages, whom nothing but buckshot could tame into civility. They have within a week been compared to the Ashantees, on whom it might be well to try the soldier who brought King Coffee Calcalli to reason. And now comes the *Herald*, and proposes that the President shall present them in a still more degrading aspect before the world, by giving up to be kicked, and cuffed, and driven out of office by them, as unworthy to represent his own country, one of the foremost Americans of his day, who is loved, and honored, and admired by every civilized people. Was there ever anything done for the Irish looking more like ingenious hostility and contempt?

BLUNDERING IN THE SOUTH.

THE drift of things in most of the Southern States is evidently in the direction of new political formations. The number of people who are getting tired of a stupid, hidebound, bigoted party policy, under a set of narrow-minded, selfish drill-masters as party leaders, is constantly increasing; and this restlessness shows itself in all sorts of "independent" movements, of more or less strength, for all sorts of objects, but all giving the same evidence of the waning power of party discipline and of the decreasing respect and affection of the masses for old political associations. A large majority of these movements aim more or less directly at the obliteration of the color line in politics, and are therefore calculated to bring forth beneficial results by dividing the white as well as the colored vote, by bringing the latter under the influence of a leadership identified with the interests of the respective communities, and by thus gradually withdrawing from political contests in the South the most hurtful cause of apprehension and unreasoning passion. The "Bourbon" element—that is, the adherents of the old system of party rule—of course exhibits great alarm at these symptoms of disintegration, and will try for some time yet, by

violent appeals and dreadful predictions, to maintain their ancient influence and power. But these dreadful predictions will soon prove their own groundlessness, and the artificial excitement created by them cannot last long. The process disintegrating the old organizations will proceed, and that very rapidly, as the new pursuits and wants of Southern society naturally create new political aspirations and stimulate new discontents.

The irresistible strength of this tendency shows itself now and then in an almost comical way. When, for instance, Mr. Chalmers, of Mississippi, after having been ousted from a seat in Congress to which he had not the least shadow of right, says that he will have nothing more to do with the regular Democratic organization, and proclaims himself an "Independent," on the ground that the Democrats in Congress did not work hard enough or filibuster long enough to keep him in a seat obtained by the most shameless election frauds, the exhibition is decidedly grotesque. Still, it proves that almost anything is now considered a sufficient pretext for swinging off from the regular organization.

The most stubborn struggle against party disintegration seems to be made in South Carolina, where the Democratic leaders derive great comfort and encouragement from the failure of the Government to bring those connected with the notorious election frauds in that State to justice. The Charleston *News* congratulates the Democratic party of that State upon its "good condition." It says: "There was much laxity and lukewarmness until the course of the political trials in Charleston showed the people the depth and breadth of the Stalwart conspiracy to Africanize the State." The Stalwart conspiracy here referred to consisted in certain prosecutions instituted under the Federal election laws for the purpose of bringing to condign punishment those who stuffed ballot-boxes or in other ways defrauded voters of their legal rights, thus transforming a minority into a majority. And "Africanizing the State" means securing to the colored voters in South Carolina the free exercise of the suffrage guaranteed to them by the Constitution and the laws. The Democratic organ, then, virtually congratulates itself upon the prospect that ballot-box stuffing and other ways of falsifying the elections may go on in South Carolina without danger of being interrupted by successful legal prosecutions, and that, consequently, the Democratic party there may expect another lease of power.

We have sincerely sympathized with all legitimate efforts made in the South to secure to those States honest and intelligent government, and when their people in the old carpetbag times, to accomplish that end, resorted to very objectionable methods, which, as law-abiding citizens, we had to condemn, we were not unwilling to take the unusual provocation into account as a mitigating circumstance. But the pressing necessities of those days are behind us, and in the meanwhile there has been time and opportunity enough to bring the ignorant vote of the South under influences of a perfectly legitimate and legal kind, that can prevent it from becoming a mere support to profligacy and peculation, and make it as useful, or at least as harmless, as the ignorant vote is elsewhere. If our brethren in South Carolina, who put themselves forward as the guardians of the interests of that State, have not yet discovered any better means to protect those interests than cheating at the polls and committing wholesale frauds in making up election returns, they have shown a lamentable lack of ability as well as moral sense. We can scarcely conceive of a greater folly than to believe, as they seem to do, that they can keep up in the long run a "government by election fraud." A government by force is intelligible, also a government by election when the majority is reasonably certain that the results of the elections represent its will. But a system of government by election fraud, not only systematic but open and confessed, as the frauds in South Carolina have been, where everybody knows that the elections do not in any wise represent the will of the majority—such a system must necessarily break down under its own weight; for, even if the disfranchised majority could find no means to enforce its rights, one after another of the supporters of the spurious government would, in the long run, either become disgusted with those vicious practices or, through dissatisfaction for other reasons with the acts of those in power, select the disreputable origin of the Government as the point of attack. It must, therefore, inevitably fall. And in the meantime the arts employed to keep it up, those ingenious methods of fraud and falsification which in South Carolina have been developed to so high a degree of perfection, will only serve utterly to corrupt and demoralize all classes that take any part in the politics of that State. It is a nursery of political crime teeming with the seed of future disaster. The advocates of the system do not know how soon its present victims will use it to plague its present beneficiaries. South Carolina is evidently in the hands of very shortsighted and dangerous friends.

MOORE, OF TENNESSEE, ON THE CIVIL SERVICE.

THERE are not many men in the world who have obtained so much fame by a single *mot* as Flanagan, of Texas, who, at the Chicago Republican Convention in 1880, asked, bluntly, "what they were there for but to get the offices"—his simple and straightforward mind being greatly puzzled by all the talk he heard against the treatment of offices as "spoils." It bewildered him nearly as much as the orders of the Prince of Montenegro to his troops in the late war, not to bring him any more Turkish heads or ears. To Flanagan, politics without clerkships or post-offices to be got by winning elections was what war without heads was to the Montenegrins—if, indeed, he was able to get the idea into his brain at all. His innocent question excited much mirth, because it revealed the fact that there were politicians in the party who had not even got so far as to take up reform of the civil service as a useful and slightly amusing bit of humbug. He could not even see the joke of it, and confessed it publicly.

That Flanagan did not stand alone, however, but represented a considerable class, was revealed the other day in a very entertaining conversation with Mr. Moore, a Congressman from Tennessee, reported by the Washington correspondent of the *Herald*. Mr. Moore has got a widow named Mrs. Wilcox turned out of the Post-office Department. She was the granddaughter of Andrew Jackson's adopted daughter, Mrs. Donelson, and the widow of a Confederate general, and was appointed by General Grant in 1869. The correspondent of the *Herald* called on him for an explanation of the matter, and he gave it, and it was nearly as simple and diverting as Flanagan's question. He declared that he wanted the Widow Wilcox dismissed because she was a Democrat; because she had been in office long enough, "drawing Republican pay," and because he and Judge Houk wanted the place for the widow of a Union soldier, and because he was opposed to "sentimental appointments." His theory of the civil service, or his "general ideas on the subject," as he called them, he said would be found in a "crude bill" which he introduced into the House on January 23, of which the following is the preamble:

> "Whereas, The Government of the United States is a government necessarily of parties, and whereas the interests of the successful party demand the distribution of the public offices among those who indorse the principles of said party; and whereas, under the existing peculiarities of our human nature as well as the genius of our institutions, no party can prosper under a system which recognizes the right of one set of claimants to hold office continuously; therefore, be it enacted," etc.

With these "general ideas," it is no wonder that Mr. Moore "has no patience with civil-service reform, so called," and that "if he has any politics it is practical politics." Thus far Mr. Moore had got along swimmingly; he had met his questioner as a man with no nonsense about him, with a regular system embodied in a bill.

But here the correspondent became troublesome, and, in fact, began to prepare poor Mr. Moore for destruction. He cunningly asked him first whether he applied this system to his private business, and Mr. Moore had to acknowledge that he did not, because it would be bad for his business, and because the Government officer, besides doing clerical work, has to support his party as his principal duty. The "general idea" here was rather cloudy, but still up to this point Mr. Moore had borne himself like a philosopher and statesman. But at this point the correspondent asked him how the doctrine applied to the Memphis Post-office, in which Mr. Moore was seeking the removal of a Republican widow to make room for his own brother-in-law. This was a cruel question. Here the philosopher collapsed, and the philosophy all went to pieces. He confessed that he wanted the widow removed for "business reasons and general inefficiency"—the comparative unimportance of which is a prominent feature in his "general idea"—and next because, if his brother-in-law were put in her place, it would help to stem the tide of repudiation in Tennessee. But he protested that it was not because he had married his wife's sister that he chose him for this great work, but because his appointment would "antagonize the party" less than that of anybody else. The greatest thought in the preamble of the Moore bill was, in fact, that "the existing peculiarities of our human

nature" call for rotation in office, as indeed they do for an equal division of all the good things of this life. They call also for the retention of Union widows in office until your wife's brother wants the place, but no longer.

THE EGYPTIAN CRISIS.

ALEXANDRIA, May 3.

THE present is a moment of extraordinary calm and general expectancy. The calm is extraordinary because no person ever meets another in the street, on the railway train, in places of public resort, or at festive gatherings, without expressing a wonder that something decisive does not take place, and an assurance that the social stability from day to day is simply resting on no basis at all. For a few days the plot against Arabi Pasha seemed as if it augured the beginning of a new crisis which would not be resolved without finally clearing the air. But the latest news is that in spite of the courts-martial and judicial inquiries which are going on with Oriental ostentation and tedious prolongation, the Minister of War—that is, Arabi himself—is now bent on hushing the whole matter up. There is no doubt that for some days his life was really imperilled, and it was unsafe for him to appear abroad. The Circassian element among the officers was apparently the main source of the conspiracy. This fact is instructive as to the true origin of the present revolution, which keeps silently progressing. Old Egyptians will remember how it was the fixed policy of Mohammed Ali and his first successors to compose the Army of different and counteracting classes such as Turks, Circassians, and Arabs. The progressive influence of the policy worked out with such success by Ismaïl Pasha in the direction of separating Egypt from the rest of the Ottoman Empire has resulted in the vastly preponderant weight of the Arab element in the Army. This is so much the case that during the last few months even the Coptic element has been discountenanced, and I have been told on the best authority that among the hundreds of officers who have been promoted by the present Government there is not to be found a single Copt.

This exclusive policy, though it no doubt seems favorable to a joint Mussulman and national interest, has in fact resulted in the creation of a frighful Frankenstein-monster, before which the Government itself is beginning to quail. The Army is the Egyptian people, minus the Copts, in their most organized, luxurious, self-seeking, indolent, and probably worthless aspect. The condition of a standing army in a civilized country such as Germany, France, or England, is notoriously unfavorable to the personal morality and integrity of the soldier. But in these countries the idlest regiments at home cannot exempt themselves from the control, direct and indirect, of a public opinion far more enlightened than the average notions prevailing among themselves. The moral and constitutional, not to say the religious and social, forces which are in such abundant activity in Western countries, reduce the soldiery, even when consisting of exaggerated numbers, to an insignificant item in public affairs. The reverse is the case in such a country as Egypt, where the only organizing force is that of the Mohammedan religion, in the profession of which the soldiers share to a man. When, on a recent occasion, some of the late Khedive's family, on the plea of health, attempted to land at Alexandria, the Minister of War, Arabi Pasha, published a manifesto, in the course of which he declared that "the soldiers, as well as the Government, would not tolerate any attempt to reintroduce the excluded ruler or his household." This allusion to the views of the soldiers and their political determination in a Government proclamation is an almost unprecedented event in political history. In fact, the Prætorian Guards of Imperial Rome went through the form of choosing an Emperor as civil governor before they employed him as their voice in directing the destinies of the state. But Arabi Pasha affects no concealment of the fact that the Egyptian Army at the present moment is the first political factor, the concurrence of which must be secured in each new undertaking.

Obviously the danger to public security comes from the probable competition of the officers among themselves. According to all accounts, and even the reports of his best friends, Arabi Pasha is by no means a born leader of men, such as Mohammed Ali and Napoleon, let alone Washington or Cromwell. He seems to be personally well rather than ill-intentioned, with a little smattering and varnish of Western constitutional doctrines, drawn from English tourists or enthusiasts who have been gratifying their own self-conceit by interviewing one whom they have essayed to force into the position of a real man of note. It is probably to be wished that things should get rapidly worse in order for them to become really better. Public order, though not yet compromised, rests on a weaker foundation than in any other country in which so many civilized people live; commerce of an enterprising and progressive character is at a standstill; the able and honest administration of the public departments is being daily assaulted by the wholly uncalled-for commissions directed against the European functionaries; and, as I shall have occasion to show in an early paper, the Report of the Controllers, just issued for the past year, shows that the provisions laboriously made for paying off the debt are already being impaired by the increased military expenditure.

To take a still larger view of the situation, it may be said that the present condition of Egypt, like that of Russia, shows the extreme difficulty of obtaining any security for public order and liberty where the whole population of the country is at once homogeneous and uneducated. The growth of society in the originally feudalized countries of Western Europe has been determined partly by the progress at unequal rates of advance of a variety of different classes in the population, and partly by the mutual relationships which these classes have at all times had with one another. Commerce, political interests, religious discrepancies or combinations, social needs, economical contribution or coöperation, have in these countries welded the population together by the strongest of ties, while at the same time maintaining an equilibrium of innumerable independent forces. The result is that while widespread combination for the ends of disorder or purely selfish interest is simply impossible, there is no limit to the field for combination for beneficent and worthy political objects. In Egypt, on the other hand, at the present time, the only sort of combination which is possible must be for evil, and cannot be for good. If the nation, in its present stage of infantine education, not to say of recent emancipation from slavery, combines at all, it must combine for purposes which it ill understands. The result must be that its organ will be the man or men who can best flatter its ignorant or fanatical susceptibility, and turn it to his or their own private account. It is the old story of an unenlightened democracy giving place to tyranny; the only new chapter in the story being that the Egyptian people have not even the individual and personal elements to entitle them to the name of a truly democratized society. Thus, whereas in other countries which have passed through similar stages the tyranny has been shortlived, and finally given place to constitutional monarchy or Republicanism, the only conceivable outlook in Egypt, apart from help from without, is anarchy, or the sort of spurious semblance of order covering the most flagitious disorder which is familiar to all those who have investigated the conditions of a Turkish province left to itself.

There are, however, certain fixed institutions and facts in Egypt which render it wholly improbable that when a sufficient crisis presents itself the Powers of Europe will any longer forbear decisively to intervene. The public debt, the Turkish tribute pledged for the Turkish debt, the Suez Canal, and the Mixed International Tribunals, the guarantees of commercial intercourse and of Government solvency, are distinct interests which cannot be misapprehended by English and French diplomatists, or even by those of Italy, Germany, and Austria, which countries have never failed to come to the front when the occasion demanded. A.

Correspondence.

PROF. ADAMS'S 'MANUAL OF HISTORICAL LITERATURE.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your very generous notice of my 'Manual of Historical Literature,' you have fallen into one or two errors which I cannot resist the temptation to point out. Bernhardy's 'Russia' is mentioned as an omission from the volume, whereas an extended notice of the work is given at the proper place at p. 377, and reference is made to the same in the index. You also charge me with saying that vol. iii of Lindner's 'Geschichte des deutschen Reiches' appeared in 1875, whereas the second volume was issued in 1880; but what I did say (p. 251) was that vol. i. appeared in 1875, a statement which accords with the fact. Nor is it quite accurate to say, as you do, that "nothing is given for Portugal," inasmuch as a section of chap. xii. is given to "Histories of Spain and Portugal," and in that section are to be found somewhat detailed accounts of Ballaert's 'Wars of the Succession in Portugal and Spain,' Dunham's 'History of Spain and Portugal,' Landmann's 'Portugal,' and Crawfurd's 'Portugal, Old and New.' Schäfer's 'Portugal,' which you note as absent, is given on p. 191 as one of the Heeren & Ukert series. My blunder concerning Röpell & Caro's 'Geschichte Polens,' though arising from a confounding of the work with Röpell's 'Polen um die Mitte des 18. Jahrhunderts,' is sufficiently mortifying; but my wounded sensibilities are somewhat soothed by the fact that my reviewer did not get into print without two or three errors of his own. C. K. ADAMS.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, May 6, 1882.

Notes.

GINN & HEATH, Boston, will shortly publish an edition of the Anglo-Saxon epic 'Béowulf,' edited from Hayne's fourth edition by Professor J. A. Harrison, of Washington and Lee University; this to be followed by a Glossary, in preparation by Professors Harrison and Robert Sharp, of the University of Louisiana.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert have in press a new volume of sermons by Henry Ward Beecher.

Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago, announce 'A Mere Caprice,' a novel of Parisian life, by Mary Healy, daughter of the eminent portrait-painter. Miss Amy Fay's 'Music Study in Germany,' originally published by this house, has

been translated into German (Berlin: R. Oppenheimer).

The Century Co. have secured for first publication in their magazine a 'History of Life in the Thirteen Colonies,' by Mr. Edward Eggleston, which may, the author says, form part of an ultimate 'History of Life in the United States.' The scheme of the prospectus is very novel and attractive, and the illustrations which are promised will be a substantial addition to the text.

Mr. Franklin B. Hough, Chief of the Forestry Division of the Department of Agriculture, proposes, with sufficient encouragement, to issue on July 1 the first number of a monthly *American Journal of Forestry*, of which Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, will be the publishers. The same publishers will have ready next month Hough's 'Elements of Forestry,' a large illustrated 12mo.

The *Athenæum* states that Mr. Darwin has left an autobiography behind him, together with a sketch of his father about as elaborate as that of his grandfather, though it may very likely be found less entertaining. In the autumn, the same journal says, will appear the earlier volumes of Lord Lytton's Life of his father.

A national one-dollar subscription in honor of the poet Longfellow has been opened at Cambridge, Mass., under the auspices of a Longfellow Memorial Association, of which Minister Lowell is President, and Mr. Arthur Gilman Secretary. The objects of the fund are to purchase the vacant ground opposite the old house and skirted by the Charles River, to convert it into a public park, and to adorn it with a suitable monument; and to preserve the house itself if it should ever pass out of the hands of Mr. Longfellow's family. Subscriptions should be sent to Mr. John Bartlett, Treasurer, P. O. Box 1590, Boston.

The Society of the Army of the Cumberland has undertaken to erect in Washington a statue or monument in memory of President Garfield, and bespeaks a national contribution, in sums of one dollar, on the approaching Decoration Day. The Treasurer is Adj.-Gen. H. C. Corbin, Washington, D.C.

On occasion of his sixtieth birthday, June 24, prox. (not February 23, by the way, as Vapereau gives it), it is proposed to honor the eminent Italian archæologist, G. B. de' Rossi, with a gold medal. His discoveries in the Catacombs and his published Roman Christian inscriptions commend his labors for grateful acknowledgment to a vast and not merely scholarly public. It is hoped that American subscriptions will not be wanting to this international testimonial. To each subscriber will be sent an album containing the names of the whole body of subscribers, and he will have the privilege of buying a bronze copy of the medal for three lire (or sixty cents). Contributions should be sent at once to Dr. Wm. H. Klapp, 2132 Pine Street, Philadelphia.

Macmillan & Co. send us a new edition of Masson's 'Compendious Dictionary of the French Language,' originally published in 1874. We remark no change in the contents except the insertion of a comparative table of weights and measures. The paper, however, is lighter, and the print less good, to meet the lowered price of the work. The peculiar feature of this dictionary is (for the sake of compactness) the omission from the French vocabulary of words spelled the same in French as in English, which is sometimes carried too far, when accents are involved. The admirable feature is the chronological tables of French literature—a most convenient summary of names and dates. In our frequent use of this handy and in the main excellent work, we have observed an occasional carelessness in the gender of nouns.

From Thalheimer's Manuals and Histories, Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co. have made up an 'Eclectic Historical Atlas' (8vo), which will be found a very useful companion for ordinary reading. Maps of the Thirty Years' War, of the battlefields between Paris and Berlin, of the War of 1812, of the Rebellion, etc., are interspersed with those of the several European States, ancient and modern, the Persian Empire, etc.

In the illustrated Rolfe edition of Shakspere's plays, "Timon of Athens" has just been published by the Messrs. Harper.

Guide-books multiply as the travelling season draws nigh. 'Osgood's Pocket Guide to Europe' (Boston) has double the pages of Mr. Knox's, noticed last week, and, unlike it, is provided with interleaved maps, a short vocabulary of familiar words and expressions, etc., while the arrangement is rather by countries than by routes, or, in other words, rather for those who linger than for those who hurry through. It may be described and praised as an abbreviated Baedeker. The print is excellent.

'Sketches from the *Harvard Lampoon*' is a quarto volume of 122 pages, gathering together designs, large and small, from the back volumes of that lively periodical, from which one or two books have been already made. A more rigid selection would have left out much that is crude in the drawing and flat in the humor; but, on the whole, the result both represents the average quality of the *Lampoon* and is creditable to college wit and draughtsmanship. The themes are not simply local. Pure fun better than the illustration on p. 74, "Influence of Gymnastics on Sculpture"—where a vandal, supported on the back of another, is chipping off the face of a Caryatid—is seldom met with in comic journalism.

J. W. Bouton has received the 'Catalogue Illustrée' of the present Salon, a sufficient proportion of whose 4,936 pieces are sketchily represented on 287 pages. The array is curious and perforce interesting. Literature has no such graphic method of recording the ideals and standards of a given period; Mr. Stevens's proposed catalogue by facsimile titles-pages would of course give no idea of the character of the books of the year. It can hardly be said that, for what relates to design and choice of subject, this sample of the Salon—and presumably of the best of the May exhibition—is flattering to the present stage of French art.

On the same day with the commencement of the meeting of the American Association at Montreal—August 23 next—will begin the fifty-second annual meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science. The Association meets this year at Southampton, and the President-elect is Dr. C. W. Siemens. The several sections of the Association, with their respective Presidents, are the following: Mathematical and Physical Science, Lord Rayleigh; Chemical Science, Professor Liveing; Geology, R. Etheridge; Biology, Professor Gamgee; Geography, Sir R. Temple; Economic Science and Statistics, G. Sclater-Booth; Mechanical Science, John Fowler. The meetings of the Association will extend over a week.

Acta Comparationis Litterarum Universarum, the curious polyglot semi-monthly published at Klausenburg, Transylvania, of which mention was made in No. 826 of the *Nation*, is now in its seventh volume. We notice in its long and very cosmopolitan list of contributors Prof. R. Anderson, of Madison, Wis., and Miss A. Woodward, of Philadelphia. Its contents are as varied as ever, the last two numbers at hand offering the choice of articles and poems in German, French, Italian, Hungarian, Rumanian, Armenian, Icelandic, in the Transylvanian Gypsy dialect, and even in Japanese.

The name of the author of the Russian work reviewed by us last week should have read "Lopukhin."

—The magazines for June, of course, bring tributes in prose and verse to Longfellow. In *Harper's*, Mr. Curtis remarks upon his having lived in the very heart of the New England Transcendental movement and been "as untouched by it as Charles Lamb by the wars of Napoleon"; and upon that other sign at once of independence and of even merit, that "he was not intimidated by his own fame," but went on producing and being admired up to the day of his death. An admirable likeness of the poet, engraved by Thomas Johnson, accompanies this article, and is in striking contrast with the feeble performance on steel which makes a frontispiece for the *Atlantic*. The most curious of several interesting illustrated papers in this number of *Harper's* is Mr. Sylvester Baxter's "The Father of the Pueblos." Readers of the daily press have had their attention caught by the recent ceremonies in Boston harbor, by which, under municipal auspices, as we may say, a delegation of Zuñi Indians, from New Mexico, replenished their sacred vessels with sea water. Their leader, a white man, Mr. Frank H. Cushing, had got himself adopted into the tribe in order to pursue his aboriginal studies, and the most extraordinary of all the scenes described by Mr. Baxter is, considering its surroundings, Cushing's room in the pueblo at Zuñi:

"A writing-table, a case of book-shelves, with the books necessary to his studies, and the volumes of valuable notes that recorded his investigations—a stool, a student-lamp, and a hammock—completed the inventory of the civilized furnishings. But there was the wonderful addition of a telephone, . . . constructed out of a couple of old tin cans and several hundred yards of twine, to prove to the Zuñis the truth of what he had told them about the triumphs of American invention. The telephone was connected with the house of one of the caciques on the opposite side of the pueblo, about a quarter of a mile away."

Another sight is that of women, children, and dogs ascending and descending the ladders—the first carrying water-jars on their heads and not touching the ladders with their hands; still another, the nightly fires on the housetops. Mr. Baxter was fortunate in witnessing the great dance, some of whose features are almost identical with those of the Mandan exercises described by Catlin. The mimicry of one of the impersonators recalls Darwin's observations on this faculty in savages, apropos of the Fuegians. "We shouted out to him [the Echo God] in English, and, although ignorant of the language, he proved himself a remarkably clever imitator. But when one of us whistled, that was beyond his mimicry, and it seemed to disconcert him not a little." In the Editor's Easy Chair, praise is deservedly bestowed on Mr. Abbey's charming Herrick design in this number ("Delight in Disorder"), and the expected announcement is made that it and its fellows in the same series will make a holiday volume.

— In Mr. Eugene L. Didier's *Harper* article on "The Social Athens of America," meaning Baltimore, it is mentioned that the visit to New York of Mr. and Mrs. Gilmor, expressly to see the Garcias in Italian opera in 1826, was thought worthy of notice in the newspapers. This incident would furnish a piquant foot-note to Mr. Grant White's book on 'Opera in New York,' of which we have the concluding instalment in the June *Century*. The "critics, at home as well as abroad, whose acquaintance with New York was made 'since the war,'" get a parting reminder of their ignorance of the long and high training of our musical public; and numerous judgments, both sound and questionable, are hazarded of singers yet with us and on the stage, or who come within that fifteen-year limit be-

yond which the average New Yorker cannot express his mind without presumption. The main article in this number is Mr. C. Kegan Paul's account of Cardinal Newman, which is unexceptionable in point of attitude, and is based on ample knowledge at first hand. For those to whom the personality of Dr. Newman means nothing, as is the case with most American readers not churchmen, the interest in the Tractarian movement and in "Tract XC." particularly can hardly be more lively than in Chartism, for example. The peculiar theological, social, and political effervescence, in the Lesser and the Greater Britain, in the period from 1825 to 1845 or thereabouts, seems like the expiring demonstration of a world on which modern science was just beginning to dawn with benumbing effect, and in which the comparative sparseness of population, and the obstacles to transportation and the spread of intelligence, created a condition favorable to surprises, panics, and great "movements" of faith, innovation, and renovation. Mr. Kegan Paul writes as a Liberal of the Liberals, but with strong feelings of attachment to Cardinal Newman. Incidentally he has a cutting allusion to Mr. James Anthony Froude's contribution to the 'Lives of the Saints,' which was avowedly a work of the imagination. "Mr. Froude," he says, "has not alluded to it in his recent account of the Tractarian movement at Oxford; but the matter is not without interest, and may perhaps throw some light on his whole method of writing history and biography." Cole's masterly engraving of the Cardinal's likeness is a study in itself, but would be still more highly instructive if compared with the etching by Rajon, which it follows by translating black line into white. The specimens, by the way, of wood-cutting for the last *Century* prizes given in this number are most promising. We conclude our notice with a reference to the short paper, by Mr. Robert W. Welch, on "Marble Mining in Carrara," which is a model of exhaustive brevity.

—The *Atlantic* for June opens with a poem on Longfellow, by Dr. Holmes, of a somewhat conventional character. The most forcible lines in it are those in which the expression of regret at the cessation of his "Dorian flute-notes" is emphasized by contrast with the

> "——harsher strain,
> "The Mænad's scream, the stark barbarian's cry,"

which have succeeded them. What Messrs. Swinburne and Walt Whitman, and the other "whirling dervishes of song," to use Mr. Longfellow's own designation of them, will think of this allusion, which certainly deserves to be called to their immediate attention, we hardly care to think. Mr. Hardy adds five chapters to his remarkable "Two on a Tower," and complicates the situation of his characters by involving Lady Constantine and Swithin St. Cleeve in astronomical relations of which no jealous husband would approve. A rising tide of generosity indicates the possibility of a tenderer emotion as the cause of it; but when a married woman makes a present of an equatorial—to say nothing of the tower on which it stands—to a young scientist whom she barely knows, it looks as if society ought to interfere. Mr. Harrison, in his instalment of "Studies in the South," gives an amusing account of the exalted position to which the new commercial and industrial activity in that part of the world has elevated the humble "drummer." He describes the Southern drummer—and so much, we believe, is true of him everywhere—as invariably "kind and obliging"; but he has more reason for displaying these amiable traits in the new South than elsewhere, owing, no doubt, to the fact that his activity and ubiquity are "hailed with pride" by the community as a gratifying sign of returning prosperity. He is "commonly treated better than anybody else on the road." Mr. Harrison mentions, as a rather startling illustration of the position held by this favored class, that at Montgomery, Ala., the hotel clerk, on learning that he was not a drummer, immediately added fifty per cent. to his bill. Most of these drummers are, it seems, young and "somewhat peculiar." Their peculiarity consists in the fact that the consideration and respect with which they are everywhere treated leads them to regard themselves as the principals in the business which they represent, and to look upon the houses which employ them as "mere subordinates or agents, employed by the drummers to put up and forward the goods sold on the road." They discuss, with their customary good humor and frankness, "the various methods by which they could so conduct business as to bring the principal profits to their own pockets," speaking of the trade as belonging to themselves, talking of the business which they "control," and resenting any improper treatment by threatening to "carry the trade over to another house." They usually have the best room, and best meals, and when several of them meet at a hotel they sometimes partake of little suppers together. To one of these Mr. Harrison was invited by a somewhat drunken drummer, who, to encourage him, added, "An' we're just as glad to see you 's if you were sober." The article contains a very satisfactory report as to the rapid development of manufacturing industry at the South. As we read the long list of articles now produced in Southern mills and factories, and reflect, too, that they are made by white labor, we feel how entirely new the whole system of life in the Southern States really is, and how completely vanished is the old South of a generation ago, with its quiet, sleepy life, its lavish aristocratic hospitality, its degradation and squalor, its provincial romance and sham sentiment, and its fixed social castes, its St. Clairs, Legrees, Uncle Toms, Dandy Jims, and all the other old familiar types. According to Mr. Harrison, the condition and character of the Southern operatives are better than those of the corresponding class at the North.

—Mr. Philip Robinson contributes a paper on "The Poets' Birds," in which he complains that the whole tribe of English poets are grossly unfamiliar with the habits of many of the birds with whom they make most free in their verses, and that they are ignorant of the very existence of a great variety of species and genera of which they might make excellent poetical use. Out of three thousand known to science, poetry takes cognizance of a bare hundred; of these only two-thirds are in common demand and use; the tropical species are entirely ignored, and "in fact Asia, Africa, and America might not exist for all the advantage their bird-wealth has been to British poets, while Europe, except where its species are British species also, is similarly neglected." Mr. Robinson makes these statements on the strength of an examination of the works of no less than eighty poets, and he shows in detail what unfair treatment these eighty have given birds. They attribute to them all sorts of traits which they do not possess, and frequently cover up their ignorance by epithets which are rather abusive than descriptive. Some of the charges are vague; but it is safe to say that the British poet has been fond for many a long year —certainly down to the time of Tennyson, whom Mr. Robinson excepts from his indictment—of pretending to know a good deal more about nature, animate and inanimate, than he ever really did. Besides the articles we have mentioned, this number of the *Atlantic*, which is the best that we have seen for at least five months, has some posthumous verses on Decoration Day by Mr. Longfellow, a clever notice of Daudet by Mr. H. James, jr., a tribute to Mr. Darwin by John Fiske, and another to Mr. Longfellow by Mr. O. B. Frothingham. An article on "The Rapid Progress of Communism," by Mr. Edward Atkinson, embodies and elaborates a rather ingenious fancy, that the people who are doing most for the general diffusion of wealth and happiness and comfort—*i. e.*, the great capitalists of modern times—are the true Communists. Hence we ought to speak of Vanderbilt and Jay Gould, not as monopolists, but as forerunners of the economic millennium which Justus Schwab preaches. As a fancy, this is very good, but when Mr. Atkinson goes seriously to work to demonstrate that Vanderbilt is really and truly a Communist, he shows that he confides too much in his readers' sense of humor—a mistake which serious economic writers often make.

— "Kol Kron" contributes an entertaining paper to *Lippincott's* about bicycles and bicycling. He declares that the act of acquiring a mastery of the "wheel" is "merely a mental process, like the act of learning to swim"; and that "whenever a man thinks he can do it, he can do it"; but this, it seems, does not really mean much more than the delusive encouragement sometimes given to beginners in French, that if they can pronounce "monsieur," no other French word will present any difficulty. The time that is required to bring a rider to the point at which he "thinks he can do it" varies, according to "Kol Kron," from a few minutes to several weeks. Mr. Bagg speaks with authority about the "wheel." He gives from twenty-five to fifty miles as his usual day's work, and says that he has done seventy-five "without special effort." With regard to the difficulties presented by the roads in this country, he declares that "there are many sections of the United States where good riding may be had almost continuously for a hundred miles at a stretch, and where, by the aid of a train or boat, much longer tours may be readily laid out." He gives several such trips. Felix L. Oswald has an article on traps, which contains a good deal of the kind of information about animals that boys delight in. Indeed, it may be said generally of *Lippincott's*, that, more than any other magazine not avowedly juvenile in character, it provides material for the young of both sexes.

—A long article in the *Agricultural Review* for May, from the pen of Mr. J. B. Grinnell, of Grinnell, Iowa, on "The Cattle Industries of the United States," shows the writer to be an enthusiast on the subject of stock-raising, and fitted by practical experience to speak authoritatively upon it. "I have waited in vain," he says, "for one with more leisure than is allowed me to supply an urgent want, and now yield with diffidence to the earnest solicitations of those enthusiasts like myself whose valued friendship is less distrusted than their judgment." The prospectus of the article says that "it reads like a romance," and that, perhaps, is the main criticism which we should make upon it. Passing over much fine writing about the advent of European horned cattle, we come to the year 1873, when "a hiatus (*sic*) in the history of our cattle industry quite overshadowed all past controversies, and is yet a theme of wonder." This "hiatus" was the so-called "Campbell sale," near Utica, N. Y., the record of which, Mr. Grinnell says, "considering the personages assembled and the fabulous prices paid, will ever cause it to be regarded as the great sale of history." Prices, indeed, are fitly characterized as fabulous when eleven cows and one bull bring a total of $250,800, or an average of more than $20,000 per head.

After briefly sketching the history, in this country, of various imported breeds—the Short-horn, Devon, Hereford, Holstein, and others—and discussing their relative merits, Mr. Grinnell makes an excursion among the cattle-raisers of the Western plains, and epitomizes the experience of a score or more of them. He deprecates the rude life, both of them and their stock, and recommends school-houses and social advantages to the one, and hay-fields and shelter against the winter's storms for the other. Improvements in this direction will no doubt come in time, but probably the conditions of Iowa farming will never be found practicable in regions where, at present, the stock-raiser requires a range of from ten to seventy acres per head of stock. To buy this land at the Government minimum price of $1 25 per acre, and then fence it in a treeless region, would make a serious inroad even in the estimated profits of enthusiasts like the writer. The suggestion that the railroads should transport for the cattle-raiser windmills at a nominal rate, and bring in breeding bulls free, would, we fear, have seemed too liberal even to the late Mr. Oakes Ames, whom Mr. Grinnell characterizes in a note as the "noblest of Americans."

—In spite, however, of a tendency to rhetorical flights, inducing a certain obscurity, which is observable in much of our agricultural literature, the article is full of interesting and suggestive facts. It seems strange, however, that in its fifty or sixty pages only two short paragraphs should be devoted to the vital necessity of prompt legislation by Congress for the prevention of the spread of contagious diseases. Even in these, what is really of the greatest national importance—the prevention of the introduction of contagion among our vast mixed herds on the Western plains, by a rigid inspection of all improved stock sent among them every year by rail—is not even mentioned. According to the figures obtained during the special examination of the meat industries under the census of 1880, the number of cattle of all ages reached nearly forty millions (at $25 per head, $1,000,000,000), of which a third are in the States and Territories west of the Mississippi. The greater part of this region is practically unfenced, and must remain so for a long time. Should pleuro-pneumonia or a kindred contagious disease once be introduced, no isolation being possible, it would sweep the cattle from the face of the earth, as the similarly situated herds of Australia were destroyed by disease introduced by a single animal; and, from meat exporters, we should perhaps again become importers.

—In the June number of the *North American Review*, Mr. Isaac L. Rice, in an article entitled "Has Land a Value?" adds himself to the number of those who have broken a lance against Ricardo. To ask whether land has a value is the same thing as asking whether there is any such thing as rent. No, answers Mr. Rice, there is no such thing as rent—what is called rent is interest on the capital actually put into or upon the land. Ricardo says that "rent is that portion of the produce of the earth which is paid to the landlord for the use of the original and indestructible powers of the soil." Mr. Rice attacks this proposition with the thesis that there are no original and indestructible powers of the soil. The researches of agricultural chemistry, he tells us, have completely invalidated this conception. "It is now universally admitted that the soil is but the storehouse of certain chemicals, and that some of these chemicals are removed with every crop, or, as Liebig puts it, 'the field is sold with the crop.' After a certain number of harvests every field becomes exhausted and barren unless these chemicals are replaced. . . . And so the owner of the soil obtains no value whatever from nature as a free gift." This doctrine was advanced by Henry C. Carey some forty years ago, and was afterward woven into a sort of poem, or beatitude, by Bastiat, in his 'Harmonies Économiques.' Carey went somewhat further than Mr. Rice goes. He contended that the whole value of the land of any country was not equal to the sum which had been laid out in bringing it into its existing state of cultivation—which, as Stuart Mill remarked, was equivalent to saying that if an area of land equal to that of the British Isles should rise out of the North Sea, it would not be worth while to bring it under cultivation, since the profits of the operation would not be equal to the ordinary rate of interest on capital. Mr. Rice would not go quite so far; he would hold it to be a matter of indifference whether such land should be reclaimed or not. It might pay the ordinary rate of interest or it might not. The argument drawn from agricultural chemistry is obviously erroneous, for while there may be some crops that are capable under bad farming of completely exhausting the fertility of land, there are others that have no such tendency. A crop of trees, for instance, can be raised from year to year by judicious cutting without limit as to time, and without any impairment of the original powers of the soil. In point of fact, Germany is provided with fire-wood and timber in this way. The same may be said of some of the most nutritious grasses, which renew themselves from year to year without labor, and which are all the better for being nibbled down by sheep and cattle. As to cereal grains, all that agricultural chemistry teaches is that there must not be too prolonged a pull at the chemical constituents of the soil without rest and refreshment. Agricultural chemistry teaches also that the rain, the atmosphere, and the sun are constantly supplying a large portion of what the cultivator abstracts from the soil, and that it is only the excess abstracted by cropping that must be restored by the farmer in order to keep the land up to its original fertility. The question of rent concerns itself only with that portion of the productiveness of the soil which does not require renewal by human labor. This is all that Ricardo contended for. Mr. Rice denies that there is any such portion. We apprehend that he has not had much to do with farming as a practical business.

—About two months ago Dr. Siemens, of London, read before the Royal Society a paper on the conservation of solar energy which has the merit of originality at least, and may well tend to perturb the complacency with which astronomical physicists have, of late years, come to rest in the belief that the contraction of the solar globe satisfactorily accounts for the maintenance of its heat. Dr. Siemens recapitulates the fundamental conditions of his theory as follows: (1) That aqueous vapor and carbon compounds are present in stellar or interplanetary space. (2) That these gaseous compounds are capable of being dissociated by radiant solar energy while in a state of extreme attenuation. (3) That these dissociated vapors are capable of being compressed into the solar photosphere by a process of interchange with an equal amount of reassociated vapors, this interchange being effected by the centrifugal action of the sun itself. If these conditions could be substantiated, we should gain the satisfaction that our solar system would no longer impress us with the idea of prodigious waste through dissipation of energy into space, but rather with that of well-ordered, self-sustaining action, capable of perpetuating solar radiation to the remotest future.

—The discovery of the ultimate nature of tubercular disease, which has recently been announced as having been made by Dr. Koch, Government Adviser in the Imperial Health Department of Berlin, acquires a special significance at the present time other than that derived from purely physiological or therapeutical considerations. It demonstrates more conclusively than any amount of argument the practical importance that attaches to experimentation on living animal bodies. As might have been expected, the opportunity has been advantageously used by the devotees of vivisection for promoting the interests of their cause; and in England, where physiological inquiry is in great measure hampered by the existence of a so-called anti-vivisection law, several prominent experimentalists have come boldly to the front and pointed out the moral. Dr. Koch's discovery can scarcely be said to be surprising; indeed, it can but barely be considered new. The fact that various diseases have their origin in the development of microscopic organisms within the tissues of the subject has long been established, partly through the labors of Koch himself, but more particularly through the classical researches of the French chemist and physiologist, Pasteur. That such organic developments were in some way or other connected with tubercular growths—the germ theory of formation—has also long been recognized, but it has been reserved for Dr. Koch to determine the exact nature of the organisms so connected, and to demonstrate that the *vera causa* of tubercular malformation is simply the rapid multiplication—at the expense of the tissues—of the infesting parasite, if so it may be termed. This was found in all cases examined to be a species of *bacillus*, allied to, but yet specifically distinct from, the *bacillus anthracis* of splenic fever, whose habitation in the tissues appears to be entirely independent of any predisposition on the part of the latter, whether through disorganization or otherwise, toward its reception. Hence, it is concluded, tubercular malformation is not primarily a disease *de ipso* of the tissues, but one that is induced through contagium. Perfectly healthy animals (rabbits, guinea-pigs) that had been inoculated with the vegetable virus artificially cultivated, and consequently fresh, were rapidly affected with loss of flesh, death in those infected being invariably the result of tuberculosis.

—Prof. Tyndall, commenting on Koch's discovery, says: "In no other conceivable way than that pursued by Koch could the true character of the most destructive malady by which humanity is now assailed be determined. And, however noisy the fanaticism of the moment may be, the common sense of Englishmen will not, in the long run, permit it to enact cruelty in the name of tenderness, or to debar us from the light and leading of such investigations as that which is here so imperfectly described." While the importance of the discovery, which will doubtless be confirmed by other investigators, cannot be denied, it is questionable if, judged from a humanitarian standpoint, the advocates of vivisection have in this particular instance made a very strong case for themselves. For, since tuberculosis is directly the outgrowth of germ-developments which are practically, at least as far as present knowledge is concerned, beyond either medical or physical control, and, indeed, respecting which precise biological information is still comparatively limited, it may be doubted whether a treatment for the disorganization could be advocated more rational than that which is implied in the regeneration of the tissues, or the one that is being actually followed at the present time. The interesting problem of hereditary transmission, with development of the disease only in after-life, presents itself in this connection.

—Part 1 of the second volume of Buchholz's 'Homerische Realien' has recently been published by Engelmann of Leipzig. It bears an appropriate dedication to Mr. Gladstone, who, in the third volume of his 'Homer and the Homeric Age,' discussed many of the subjects treated here. Buchholz's first volume was also in two parts. The first, appearing in 1871, described the Homeric cosmography and geography; the second, two years later, the zoölogy, botany, and mineralogy. The physical world having been thus disposed of in the first volume, the world of man becomes the subject of the second. The present part is concerned with the public life of the Homeric Greeks, including the organization of the state and the single departments of public activity—agriculture, gardening, care of cattle, hunting and fishing, trade, manufactures, music, warfare, weapons. A systematic arrangement makes reference easy, and excellent indexes in this and the previous volumes put within the student's ready command a mass of learning about the world as Homer knew it which is not easily accessible elsewhere.

—A year ago, Otto Maass, of Vienna, began the publication of a German weekly paper devoted, as its name (*Amerika*) indicates, entirely to American affairs. Thanks to the large number of Germans who have relatives in this country, it seems to meet with success. The great increase in the number of emigrants has caused the German Government organs systematically to misrepresent America, and the correction of such misstatements seems to be one of the principal aims of this paper. An article in the last number points out that the American newspapers are to a large extent responsible for many of the erroneous notions current among Germans in regard to this country. For instance, the exaggerated ideas about the lawlessness prevalent here are due to the long and detailed accounts given in our papers of every murder and other crime that happens in any part of the country within reach of telegraphic communication. German papers dispose of such crimes in a few lines in the police reports, except in cases of great sensational interest.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

Alexander Hamilton. By Henry Cabot Lodge. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1882.

It is difficult for a new biographer to add anything to the story of Hamilton's life, and Mr. Lodge has done all that was possible in telling it anew, briefly, and in an attractive way. Time as it goes on does nothing but add to the lustre of his fame, and in laying down the book the reader's chief feeling is that his career is one about which there is no room for any difference of opinion; that he must always be regarded as one of the great statesmen and legislators of the world; that as long as modern society endures he will be remembered as one of the men who thought most profoundly and accurately about the principles which underlie government, the forces which give it stability and coherence, and the causes which shape, modify, and change it. As to the actual Government of the United States, it is hardly too much to say that it owes its existence to Hamilton more than to any other one man. Had the Constitution been defeated in the New York Convention, the formation of a permanent Union would have been, if not prevented, at any rate, long delayed; and it is to Hamilton's wonderful powers of persuasion, more than to any other one thing, that the change from a strongly adverse to a favorable majority in New York was owing. Had it not been for the 'Federalist,' which still remains the best modern exposition of the art of government in the language, this result would certainly not have been reached.

It is when we compare Hamilton with his contemporaries that his great powers stand out most clearly in relief. A large part of his life was spent in a struggle for the direction of the Government with Jefferson. Jefferson was the leader and mouthpiece of the party which considered Hamilton's views of government fraught with danger to the country. Jefferson was victorious in the struggle, drove Hamilton from the field, and his party succeeded in giving the development of the Government a new direction. Jefferson's name is still used to conjure with as a party catch-word, and he is believed by large masses of voters to have formulated certain eternal principles of polity which, if preserved in their purity and carried out faithfully in practice, will always keep the country in the true path of constitutional progress. But what are these ideas? Can anything more be said of them than that, in the last resort, they amount to a profession of confidence in "the people"? What valuable principle of constitutional law, what contribution to the art of popular government, do they contain? Not one. In their day the two men were great rival leaders, and the popularity and power which Hamilton lost, Jefferson and his followers in great measure won. But Jefferson merely directed and helped to justify a popular and to a considerable extent an irrational movement. Hamilton's mind was one of the main sources of the very system of government under which we live, his voice was the most persuasive of its adoption, and it was under his direction that its course was so shaped that we are to-day still travelling the journey marked out by him.

Though Hamilton made mistakes in the course of his life which he had great occasion to regret, it is very hard now to name any point in his career as a public man at which his scheme of government for the United States could have been substantially altered with advantage to the country. He undoubtedly did what he could to make the Government strong in every sense of the word, and he had a firm belief in the necessary association of wealth and property with power. He would have liked to give property the combined authority and responsibility which he thought produced such excellent results in England; and hence he was called "British" during his life, though, as Mr. Lodge very clearly shows, the political terms drawn from European politics and applied to Americans of the last century ought to be regarded rather as party terms of abuse than as properly descriptive. Hamilton was, at bottom, intensely American. He was indifferent as between England and France, "except so far as he loathed the bloody anarchy of the one, and respected the stability and order of the other." He saw, as Washington did—indeed, probably before Washington perceived them—the wide-reaching political and commercial advantages to be attained by an early assumption of a position of complete neutrality in the quarrels of the Old World. Mr. Lodge's remarks on this subject, however, appear to us to go altogether too far:

"This was really the central point of the whole policy of Washington and Hamilton, and was one of the great landmarks established by the Federalists for the guidance of the republic. There is no stronger example of the influence of the Federalists, under the lead of Washington, upon the history of the country than this famous proclamation, and in no one respect did the individuality of Hamilton impress itself more directly on the future of the United States. So little was it understood at the time that when thirty years later the same principle, in an extended form, was enunciated by Mr. Monroe's Administration, it was hailed as a new doctrine, and incorporated as a leading article in the political creed of the United States. When adopted and put forth by Washington, this truism of to-day was hardly appreciated. The colonial spirit, which was the spirit of the past, made it seem impossible that the United States should be wholly apart from the affairs of Europe. The Federalists acted on the principle thus laid down while they held the power, maintaining a bold and strong neutrality, and ready to strike the first nation, no matter which it was, that dared infringe it. After the fall of the Federalists this doctrine slipped out of sight. For a vigorous neutrality, ever on the alert and ready for war, was substituted a timid, exasperating policy of peace, protected by commercial warfare. Ten years of bitter political conflict, including three years of foreign war, was the result, and by this harsh process the colonial spirit was finally exorcised. Then the national foreign policy, formulated, devised, and adopted by Washington and Hamilton, was popularly accepted under the Administration of Monroe." (P. 163.)

While there is no doubt that the neutrality policy of the first Administration was originated by Hamilton quite as much as by Washington, Mr. Lodge appears here to confuse two widely different things. Washington's neutrality was simply founded on a determination that the new Government should not be involved in any of the quarrels of the Old World then going on; that, as between France and England in particular, neither the United States nor its citizens should interfere in any way. Genet, the French agent, tried to use this country as a base of naval operations against England, just as the Confederate States used England three-quarters of a century later against us. His first act was to fit out privateers at Charleston, and proceed, as Mr. Lodge says, "with a sort of triumphal procession northward to Philadelphia." Jefferson was nearly forced to resign from the Cabinet on account of the *Little Sarah*, a privateer which Hamilton wished to have stopped on her way to sea, but which, through Jefferson's reliance on the promises of Genet, got away. No such matters as these are involved in the Monroe Doctrine, which grew out of a protest against any interference by Spain with the independence of her quondam subjects in this country. The neutrality policy of Washington was a proclamation that the country would not in any way have anything to do with European quarrels. The Monroe Doctrine was an announcement that Europe would interfere with the existing status of the governments of the New World at her peril.

It is not too much to say that in all the three departments of the Government, executive, legislative, and judicial, it was Hamilton who, at the outset, planned, explained, and vindicated the course that must be pursued by them. We are accustomed to attribute to Marshall the establishment of the judiciary as the supreme source of law, and to the credit of the actual work Marshall is, of course, entitled; but behind Marshall there are always the essays of the 'Federalist,' themselves the fountain from which Marshall's own views of the scheme of government which he expounded so ably were drawn. In his argument on the subject of the national bank, Hamilton satisfied Washington of the constitutionality of the scheme by an argument founded on the implied powers of the Constitution. In the case of McCulloch *vs.* Maryland, Marshall went over precisely the same ground, and, as Mr. Lodge very justly says, "the able and luminous decision of the Chief Justice adds nothing to the argument of the Secretary and takes nothing from it, nor is the work of the latter inferior to the opinion of the Judge in clearness and force of expression."

Mr. Lodge's volume is an excellent bit of compendious biography. It presents on the whole a very fair picture of an extraordinary man. Hamilton's genius seems to have been forced into

a precocious maturity by the exciting character of the events which began to shape themselves about him at the time when his life opened. Like Napoleon, Pitt, and so many others of his great contemporaries, Hamilton, instead of working his way slowly up, established his hold upon the government and direction of affairs from the day that he was admitted to a share in them, and leaped at a bound into a position which in quieter times men attain only after long years of patient struggle. His influence seems to have been due in great measure to the remarkable sincerity of his mind. His nature was profoundly truthful, and Mr. Lodge's biography is valuable as bringing out in a strong light this fundamental trait. He had, too, a great opportunity. He had an almost virgin political soil in which to apply and test the truths which speculation had convinced him were necessary and permanent. Hamilton believed in popular government, but he had no illusion that it was a sacrosanct institution, or that "the people" in the aggregate are wiser than the aggregate wisdom of the individuals who compose the mass. Above all, he never lost sight of the fundamental fact that, whatever the source of government, it is not an end in itself, but a means to the attainment of general prosperity, well-being, and order; that it must always be founded in the last resort on force. With the rose-water, sentimental view of government, Hamilton had no sympathy. He insisted that the doctrines of Rousseau in France, and Jefferson in the United States, tended merely to anarchy. He was right as to their tendency; if he failed to make full allowance for the numerous counterbalancing conservative forces, and thought that the Government, once in Republican, or, as we should say, Democratic hands, must go to the dogs, it was a mistake of a kind into which almost all strong party men fall, when they allow themselves the dangerous luxury of prediction.

MAX MUELLER'S KANT.

Kant's Critique of Pure Reason. Translated into English by F. Max Müller. 2 vols. London: Macmillan & Co. 1881.

"THAT Kant's 'Critique' will ever become a popular book, in the ordinary sense of the word, is impossible; but that it will for ever occupy a place in the small tourist's library which every thoughtful traveller across this short life's journey will keep by his side, I have no doubt." Hitherto, however, the English tourist has not been able to procure a copy of the guide-book adapted to his needs. Haywood's translation, prepared forty years ago, before the critical study of Kant had advanced far, is now antiquated, through a frequently imperfect understanding of the original. Meiklejohn's, published in Bohn's Library, is a creditable piece of literary work, showing a due comprehension of the difficult text and an English style no worse than the German. That its renderings are felicitous few persons who have benumbed their brains over its unsuggestive sentences will admit. Kant may not have written easily, but none the less he made some exceedingly hard reading. Meiklejohn has but a slender sense of the need of laying out simpler roads through the labyrinthine sentences. Dr. Stirling, in his recent 'Text-Book of Kant,' attempted to put the first half of the 'Critique' into a speech nearer the vernacular; but it proved to be the speech vernacular to Dr. Stirling, and not to the great body of English speakers. Up to this time, therefore, a book which has probably exercised a deeper influence than any other which the last century produced has never been rendered into easily readable English.

The cause is to be found in the book itself. Kant was a German professor, and one who exaggerated all the faults of his species. He is said to have been an agreeable lecturer, treating generally in the class-room only the more apprehensible aspects of his subject. What was deeper he considered unfit for public oral statement. He lectured extemporaneously from a few outline notes, using simple language. It is possible he may have permitted himself too broad a distinction between the requirements of those who hear and those who read, and that the distinction has worked as much to the disadvantage of his subsequent students as it is said to have benefited those who crowded his lecture-room. Philosophical Germany has been slow to learn that a writer is a teacher too, and stands in need of all the teacher's art for quickening sluggish attention. A style like that of Schopenhauer, or even of Lotze, of Sigwart or of Otto Pfleiderer, has become possible only since Germany left her chimney-corner and became a citizen of the world. Kant, isolated in an obscure provincial town, alone in that bachelor-home where no allusion to his philosophical system was allowed, writing in months what had been meditated in years, produced a jungle of sentences which no honest translator can render attractive. Had outward circumstances even been more favorable, the very nature of the task which he set himself—of being a philosophical Copernicus—must have prevented popular success. In the laborious twistings of his paragraphs may be read the birth-pangs of thought. He who talks of what was never talked of before must employ an uncouth terminology.

We do not then disparage Max Müller's labors as in anywise useless when we acknowledge that even he has not been able to give us a 'Critique' which reads as if written by a modern Englishman. "It is difficult," he well says, "to translate the hymns of the Veda and the strains of the Upanishads, the odes of Pindar, and the verses of Lucretius; but I doubt whether the difficulty of turning Kant's metaphysical German into intelligible and construable English is less." He has aimed at "a literal translation," and "thought far less of elegance, smoothness, or rhythm than of accuracy and clearness." And he has had a good measure of success. His translation is not a masterpiece. Probably it is not the one with which English students will finally rest content. Kant's sentences often retain their original unwieldy length (pp. 90, 236, 409, 494). No attempt is made to explicate technical phrases. Where one of them—*Dinge an sich*—was already beginning to be at ease in English as "things in themselves," the new barbarism is introduced of "things by themselves." Occasionally a slight clumsiness appears, as if the writer were giving but half his attention to the idiom of the language used. Kant mentions the opposing views of naturalists upon the question of the origin of species, and points out that there is a logic in the case deeper than either party detects. Müller renders, "But they need only consider the nature of the object, in order to understand that it is far too deeply hidden for both of them to enable them to speak from a real insight into the nature of the object." Yet, after all deductions are made, it still remains true that a page of Müller costs the reader less effort than a page of Meiklejohn—the best previous rendering—and that it generally gives Kant's meaning with superior precision. It is no inconsiderable advantage that the language from which and that into which Max Müller translates are both alike his own. To English readers his work is sure to bring Kant home better than anything we had before; and even those who read German readily will frequently gain something by looking up Max Müller's understanding of an obscure passage. His translation "serves in some passages even as a commentary of the original." For the first time, too, we have the 'Critique' as it was originally written. Meiklejohn followed the second edition. The present rendering, occupying the whole of vol. ii., follows the first. The extensive additions made by Kant in the second edition fill about a third of vol. i. Unfortunately, the variations in single sentences are nowhere noted.

An attractive portion of the first volume, and one contrasting agreeably in its sprightliness with Kant's crabbed treatise, is the translator's long preface. Max Müller's enthusiasm for philosophy is genuine, and his expression of it vivacious. The special studies upon language which have made him famous have, he says, been merely attempts to work out one of the problems supplementary to Kant's system. "Kant's 'Critique' has been my companion through life." "Having once learned from Kant what man can and what he cannot know, my plan of life was very simple—namely, to learn, so far as literature, tradition, and language allow us to do so, how man came to believe that he could know so much more than he ever can know in religion, in mythology, and in philosophy. This required special studies in the field of the most ancient languages and literatures. But though these more special studies drew me away for many years toward distant times and distant countries, whatever purpose or method there may have been in the work of my life was due to my beginning life with Kant." One who has spent forty years in so naïve a devotion to a teacher may well be allowed a little garrulity in commending that teacher to others. Personal explanations take on a charm delivered in English so flexible and spirited as this. We readily assent to the translator's belief that he was peculiarly fitted for his task as we read the easy sentences in which that belief is stated. Up and down the pages passages occur which tempt the pencil to mark and the reader to turn back either for instruction or delight. "No one can admire more than I do the dashing style in which some of the most popular writers of our time have ridden up to the very muzzles of the old philosophical problems; but if I imagine Kant looking back from his elevated position on those fierce and hopeless onslaughts, I can almost hear him say what was said by a French general at Balaclava: 'C'est magnifique—mais ce n'est pas la guerre.'"

Max Müller rightly judged that "a pedigree of philosophical thought showing Kant's ancestors and Kant's descent" would form a valuable introduction to the 'Critique.' Distrusting his own ability to draw up this outline, he applied to Prof. Ludwig Noiré. He expresses great gratitude for the 360 pages of "Historical Introduction" which his friend furnished; but it is a scandalous performance—trite, turgid, and inaccurate. Locke is stated to have introduced the distinction of primary and secondary qualities into philosophy (p. 227). In the mediæval period, nearly all the citations are at second-hand. Schopenhauer's 'Parerga' is the main authority for Berkeley. There is no reference to Berkeley's own works. In treating of Malebranche, no notice is taken of the *étendue intelligible*, curious as the analogies of that doctrine are with Kant's space as a form of thought. Pages 57-64 present a good specimen of the author's skill in philosophizing on his own account. Where brevity is necessary, exactness and lucidity are necessary too. But Noiré produces paragraph after paragraph like the following: "If only the power of the intellect is sufficient, and the love of truth pure and vigorous, then, though often after a thousand pains and travails, truth rises to the light, or rather becomes itself

a light, illuminating the world, and changing the pale and indefinite glimmer of the moon into the brightest splendor of the sun. If this is not so, if the power of the striving intellect fails, then a chasm remains open—philosophy succumbs to scepticism, though always waiting and watching for a coming deliverer." If philosophy is to be a serious pursuit, an introduction to it so pretentious as this should be denounced.

The publishers issue the volumes handsomely: the paper is excellent, the type large, and the margins wide. The absence of an index is a serious defect.

RUSSIA AND THE RUSSIANS.—I.

L'Empire des Tsars et les Russes. Par Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu. Tome i. Le pays et les habitants. Paris: Librairie Hachette et Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern. 1881.

THERE is hardly an exaggeration in saying that the number of books on Russia is increasing from day to day, but good works on that empire are yet as rare as, say, sound and impartial works on the United States. Mackenzie Wallace's 'Russia,' a production of incomparably lighter calibre than Tocqueville's 'Democracy in America,' is still equally exceptional. Leroy-Beaulieu's 'L'Empire des Tsars' is evidently destined to become for a time *the* book on the subject. Among studies of countries by foreigners it cannot fail to take place in the very foremost rank, owing to unbiassed observation on the spot, diligent research among the best authorities in the national literature and press, a vast corrective correspondence with well-informed natives, and a minute sifting of results by a mind conscientiously critical. It is too extensive, and presupposes too much preliminary knowledge on the part of its public, to become as popular as Wallace's pleasing composition, and it nowhere equals that original play of genius with problems apparently novel which charms us in Tocqueville's 'Democracy'; but it surpasses the latter in breadth, and the former both in breadth and depth, and, if less attractive than either, it not only enlightens the reader by its slow but lucid demonstrations, but delights him by its felicitous illustrations and a diction worthy of the best periods of French literature. In a word, it is a great work. It disarms the reviewer's critical propensity, and allows him only to follow the author closely in some of his salient generalizations and summings-up. It is to consist of three, or possibly four, large volumes, but only the first is as yet before us.

The author considers the shape and extent of European Russia, and asks himself: Does it really form a part of Europe, differing from the rest only in proportions, in the scale of dimensions? or does its prodigious widening fully distinguish and separate it from Occidental Europe? Are not the conditions of civilization modified by the vastness of the area? Are Russia's geographical structure, its soil and climate, European? Entire Europe forms a peninsular triangle, the broad base of which rests completely on Asia and is bodily joined to it. Thus joined to Asia, Russia preserves that continent's configuration. Europe proper is distinguished from all other portions of the globe by two main traits, which have rendered it the natural seat of civilization: it is cut into parts by seas, peninsular, articulated—to speak with Humboldt—and it has, for its latitude, a surpassingly temperate climate. Russia, on the contrary, is one of the most compact, the most continental, countries of the globe. She has none of Europe's maritime climate; hers is continental—extremely cold in winter and excessively hot in summer, and almost untempered by seasons of transition. The Gulf Stream does not reach her; the seas lave only her flanks, so remote from each other; arctic ice and winds hold her in bondage through most of the year; the flatness of the soil keeps her open to blasts both from the Polar circle and the parched deserts of Central Asia; she has no sheltering mountain ranges—the broken Ural hardly forms an exception—no sheltered valleys. Russia is horizontal and uniform not only geographically, but also geologically; the flatness of the surface is the result of the regular parallelism of the subterranean strata. Without seas and without mountains, she sadly lacks humidity, especially in her eastern parts. All these conditions place her in complete physical opposition to Occidental Europe; or, rather, naturally considered, Europe, resting on Russia as an Asiatic base, begins only where the continent becomes contracted by the Black Sea and the Baltic.

Is Russia, therefore, Asiatic? Is she to be classed among the sleeping or stationary nations of the remote East? By no means. She is no more Asiatic than European. By the *ensemble* of her natural conditions she differs from historic Asia just as much as from Europe proper. It was not an accident which prevented her from developing an Asian civilization. On both sides of the Ural, Russia forms a particular region, with special physical features, embracing all the northern plains of the old continent, all its colossal depression—the Lower Europe and Lower Asia of Humboldt. Rather than to either Occidental Europe or old Asia, she is to be compared to North America, which she adjoins in Siberia. Russia is one of those terrestrial regions which boundless extent and asperity of climate disqualify from becoming cradles of civilization. Incapable of nourishing civilization in its first days, she is admirably adapted to receive it and raise it. Like North America, she offers to Europe, outside of her extreme belts, an immense field for the development of human activity on a vaster scale. Her climate is inclement, her forests are meagre, her steppes treeless; but what man needs is less richness of the soil than the facility of subduing and using it. Russia's fauna is poor, her flora is poor; there is no variety, no display of power, nothing grand—except the vastness of the land; but neither has her living nature, in its debility—in its lack of fecundity and robustness—any strength to oppose to man. The soil is tame and docile. Unlike Brazil or Hindostan, where man becomes the petty slave of a luxuriant, glowing, wondrous, and unconquerable nature, the vast territory of Russia is made for free labor; it needs no African negro, no Chinese cooly. The Russian soil does not use up its cultivator; it does not threaten his race with degeneracy; it bears no creoles.

The Russian people, the *muzhik*, is the main colonizer, almost the sole colonizer, of the Russian lands. This fact, apparently so simple, hides difficulties and inferiorities of all kind. Instead of the most enterprising men of the most advanced countries of Europe, such as are colonizing the United States and Australia, we find here a people kept back by nature and history—a people of peasants, who yesterday were serfs; instead of freedom, independence, and individual sovereignty, we see an autocratic government, a pestering administration, communal bonds tying man to man and the tiller to the ground. Russia's colonizing expansion is crippled by standing armies, a long military service, a narrow centralization, an omnipotent bureaucracy. These galling drawbacks have repelled European immigration, and will continue to repel it. Russia will in vain offer to the immigrant admirable lands waiting for the plough—her very next neighbors of Scandinavia prefer to wander beyond the ocean to the northwest of the United States.

And Russia is a country in process of colonization. Though old, she is still forming. She is at the same time an empire of a thousand years and a colony of a century or two. She may be likened to the United States and also to Turkey. She is a country both new and old; a semi-Asiatic monarchy and young European colony; a Janus with one face old and worn out and the other adolescent, almost infantile. This duality is the source of striking contrasts whithersoever we turn in Russia: contrasts in private life, in character, in the state; contrasts so frequent that they form the rule, a law of contradictions. Everything has contributed to produce them: a position between Asia and Europe—so to say, astride of both; a blending of races—Slavic, Finnic, Tartaric—far from complete; a historical past formed by the contests of two worlds, by violently alternating phases. From these contrasts spring the different judgments passed on Russia, the falsity of which lies very often in exhibiting only one side. The law of contradictions is further discoverable in society, whose classes, high and low, are divided by a wide chasm; in the political field, where liberalism is often attempted, but generally weighted down by inveterate inertia; even in the individual, in his ideas, sentiments, and manners. The contrast is both in form and in essence, in the single man as well as in the nation. The state, a military monarchy and young colony at the same time, has the weakness of either, and the full force of neither. With deserts to people and clear, Russia is doomed by her contact with Europe to bear military and financial burdens like the oldest and most civilized of nations. Her tasks are those of both Europe and America, while her instruments are inferior to those of either. She resembles an actor forced to play before having learned his part—a man trying to acquire his first education amid the toils and struggles of mature age.

The least Slavic of all the Slavs, the Great-Russian, has been the Slavic colonizer *par excellence*. Treated by his enemies as a Turanian, a Mongolian, an Asiatic, his national origins are found in the West: on the Dnieper, between the Dnieper and the Düna, at Novgorod. His march has been from Europe to Asia; from White Russia to beyond the Ural, the Caspian, and the Caucasus. His destinies are imaged in the great river, the course of which he has followed from its source to its delta: like the Volga, he has run his course from Europe to Asia. When, under Ivan III. and Ivan IV., and later under Peter the Great, he turned as a foe toward the Baltic and the West, he only retraced his steps toward his European base. His history is the history of a struggle with Asia. The centuries of Tartar domination never made him forget his European origin. Victorious over Asia, he yet, during his advance from the Dnieper to the Ural, became both morally and physically changed by his contact with the populations subdued and absorbed. There is in the Russian more heaviness, both of body and mind, than in Slavs of less mixed blood; Aryan beauty is there more rare. The Great-Russian often betrays Finnic descent by his flat face, small eyes, and prominent cheek-bones. To Finnic influence and Tartar oppression he owes greater harshness, but also greater robustness, than marks other Slavs. He has less independence and individuality; he has more patience and consistency. He has not that mobility which has been the bane of the Pole. The extreme ductility of the Slav has in him been tempered by foreign, chiefly Finnic, alloy; the loss of purity is compensated for by a gain in solidity. The fusion of race, as elsewhere, has been productive of vigor at the expense of re-

finement. But Finnic and Tartar blood has not transformed the Great-Russians into Finns or Tartars. They are not Aryans and Slavs merely by language and historical development. They are much more properly Slavs than the French or Spaniards are Latins. A considerable portion of their blood is Caucasian, Slavic. The proportion can hardly be determined; it varies according to region and class. In the bulk of the nation Slavic blood probably preponderates.

The Head-Hunters of Borneo. A Narrative of Travel up the Mahakkam and down the Barito; also, Journeyings in Sumatra. By Carl Bock. With thirty colored plates, map, and other illustrations. London: S. Low & Co. 1881. Pp. xvi.-344. Cr. 8vo.

THIS work is a semi-official document, as the author was appointed in 1879, by the Dutch Government, to visit Koetei, one of its tributary states, "and to furnish the Government with a report upon the native races of the interior, and to make observations upon, and collections of, the fauna of that part of the island." The Sultan of Koetei enjoys a nominal sovereignty over all the country drained by the river Mahakkam, which flows in a southeasterly direction for some 600 miles, and empties into the Straits of Macassar. The country, though exceedingly fertile, and apparently rich in mineral wealth, is thinly peopled with a mixture of races, including the aborigines, the Dyaks, Malays, Chinese, and Boegis. The latter are an unruly people, emigrants from the neighboring Celebes, who have settled in considerable numbers near the coast. They are much given to running-a-muck. "In Macassar and other large towns the native police are armed with a long, two-pronged fork of bamboo, something like the humble 'clothes-prop'; and when they see an 'amok' Boegis, they place the fork against his throat, and hold him at bay till he can be secured." During the author's stay at the capital "one night one of these excitable gentry killed no less than three men, and wounded five others, before he himself fell a victim to a well-directed blow from a mandau." The Sultan, "one of the most intelligent rulers in the Malay Archipelago," showed himself favorable to the objects of the expedition, and not only furnished the necessary means for ascending the river, but accompanied the traveller to the end of his journey. He combined with his official duties the business of money-lending, cock-fighting, and gambling. He had "over sixty large fighting-cocks, each of which is kept in a room in the palace, under an oval wicker cage. . . . The effect of sleeping in close contiguity to a select company of sixty of the finest, strongest, heartiest, and gamest of the game-cocks of Koetei may be imagined." The voyage up the river, made in a prau hollowed out from the trunk of a single tree, was entirely without incident. The country was so desolate that sometimes a day passed without meeting a boat or seeing a dwelling, while the banks were clothed with a vegetation so dense that it was "impossible to penetrate into the forest more than a few yards from the river-side."

A hundred miles or more to the north, on a branch of the river, was the important Dyak town, Long Wai, where Mr. Bock stayed seven weeks, studying the people and making collections. Here he had the good fortune to meet several "of the tribe or race known as 'Orang poonan,' or Forest People," supposed to be the aborigines of Borneo. "These people live day and night in the open air, almost entirely naked, with no more shelter in showery weather than that afforded by an attap mat, which they then place over instead of under them when they lie down on the ground to sleep." Their weapons are mandaus, short swords obtained from the Dyaks, and "the *sumpitan* (blowing-tube) and poisoned arrows, in the manufacture and use of which they are all expert." They proved themselves valuable collectors for Mr. Bock, and, though excessively shy, being friendly to the Dyaks but holding no communication with the Malays, he at last prevailed upon them to take him to one of their forest homes. By this means he had a most favorable opportunity for studying their modes of life and especially their women, whom no European had ever before seen. There are some striking pictures in this volume, from sketches made by the author during this visit, which give a very graphic idea of this little-known race.

The Dyaks of Long Wai were celebrated for their bravery and their success in head-hunting, but the Dutch have so nearly suppressed this barbarous custom in their own dominions that it was difficult to detect any traces of its existence. The skulls were hidden from view, and the only visible sign was an occasional leaning-post or "monument that a party has been out head-hunting and returned with one or more heads." This practice, "as carried on by all the Dyak tribes not only in the independent territories, but also in some parts of the tributary states, is part and parcel of their religious rites. Births and 'namings,' marriages and burials, not to mention less important events, cannot be properly celebrated unless the heads of a few enemies, more or less, have been secured to grace the festivities or solemnities. . . . It is a rule among all the tribes that no youth can regularly wear a mandau, or be married, or associate with the opposite sex, till he has been on one or more head-hunting expeditions." Further in the interior he found the Tring Dyaks, who added to this custom that of cannibalism, which is probably confined to this tribe, and the author says: "I noticed that the other Dyak tribes did not go near the Trings during their stay at Moeara Pahou, not disguising their fear of them and their disgust at their cannibal practices." A still more interesting people, of whom he heard much during the course of his journey, though unfortunately he was unable to see any of them, were the "Orang boentoet—literally, tail-people." He was assured by one of the Sultan's servants "that he had himself some years ago seen the people in Passir. . . . As to the all-important item of the tail, Tjiropon declared with a grave face that the caudal appendage of these people was from two to four inches long; and that in their homes they had little holes cut or dug in the floor on purpose to receive the tail, so that they might sit down in comfort." This man was sent with an escort to the Sultan of Passir, with the request that some of these people might be sent to Bandjermasin, the Dutch capital of southern Borneo. It is hardly necessary to say that he returned without success, though still persisting in the truth of his story. Accordingly, a second mission was sent, accredited by the Dutch Resident, which finally brought back word from the Sultan "that the only *Orang boentoet* he had ever heard of were those, so called, forming his suite." It appears that his personal attendants were known as the "*Orang boentoet di Sultan di Passir*—literally, the tail-people of the Sultan of Passir."

Among the curious customs which Mr. Bock describes is that of the elongation of the lobe of the ear, which reached in one woman, whose ear he carefully measured, 4.75 inches, the total length of the ear being 7.1 inches. Tattooing is also very generally practised, and oftentimes the patterns are very elaborate and beautiful. He confirms the testimony given by other travellers that the climate of Borneo is not especially unhealthy nor the heat unbearable, though it lies under the equator. "Smallpox occasionally makes serious ravages among the people. As a safeguard against this disease they have a sort of vaccination system, wherein faith or belief plays a greater part than medical science." It appears to consist of simply burning several places on the arm or thigh. But the depopulation of the country must be largely due to head-hunting, and though in the Dutch provinces the inhabitants are increasing in numbers, the Dyaks seem to be gradually dying out. The North Borneo Company, with a view to encourage Chinese emigration, have just appointed Sir Walter H. Medhurst, formerly Consul at Shanghai and the author of one of the best books on China yet written, their agent in the East. The concluding chapters of Mr. Bock's work, which for the excellence of its typography and illustrations deserves a special word of praise, describe a previous expedition to Sumatra for the purpose of making a collection of its fauna. In this he was very successful, though, unfortunately, the larger part of his acquisitions was lost in the Red Sea.

Studies in Mediæval History. By Charles J. Stillé, late Provost of the University of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1882. 12mo, pp. 473.

THE title of Mr. Stillé's book is somewhat misleading: by "studies" one generally understands the detailed investigation or elaboration of special points, it may be wholly disconnected with one another. But the book before us is a systematic presentation of mediæval history, originally a course of lectures, and still preserving most of the characteristics of lectures. They are, as historical lectures should be, rather a commentary upon history than history itself, and as such they will be found very acceptable. They contain a clear, well-connected sketch of the leading characteristics of the Middle Ages, presenting for the most part accepted and familiar views, but put in a way to be seldom commonplace, and often very suggestive. Facts are so grouped and brought into relation with one another as to give the effect of considerable novelty of treatment.

The chapters are sixteen in number, beginning with "General Characteristics of the Mediæval Era," and ending with "The Era of Secularization"—two chapters which show the author at his best, as giving good opportunity for the elaboration of general views. An appendix contains a well-selected list of books of reference (rather of "reading" it should be, for very few of them are really designed for reference). No two persons would make the same list, and it is always easy enough in such lists to find omissions; nevertheless, we are surprised to miss so excellent and recent a book—and the production of Mr. Stillé's own State—as Coppée's 'Conquest of Spain.' There are some strange misprints: *Knighton* for *Kingston* (Frederic II.); *Donol* for *Doniol* (*Classes ouvrières*); *Worn* for *Worms* (*Ligue Hanséatique*); while Professor Rogers's book should be given as 'History of Agriculture and Prices.'

When we take up the consideration of details, particularly in the chapters on institutions and political history, we cannot always agree with the author, and in some cases there appear to be positive errors. We question (p. 42) whether it is correct to call the Germans before the invasions of the fifth century "wanderers"; it seems evident that they had passed out of the nomadic stage before the time of Tacitus. At any rate, if they were wanderers, they did not live in "what are called 'village communities,'" for these are wholly incompatible with the nomadic

stage of society. We believe, indeed, that, in what may be called "the primitive Teutonic system," while having passed out of the nomadic stage, they had not yet settled so completely as to form village communities; we have no objection to the view that the Anglo-Saxons had the village-community system at the time of the migration (p. 201). Inaccuracy rather than positive error is found in such statements as these: The lands of the Anglo-Saxons "were all charged with the burden of *trinoda necessitas*" (p. 206); it is regarded now as proved that this was a burden on all freemen, but not on all land (see Lodge, 'Anglo-Saxon Law,' p. 61). The date of Egbert's reduction of Northumbria, and therefore of the beginning of the kingdom of England (so far as it is now established), was 827 (p. 208). The division "into great provinces," abolished by William the Conqueror (p. 219), was Danish, not Saxon. When (p. 225) of the two "fundamental propositions concerning government" of Magna Charta, it is said that "they have always been retained in England," it is forgotten that the provision with regard to scutages and aids was omitted in the charter of Henry III., and that this right had to be wrested again from Edward I. William the Conqueror is said (p. 229) to have refused to render homage to the Pope, alleging that "his fathers before him had refused to do so." But none of his "fathers" had been kings of England; his words were, *antecessores meos*. St. Bernard is called (p. 355) one of the principal agents in the Albigensian Crusade; he died 1153, and would have been at the time of this crusade about one hundred and twenty years old.

The interesting chapter (xiv.) on the "Laboring Classes" presents some views with which we do not wholly agree. In the first place, it may be observed that the *latifundia* were not exclusively sheep-pastures (pp. 19, 389). What is more important, the *collegia* suppressed during the civil dissensions of Rome were not guilds of artisans, but political clubs, *collegia sodalicia*, nominally religious in their organization, having generally the local cult of the *lares compitales* for their gathering-point. The description of the *coloni* is given correctly (p. 392), and we hoped to find a discussion of one of the most important and difficult questions in social history when we read the words: "Let us mark the transition from the Roman *colonus* to the Teutonic serf or villain; for the last relation grew out of the first as a consequence of the invasions." But the question, although started, is not discussed. In the last words, however, we think there is a fundamental error. Mediæval serfdom is not the outgrowth of the *colonatus*, except in so far as the descendants of a large proportion of the *coloni* became serfs. Nor is the condition of the two classes identical, although their legal status is no doubt essentially the same. It was a fundamental feature of mediæval serfdom that the land occupied by the serf was paid for, in part at least, by labor performed upon the lord's estate or demesne. This is the source of the oppressive *corvées* (wrongly defined, p. 403; the exactions here described fall under the definition of *banalité*). The *coloni*, on the other hand, cultivated their estates on their own account, paying for them the so-called *canon*—generally, one-half the produce. This is the source of the modern *métayers* (*medietarii*) of southern France and Italy.

The account given of the origin of serfdom (p. 393) is correct if, instead of power "originally" resting upon possession of land and difference of rank, we read "in feudal times." The original Teutonic system did not rest upon land, but upon personal freedom. The description which follows, of the nature of the grievances of the peasantry and the process of emancipation, while very suggestive, as emphasizing a point of view which is generally overlooked, is nevertheless inadequate. Mr. Stillé describes this process as consisting essentially in "the substitution of a contract for fixed service for the arbitrary and capricious demands of the feudal superior." But when we read of Edward III. "selling manumissions," we ought to note that long before the time of Edward III. the obligations of the serfs were precisely fixed, and recorded, with their value in money. Sugenheim ('Aufhebung der Leibeigenschaft,' p. 116) describes emancipation as consisting essentially in successive and individual ameliorations (*Erleichterungen*) of the condition of the serfs; one abuse after another being *bought* by the individual serfs or by communities.

The account of the peasantry is followed by a description of the municipalities and their institutions. This contains an admirable brief description of the trade-guilds, and a correct statement of their relation to the municipal government. This came, however, rather late in the Middle Ages. For the origin of the municipalities we must look to a different class. Three features of this movement are mentioned (p. 397): the municipal governments, the trade corporations, and the "gildes or confréries, composed of artisans usually, but not always nor necessarily forming part of the trade corporations." We think the author's attention is here too exclusively directed to France, where alone the *confréries* were, as a rule, independent of the trade-guilds. Nor even here were they of much importance in *municipal* history. On the other hand, he omits the merchants' guild, or *Hanse*, which was fundamentally different from the trade-guilds, or *Zunfts*, and which in England and Germany, and to some extent in France also, was the starting-point of municipal life.

While we thus take exceptions to some of Mr. Stillé's positions in regard to the industrial history of the Middle Ages, we heartily welcome this part of his work, as treating sympathetically and with much genuine insight a greatly neglected department of social history.

Life in Hawaii. By Titus Coan. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 1882. 12mo, pp. viii.–340.

Mr. Coan's narrative is the record of a life that has been full of unusual experience; and we may premise that the record is a fuller one than the title promises, for it includes the writer's whole life from childhood to age, excepting only that part of which he had already published an account in his 'Adventures in Patagonia' (New York, 1879). Titus Coan was born in Killingworth, Conn., on the 1st of February, 1801. There was no augury of a missionary career in his earlier days. The military spirit that had been kindled by the events of 1812–15 lingered throughout his youth even in staid Connecticut, and in 1821 young Coan was an ambitious lieutenant in a regiment of militia. Then came the epoch of the religious revivals under his cousin, Asahel Nettleton. Mr. Coan left the militia regiment, and, after several other tentative experiments in life, began his studies for the ministry in 1831. Two years later he was sent on a missionary exploring tour to Patagonia, barely escaping from the savages of that inhospitable country. In 1834 he was married, and shortly afterward embarked with his bride for Honolulu, where they arrived after a six months' voyage around Cape Horn. Mr. Coan was assigned to the districts of Hilo and Puna, which include a hundred miles of the coast line of Hawaii, and there he has since resided.

The purely "evangelical" side of Mr. Coan's labors has been familiar for many years to that part of the public who take interest in mission-work. It has been striking from its magnitude, the large majority of the adult population of Hilo and Puna having been gathered into Mr. Coan's church within a few years after his arrival. We will not enter into the question of the positive quality of these conversions; for better or for worse, they were essentially of the same nature as those which are now wrought in a Western "revival," and their effects were at least as deep and as durable. The circumstance of their being wrought upon such seemingly different material—upon heathens whose chief divinity was Pele, and whose paradise was the pit of raging fire in Kilauea—made surprisingly little difference in the phenomena presented. And this, to our thinking, gives the chief interest to this part of Mr. Coan's record—the undeniable fact, namely, that a religious revival in Polynesia is almost absolutely the same thing as a religious revival in the United States. The same excitement is observed, the same cries and tears, the same revulsions of joy, and the same outcome of the process as those which occur under the ministrations of Moody and Sankey. The phenomena are identical. In no other region outside of Polynesia that is known to Protestant missionaries has this close correspondence been observed. The success of American Protestant missions has been not exactly confined to Polynesia, but it has been far greater in Polynesia than anywhere else; and it is not unreasonable to find in this common ground of emotion and susceptibility between the Polynesian and the Anglo-Saxon something more than the "providential" explanation of the success of missions in the Pacific. The facts afford a presumption, hitherto, we believe, unnoticed, in favor of the doctrine already advocated by ethnologists, that the Polynesians and the Anglo-Saxons are descended from an assignable common parentage.

This question is not, we hardly need say, broached in the autobiography, which is a direct and simple narrative, told with a quaintness in the style which reminds us at times of 'John Woolman's Diary.' A passage descriptive of Mr. Coan's perilous crossing of torrents in freshet, while making his arduous foot-tours, may be quoted. When the streams, he says, were not too swift,

"I mounted upon the shoulders of a sturdy aquatic native, holding on to his bushy hair, when he moved carefully down the slippery bed of the river, bearing up-stream against a current of ten knots, and moving one foot at a time sideways among the slimy boulders in the bottom, and then bringing the other foot carefully up. Thus slowly feeling his way across, he would land me safe, with a shout and a laugh, on the opposite bank. But this is a fearful way of crossing. The cataracts are so numerous, the waters so rapid, and the uneven bottom so slippery, that the recovery from a fall is often impossible, the current hurrying one swiftly over a precipice into destruction. . . . I once crossed a full and powerful river in this way, not more than fifty feet above a cataract of 426 feet in height. A missionary brother of another station, seeing me landed safely, and knowing that this crossing would save about six miles of hard and muddy walking, followed me on the shoulders of the same bold native that took me over. But before he had reached the middle of the flood he trembled and cried out with fear. The bearer said: 'Hush! hush! be still, or we perish together.' The brother still trembling, the native with great difficulty managed to reach a rock in the centre of the river, and on this he seated his burden, commanding him to be quiet and sit there until he was cool (he was already drenched with rain and river-spray), when he would take him off. This he did in about ten minutes, and landed him safely by my side."

Roads suitable even for a horse-track were not constructed in Mr. Coan's parish for twenty years or more after his arrival, and the athletic missionary made his way on foot throughout the

long extent of coast and among the mountains which his parish included. Kilauea, the greatest volcano in the world, lies within his field, and his visits to it and to the summit craters of Mauna Loa have been frequent. Of their eruptions he has probably seen more than any other observer. We make room for the following account of the fire-fountain as it appeared when he gained the heights of Mauna Loa, in advance of his guides, on the 27th of February, 1852:

"At half-past three P.M. I reached the crater, and stood alone in the light of its fires. It was a moment of unutterable interest. I was 10,000 feet above the sea, in a vast solitude untrodden by the foot of man or beast, amidst a silence unbroken by any living voice. I was blinded by the insufferable brightness. . . . The hills smoked and the earth melted, and I saw the gushings from the awful throat of the crater burning with intense white heat. I saw the vast column of melted rocks mounting higher and still higher, while dazzling volleys and coruscations shot out like meteors in every direction, exploding all the way up the ascending column of 1,000 feet, with the sharp rattle of infantry fire in battle. There were unutterable sounds as the fierce fountain sent up the seething fusion to its utmost height. It came down crashing like a storm of fiery hail in conflict with the continuous ascending volume, a thousand tons of the descending mass falling back into the burning throat of the crater, where another thousand were struggling for vent."

This tremendous action, it may be noted, was so uniform and regular that Mr. Coan approached the lava fountain within forty yards on the windward side.

Doubtless the main result of missionary labor upon the Polynesians has been to hasten the destruction of the race—a circumstance which we may be permitted to regret. But of this the individual laborers have not been conscious, and we can hardly hold them responsible. It was one of the fatalities of philanthropy that the Hawaiians should perish. Mr. Coan's own share in the work has been that of a kindly and single-hearted laborer, and his record has a charm that will be felt even by those who condemn the entire work of missionaries among the Polynesians as a race-destroying blunder. 'Life in Hawaii' has found a careful editor, if we may judge from the initials appended to the introductory note, in the son of the author.

Purcell. By William H. Cummings. Scribner & Welford. 1881.

MR. CUMMINGS is a prominent member of the Purcell Society, which was founded in London in 1876 "for the purpose of doing justice to the memory of Henry Purcell, firstly by the publication of his works, most of which exist only in MS., and, secondly by meeting for the study and performance of his various compositions." He has edited Purcell's "Yorkshire Feast Song," which was published four years ago; and it would have been difficult for Mr. Hueffer to find a more competent biographer of Purcell for his "Great Musicians" series. And yet it cannot be said that Mr. Cummings has succeeded in writing an interesting book. It contains too many facts and details that are simply correct without being instructive or entertaining; and many of them fairly come within the sphere of the Society for the Suppression of Useless Knowledge. The series for which this volume was written aims at giving the general public some information regarding the leading composers of various countries. But, surely, no one but a musical antiquary cares to read a hundred pages of details concerning compositions of which he has never heard the names, and which there is but little chance of his ever hearing in a concert hall. The author might plead that so little is known about the life of Purcell that nothing was left for him to do but write a sort of descriptive catalogue in chronological order. This, to a certain extent, is the case with Schubert and other composers whose lives have been uneventful; but the biographer of Schubert has the advantage that most of the works he writes about are well known to the reader, who will therefore be glad to know something about the time and circumstances of their origin.

Perhaps Mr. Cummings is less to blame in this matter than the editor, Mr. Hueffer. Instead of devoting a whole volume to Purcell, it would have been better to associate with him three or four other prominent English composers. Waiving this point, however, Purcell doubtless more than any other English composer deserves the honor of being ranked with the "Great Musicians." He is not only rated as the greatest English composer by his own countrymen, but Von Dommer, the German historian, says that he is "the only true musical genius England has ever produced." He flourished in the second half of the seventeenth century (1658–1695), and during that time exercised a great influence on the taste of the English people, no less by his own music than by fostering an appreciation of the more noble and artistic Italian music of that period as against the frivolous and superficial French music cultivated in court circles, and thus paving the way for the appreciation of his successor, Handel.

The most striking features of Purcell's genius were his great productivity and versatility. According to Chrysander, Handel's biographer, he was surpassed in every single point by some other contemporary writer, Lully and Corelli being better composers of instrumental pieces, Steffani of duets, Scarlatti and Keiser of arias and recitatives, and the Italians in general of symmetrical and singable choruses; but he surpassed them all, thanks to his genuine dramatic instinct, in combining these various features in one and the same work. His first opera, "Dido and Æneas," was written in his twenty-third and not his seventeenth year, as is generally asserted, and there is a tradition that he himself sang and acted one of the parts in it, written for alto voice. Had he received more encouragement as a dramatic composer, and not died at the early age of thirty-seven, he would doubtless have anticipated some improvements made by later operatic composers, if we may judge by what he did accomplish and by the following passage, which occurs in the preface to "The Prophetess" (1690), and which shows that he correctly estimated the advantages music gains by a union with poetry:

"Musick and Poetry have ever been acknowledged Sisters, which walking hand in hand supports each other; As Poetry is the harmony of Words, So Musick is that of Notes: and as Poetry is a Rise above Prose and Oratory, so is Musick the exaltation of Poetry. Both of them may excel apart, but sure they are most excellent when they are joyn'd because nothing is then wanting to either of their Perfections: for thus they appear like Wit and Beauty in the same Person. Poetry and Painting have arriv'd to their perfection in our own Country: Musick is yet but in its Nonage, a forward Child which gives hope of what it may be hereafter in ENGLAND, when the Masters of it shall find more Encouragement. 'Tis now learning ITALIAN which is its best Master, and studying a little of the French Air, to give it somewhat more of Gayety and Fashion. Thus being farther from the Sun we are of later Growth than our Neighbour Countries, and must be content to shake off our Barbarity by degrees."

Garfield's Place in History: An Essay. By Henry C. Pedder. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1882.

THE burden of "placing" our contemporaries "in history" may with a good conscience be devolved upon posterity, whose placing is the only one that will stick. Mr. Pedder recognizes this so far as to discuss it at the end rather than at the beginning of his essay; and rather inconsequentially concludes that it is possible "at this early day to properly define his [Garfield's] place in history" because "the calm, dispassionate view of the historian" will probably not be the same as "that warm and living appreciation which time is apt to diminish." From this it appears that we should understand by his title the place which Garfield ought to have in history; and this place, he assumes, is beside Washington and Lincoln.

Now, just as no one on the eve of the first Chicago Convention would have ranked Lincoln with Washington, no one, we venture to say, would on the eve of the second have joined Garfield with either in a deliberate judgment of our national indebtedness to him. It will not, of course, be pretended that his behavior or public utterances during the canvass and after his election, or his brief administration of four months, added anything to his previous title to so exalted a place on the roll of American worthies. His cruel fate, again, bravely met as it was, was as purely extrinsic as that of Lord Frederick Cavendish. So that one is at a loss to explain the selection of Washington and Lincoln as the obvious peers with whom to associate him in gratitude as well as in memory for all time. Mr. Pedder fails to make clear the grounds of such an association, or to substantiate his dictum that "the estimate of a man's own time, though not always reliable, is quite as likely to be correct as the verdict of posterity"—in which case, it need hardly be remarked, there would be no motive for forestalling that verdict.

It happens that an anonymous writer quite as warmly and more aggressively disposed to uphold the reputation of the late President, and who makes the same collocation of great names in a little pamphlet essay on "The Idea of Garfield" (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.), confesses that "it is chiefly as the possessor of great qualities that we must remember and honor Garfield. . . . It is to a great extent as an idea, not in realized works, that Garfield remains with us." And, attempting himself also to fix Garfield's place in history, he says—with true forecast, as we believe: "The greatest work of Garfield's career will be hereafter reckoned his strong and intelligent finance speeches, made when the inflation craze was sweeping the country, and when politicians of both parties were eager to adopt an irredeemable currency." Mr. Pedder would probably not be content with this, any more than he would be to rest Lincoln's Washingtonian greatness on his debates with Douglas in Illinois; but the moral is plain, that if two admirers, "of a man's own time," cannot agree more nearly on the grounds of reverence for their hero, they are not likely to discredit the value of time, perspective, and silence in ordering the judgments of history.

Noah Webster. By Horace E. Scudder. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1882.

THE second volume of "American Men of Letters" is devoted to Noah Webster, and very fitly. He was not great in belles-lettres; but there is no American who has devoted himself more completely to book-work, or left a deeper mark by it on the English language, or won a wider fame. Mr. Scudder's book is not a common biography. It does not trace the life of Webster from year to year and from place to place; nor is it an attempt to present an elaborate picture of him at his literary work, such as we have of Southey and Gibbon, and of his brother lexicographers, Johnson, Grimm, and Littré. It is more like a very long magazine article on Webster and his times. A good many important

facts in his life are given in one place or another, too often without dates, and they are told in a pleasant style, and in such order and form as to be interesting to a casual reader, if not altogether satisfactory to a statistician. There are somewhat extended descriptions and estimates of his principal works. A large part of the book, however, consists of discussions of the literary and scholarly condition of New England and New Englanders, and other matters which might belong to a description of the times of Webster, but which are so little connected with him as to look like padding, and to make the impression that the writer has found Webster himself rather a meagre subject. This effect is increased by the attitude and tone of the author. Mr. Scudder writes of Webster and his times with a certain playful condescension. Webster distinguished himself at Yale College. President Stiles's mention of this leads Mr. Scudder to say: "Each college made believe very hard that its students were scholars, and its scholastic life the counterpart of historic universities." That is hardly a graphic description of Yale and Harvard. In 1812 Mr. Webster betook himself to Amherst with his apparatus, and devoted himself wholly to researches for his dictionary. The ten years that he spent there were the great years of his literary life. Mr. Scudder's description of it is: "He had withdrawn himself into the wilderness." That is hardly a graphic description of Amherst. Webster records that he was musician in a college military company which escorted General Washington from New Haven; whereupon Mr. Scudder:

"The last sentence is a faint hint at an amusing and pardonable little vanity of Webster's, who, as the reader will discover later, liked to think he had a hand in pretty much every important measure in the political and literary history of the country in those early days, and remembered that when the great Washington appeared, Webster was ready with the prelusive fife."

Webster graduated in 1778, nineteen years old. His father was a descendant of Governor Webster, of Connecticut, and still lived on the family farm. His mother was a descendant of William Bradford, the Plymouth Governor. They sent Noah to college, but after he graduated he had to teach school for a while. Mr. Scudder pursues him through life with pleasantries and criticism turning on his being a schoolmaster. He gives him faint praise as a statesman, though Jefferson mistook his work for Hamilton's. He says "such men as Belknap and Hazard [Mr. Scudder's representative authors of the day] looked with disdain upon him; they felt rather than said that Webster was not one of them." "So, when living in Hartford, Webster was not identified with the circle of Hartford wits." One of Webster's latest works was an edition of the Bible "purified from obsolete, ungrammatical, and exceptional words and phrases"—as to which Mr. Scudder tells us:

"He is a schoolmaster in this business, squaring Elizabethan English to suit the regularity and uniformity of language which have been the dream of all schoolmasters." "He had not, in such a work as this, the qualifications of a scholar; he had simply the training of a schoolmaster."

"I wonder if one of those scholars [the recent revisers] who signed the non-committal endorsement of Webster's Bible may not, in the midst of his recent labors, have contrasted in his mind the learned company to which he belonged with the schoolmaster who offered a Bible 'purified from the numerous errors.'"

In taking this attitude and tone toward American life and toward the hero of his book, Mr. Scudder does not seem to be influenced by any unhappy temper or by want of knowledge. He has fallen in, shall we say? with the fashion of depreciating the greatness of our history and the qualities of our people. It is the fashion also for biographers to assume the air of specialists pronouncing impartial judgments from lofty heights above their subjects—an ungracious fashion. Theair of a great specialist may be assumed, but the substance of his utterance cannot be. Cautious and moderate praise of our great lexicographer from Curtius or Whitney would do him honor; condescending commendation from Mr. Scudder is belittling to him. An old-fashioned enthusiastic account of Webster by a thoroughgoing hero-worshipper would make a more truthful impression of his character and his relations than this volume by Mr. Scudder.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Reverend Idol: a Novel. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.
Art, L'. Vol. xxviii. J. W. Bouton.
Autobiography of Luther Lee, D.D. Phillips & Hunt. $1 50.
Baker, J. Montesquieu's Grandeur and Decadence of the Romans. D. Appleton & Co.
Ballantine, Serjeant. Some Experiences of a Barrister's Life. Henry Holt & Co. $2 50.
Bancroft, G. History of the Formation of the Constitution of the United States of America. 2 vols. D. Appleton & Co.
Bartlett, J. Catalogue of Books on Angling. Cambridge, Mass.
Blauvelt, A. The Present Religious Crisis. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Braddon, Miss M. E. Mount Royal. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Eclectic Historical Atlas: a Handbook for Students and General Readers. Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.
Essays and Dialogues of Giacomo Leopardi. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $3.
Foote, L. H. A Red-Letter Day, and Other Poems. Boston: A. Williams & Co.
Freeman, A. C. The American Decisions. Vol. xxxiii. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.
Freeman, E. A. The Reign of William Rufus, and the Accession of Henry I. In 2 volumes. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.
Gardner, D. Quatre-Bras, Ligny, and Waterloo: Campaign in Belgium, 1815. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Gautier, T. The Romance of a Mummy. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.
Gorringe, Lieut.-Com. H. H. Egyptian Obelisks. New York: The Author, 32 Waverley Place. $15.
Gray, J. C. The Biblical Museum. Old Testament. Vols. viii., ix., and x. Isaiah-Malachi. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1 25 per volume.
Green, Anna K. The Defence of the Bride, and other Poems. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Gross, J. B. Sin Reconsidered and Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.
Hallmann, W. N. Primary Helps: Being No. 1 of a New Series of Kindergarten Manuals. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Hale, E. E., and Miss Susan. A Family Flight through France, Germany, Switzerland, and Norway. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $2 50.
Halsey, C. S. An Etymology of Latin and Greek. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.
Harte, Bret. Tales of the Argonauts. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2 50.
Hatton, J. The Queen of Bohemia. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Havergal, Frances Ridley. Red-Letter Days. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 85 cents.
Heine, H. Religion and Philosophy in Germany. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Hodgdon, Miss J. Whittier Leaflets: For Homes, Libraries, and Schools. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 60 cents.
Holtzendorff, Dr. F. von. Schottische Reiseskizzen. Breslau: S. Schottlaender.
Irving, P. Life and Letters of Washington Irving. Vol. i. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Jebb, R. C. Bentley. [Morley's English Men of Letters.] Harper & Bros.
Jerrold, B. The Life of George Cruikshank. In 2 volumes. Illustrated. Scribner & Welford.
Jones, C. H. History of the Campaign for the Conquest of Canada, in 1766. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Judd, D. W. Life and Writings of Frank Forester. In 2 volumes. Orange Judd Co. $1 50 per volume.
Knox, T. W. The Pocket Guide for Europe. C. T. Dillingham.
Lecky, W. E. H. History of England in the Eighteenth Century. Vols. iii. and iv. D. Appleton & Co.
Leland, C. G. The Gypsies. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Newcomb, S. Elements of Plane and Spherical Trigonometry. Henry Holt & Co. $2.
Pettingell, J. H. The Life Everlasting: What is It? Whence is It? Whose is It? Philadelphia: J. D. Brown. $2.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 1, 1882.

The Week.

THE deadlock in the House of Representatives was broken on Monday by the adoption of a new rule, which prevents the blocking of business by dilatory motions when the consideration of contested election cases is in question. The Democrats tried to cover their discomfiture, which every sensible man predicted would overtake them, by a protest against the new rule, in which the latter is, of course, denounced as revolutionary, and subversive of "one of the great monuments of the representative system," meaning the power of a factious minority by obstructive tactics to keep a member of their party in a seat in the House to which he is not entitled. In the preamble to this protest the signers of it allege that they "resisted the efforts of the majority to consider the case of Mackey against O'Connor, because a proper hearing had not been granted to the contestee by the Committee on Elections as to the allegations of forgery and fraud in the evidence submitted by the contestant." Here the Democrats admit themselves that they have resisted not a decision of, not a snap-judgment on, the case, but the consideration of it, although this consideration is the very thing they should have desired as an opportunity for showing that their allegations against the Committee on Elections are true. They will have that opportunity now, and all that is required to fill the measure of their distress is a failure to make good their charges, which is very probable.

The plan of harassing an enemy by mentioning some dead man who would be deeply grieved, or, as the phrase is, would "turn in his grave," could he see what was going on, is one very familiar to newspaper warriors, but it generally indicates that the supply of ammunition is nearly exhausted and that peace is near. We, consequently, may fairly treat the London *Standard's* suggestion that the fact that Story and Wheaton and Kent were American jurists makes the demand of the American State Department for a trial for American suspects "a pitiable spectacle," as a sure sign that no legal answer to the demand is forthcoming. It is made the more significant by the fact that there is not in either Story, Wheaton, or Kent a scintilla of support for the doctrine that a government which in a time of profound peace does not find its judicial machinery working satisfactorily, may, instead of amending the machinery, give up trial altogether, lock up on suspicion as many foreigners whom it finds within its borders as it pleases, keep them confined indefinitely without trial, and refuse to answer all inquiries as to the nature of their offence. There is no support in any writer, American or foreign, for such a wild pretension. The mention of Story, Wheaton, and Kent in connection with it is simply a form of vituperation. That Earl Granville or Mr. Forster should have advanced such a pretension shows the bewildered condition into which the Irish problem has thrown the English mind. The only change which the difficulty that the British Government finds in getting Irish juries to convict or Irish witnesses to testify would justify, in the forum of international law, is the institution of more summary modes of trial, or the expulsion of obnoxious foreigners. War only can create such powers as Mr. Forster has been treating himself to.

Several Western politicians have admitted to the *Herald* their solemn conviction that a Western man should be put in Mr. Lowell's place. None of them mention any American citizen whose rights Mr. Lowell has failed to protect. What they complain of is apparently that he has not shown the Court of St. James's the kind of rage he would get into if the rights of an American citizen were infringed—like the showman's elephant, who,

"When he's irritated, makes the following noise."

Mr. Williams, of Wisconsin, says "the woods are full of such men"—that is, of possible Western successors of Mr. Lowell, who would represent "the sturdier elements of American society." Mr. Orth, of Indiana, spoke with much feeling of what he had seen at Vienna of the tendency of American representatives abroad to "cultivate with fervid avidity social relations with foreigners." He would have them stand apart, "grand, gloomy, and peculiar," and not go chattering round the gilded saloons of the Continental capitals, as they do now, in foreign languages, neglecting their own tongue and their own people.

Mr. Springer wants Judge Jerry Black to represent us in London, but we do not think this would be wise from the "sturdy" point of view. The Judge is "sturdy," but he is a lawyer, and he would get in with the English lawyers and junket with them, and when the dungeons began to be filled with Americans would take legal views of his duty, or, in other words, sell us out for dinners and receptions. In fact, this is a matter on which it is hard to know whom to trust. Many will say, "Why not send Mr. S. S. Cox?" but he is intelligent and perhaps susceptible to flattery, and is literary, and when the British critics got round him and puffed his books he would forget his hatred for the Crown and the aristocracy. In fact, there are few men, East or West, who can resist the blandishments of a great wicked city like London. Western politicians think they can stand it, but we know them better than they do themselves. London peanuts and ice-cream are more seductive than they imagine. They beard the British lion far better on the prairies than they do in his home in the Tower of London.

Washington despatches state that Senator Beck has proposed in the Finance Committee an amendment to the National Bank Bill, providing that if any bank "discriminates against silver," its charter shall be annulled. We trust that it will be made sufficiently clear in the amendment what act or acts constitute "discrimination against silver." Probably Senator Beck has in mind a resolution adopted by the New York and Boston banks some two years ago, to the effect that they would only receive silver on deposit from parties who would agree to receive it back in payment of checks. This is called by some people "discriminating against silver," whereas its object is merely to put the banks on the same footing as their depositors in the matter of silver. In other words, it aims to prevent the public from making the banks a common dumping-ground for silver by depositing it and then not taking it back, or raising a fuss about it when the banks tender it in payment of checks. Of course, a bank could legally force silver on those who present checks for payment, but the attempt to do so would make trouble at once. The idea of Senator Beck is that everybody should have the right to discriminate against silver except the banks. His amendment, if passed, would have no sort of effect, for the reason that it is no discrimination against silver to require people who deposit it to receive it again. All that it would be needful for the banks to do to avoid even the appearance of discrimination would be to pass another resolution, declining to receive gold on deposit except from persons who would agree to receive it in payment of checks. Then the situation would be in appearance exactly what it is now in fact, and there would be no discrimination for the law-making or the law-executing power to put its hands upon.

The freetraders had a large dinner on Friday, at which there was much interesting speaking, but the most interesting topic of all—the prospects of free trade—was treated by Mr. David A. Wells. He was hopeful about free trade on account of the actual spread of free-trade ideas in the public mind, but more on account of the labor crisis which he thinks protection is undoubtedly preparing for us, and which, when it comes, will be very serious. We are gathering into this country, as he pointed out, a vast body of foreign laborers of a very low class, whose wages, under the protective system, must necessarily be small, and whose turbulent discontent we have no proper means of coping with. They are turning out increasing quantities of goods, to the consumption of which our own population is inadequate, and we have no foreign markets, and our tariff prevents our finding any, for our surplus. The chances are, therefore, that the final and complete breakdown of the protective system will come through the suffering of the laborers, for whose comfort protectionists pretend that the tariff is framed.

In an interesting letter to the *Evening Post* some time ago Mr. John Roach contended that he, as a shipbuilder and engine and boiler maker, could not compete with European constructors because the laborers of his own beloved land demand higher wages

than are paid to the people of the down-trodden nations of the Old World. He therefore insisted that high tariffs and prohibitory navigation laws were necessary to put him upon an equality with his foreign rivals. But we have had occasion more than once to direct the attention of Mr. Roach to the fact that he is not always and everywhere so responsive to the demands of workingmen as he is in the newspapers and when he goes before Congressional Committees. He has just shown again that he can at times harden his heart to the appeals of the laborers of his own beloved land. The boiler-makers of this city have asked for more pay, and are enforcing their request with a strike. According to the story of one of them lately published, there is substantially but a single obstacle to their success. There is only one man, he says, "that we have really to fight, and he will fight us longest." Will it be believed that this solitary and stubborn person is none other than Mr. John Roach, that patriotic citizen who insists upon the continuance of restrictive legislation in order that the demands of American workmen for high wages may be granted? A high tariff enables Mr. Roach to make and sell boilers at a price beyond what they could be bought for from the pauper-employing manufacturers beyond the sea. He does this, we have been led to believe, not in his own interest, but for the sake of the workingmen. We might expect, then, that Mr. Roach would be the first to accede to the demand of the boiler-makers for an increase of wages instead of being the first and last to oppose it. It is painful to hear one of them saying that he is "the only man we have to fight," and predicting of this champion of highly protected labor that "even he must yield."

The prosecution of General Curtis for collecting political assessments has terminated in a verdict of guilty on two counts of the indictment. This result can hardly fail to have an excellent effect, not only as an example to other Government officials, but in settling the question that wringing money out of Government clerks, under what amounts to a threat of the loss of their positions if they refuse, is an illegal extortion, which the Government does not encourage or wink at, but undertakes to suppress. With such a deep-rooted abuse as that of political assessments the great difficulty in the way of reform is that it at length begins to wear the air of a lawful and laudable custom, so that the victims do not resist or resent its continuance, but regard it as part of an established order to which they must necessarily submit. One of the most amusing features of the trial of General Curtis was that some of the money collected appears to have been entered on a victim's check-book as paid "pro bono publico." The verdict will no doubt do something to encourage the unfortunate Custom-house clerks to remember that the District Attorney does not take this view of the character of such assessments.

Some newspapers are trying to persuade themselves and their readers that the conviction of General Curtis will not have much effect in stopping the levying of assessments, because the party managers will hereafter evade the statute by having the money collected by officers who have been confirmed by the Senate. But this view overlooks the fact that the statute makes the payment of money for political purposes to "any other officer or employee of the Government" an indictable offence. An officer or employee who has been confirmed by the Senate may under the statute ask for and receive money for political purposes, but no officer or employee who has not been confirmed by the Senate can lawfully pay it to him, so that all such officers and employees will now have to bear in mind that if they pay an assessment for political purposes to any officer of the Government, high or low, they expose themselves to prosecution and a fine of $500. We think we may add, too, that in this city at least no effort will be left untried by the friends of reform to bring all such offenders to justice. Of course the collection of assessments may be done by persons not in the Government service at all, but as a general rule they do not offer themselves for this work with alacrity, and do not perform it efficiently. It is the requests of brother officers that employees have most to fear. Before long we trust the persecution of the clerks in Government offices for money by anybody whatever will be prohibited also.

The Geneva Award Bill, having passed both houses of Congress, will become a law in a very few days unless the President vetoes it. The principal objection to it is that it provides for the payment of claims which have no legal validity, and makes no provision for the payment of the claimants to whom the fund actually belongs. We may suggest, moreover, that there is a political objection to the bill which deserves consideration apart from this. The "war-premium" claims provided for in it are claims against Great Britain for money paid as "war rates" by owners of ships and cargoes in excess of what would have been paid had not all maritime risks been greatly increased during the Rebellion by the Rebel cruisers fitted out in England. Now, these claims were presented at Geneva and ruled out by the Tribunal as being altogether too remote to be considered. The bill just passed must be based on the idea that though ruled out by the court they got into the verdict in some unexplained way, and thus it amounts to a formal declaration that claims against a neutral of this character are not too remote, but must be paid; and not only this, but that our war-premium claims actually *have* been paid by Great Britain. In any future European war the United States will probably occupy its natural position as a neutral, and if any cruisers escape from our ports and prey on the commerce of any of the belligerents—for instance England—we shall unquestionably be confronted with "war-premium" claims similar to those which were presented at Geneva. Our Secretary of State will then, of course, in reply to them, remind the Government which makes the demand that these claims were ruled out at Geneva; but to this it will be answered, "How can that be, when you took the money and paid your war-premium claimants with it?" Considerations like these may seem altogether too unpractical for the Senate and House, but they ought to have some weight with the State Department and the President.

Boss Cameron's doings seem to be troubling his friends very much. His indiscreet threat henceforth to fight the protective tariff if the manufacturers fail to support him, has, according to all accounts, made even Stalwart business men angry. Now, he has also, for the purpose of nominating a candidate for Congressman-at-large, caused the old Convention to be called together again. The President of that Convention, Mr. Lear, loudly declares that, since the Convention adjourned without day, it is absolutely defunct and cannot be revived; and that if a Convention is to be called at all for the purpose indicated, it must be called in accordance with the rules laid down in the reform platform recently adopted at Harrisburg, and ostensibly accepted by Mr. Cameron and his friends. To call the old Convention together again, Mr. Lear thinks, would be a clear repudiation by the Stalwarts of the reform platform, and dissolve all the bonds of good-faith and fellowship between them and the rest of the party. A new break is therefore eminently probable. Troubles seem to be accumulating to such an extent that Mr. Cameron may soon wish he had never been boss.

The confession of Fitzgerald, the banco swindler, who is now on his trial in Boston for defrauding Mr. Charles Francis Adams by enticing him into a gambling-den and extorting checks from him in payment of pretended losses, is full of instruction as to the reason why this kind of knavery flourishes as it does in all our large cities. The fellow was extraordinarily impudent and confident when making it in the presence of the detective in the office of Mr. Adams's lawyer, and the reason of his impudence and confidence was plain. "In these cases," he said, "there was generally a struggle at the beginning, but these checks were always paid"; and he added that "he was as sure this one [Mr. Adams's] would be paid as if he had the money in his pocket." In other words, he counted, with a certainty derived from experience, on the unwillingness of the victim, or the victim's family, to seek justice, at the cost of having his weakness or folly exposed in court. A very large number—by far the largest number—of these frauds are perpetrated on elderly men or simple-minded professional men from the country, whose memory for names or faces has begun to fail, and whose geniality makes them unwilling to repudiate any person of decent appearance claiming acquaintance with them. The rest follows as a matter of course. In this case the knaves were not sufficiently careful in the selection of their victim. The condition of Mr. Adams's faculties was such as to make him an easy prey, but this very fact also made it easy to bring the matter into court, even if his sons were not probably the least promising persons in the United States for a scoundrel to try to extract hush-money from. Fitzgerald could hardly have been a Bostonian, or he would not have cherished that childlike confidence which he so freely

expressed, in the readiness of the "Adams boys" to negotiate with him.

The news comes again from the Indian Territory that "Oklahoma Payne" and twenty-nine other "colonists" who attempted to invade the Indian Territory and to effect a settlement there have been arrested by the military and "taken back to Kansas," and that "the authorities have not yet decided what to do with them." The same vagabond has been arrested for the same offence and "taken back to Kansas" nearly half a dozen times, and the authorities have never known "what to do with him." Why not? Because the law provides only that white persons found invading the Indian Territory for unlawful purposes shall be put across the line; and in case of a repetition of the offence, they shall be fined a certain sum of money. But as Payne and his fellow-colonists are of the impecunious kind, and no fine can be extracted from them, they are time and again punished only by being "taken back to Kansas," where the authorities always "find themselves unable to decide what to do with them." The upshot is that "Oklahoma Payne" makes the invasion of the Indian Territory his regular business, finding all the time new dupes who "go in" with him for the founding of settlements on the Indian lands. Ever since these invasions commenced, Congress has been urged in the most pressing manner to put an end to these disgraceful and ridiculous proceedings by enacting a law making the offence punishable with imprisonment, so that "the authorities may know what to do" with the ruffians caught in the act. Until such a law is enacted, Oklahoma Payne will continue to invade the Indian Territory once or twice a year merely to be "taken back to Kansas."

The humors of the James affair in Missouri do not cease. Frank James, Jesse's "wayward brother," for whom he used to pray at prayer meetings when he joined the Baptist Church in Texas, is anxious to give up robbing and lead a quiet life, and is negotiating for this purpose with the Governors of Missouri, Texas, and Minnesota. What the negotiation is about does not clearly appear. In all negotiations properly so called, each side has something to offer in return for what it expects to receive; but Frank James apparently has nothing to offer, except his giving up a life of crime to live quietly on the proceeds of his crimes. Nor does it appear even that he proposes to give it up because he is tired of it. His real reason seems to be that he is suffering from a wound in the lungs received when he was robbing a bank at Northfield, Minnesota, and wishes to pass the summer at an Eastern watering-place. The Missouri despatches say that pending the negotiations with the Governors, which are carried on under a "flag of truce," there is an "armistice" between the belligerents, during which James is residing in St. Louis, which city apparently lies within his lines. Mrs. Frank James is in the meantime visiting her father, Colonel Ralston, who lives in "the Ralston Mansion" in Independence, Mo. She eloped with Frank in 1875, her young imagination being touched by his robberies and murders. She is accompanied by her son little Jesse, so called after his late lamented uncle. Mrs. Jesse, it was at first said, had joined a circus company, but this is now contradicted. The latest news is that she has contracted with an eminent literary man, George Riches, of South Pueblo, Col., for twenty lectures on her late husband's career, and he is to deliver them in the area over which Mr. James robbed and murdered, Mrs. James sitting on the platform with her two children as one of the attractions. It seems as if Colonel Ralston, of the "Ralston Mansion," might also profitably offer himself to the lyceums with a lecture on Frank, and some account of the feelings of a father whose daughter has married a distinguished highwayman.

The Rev. Dr. Newman, the well-known Stalwart minister, who says he is a "Stalwart" from intellectual and religious conviction, but resolutely refuses to tell anybody what a "Stalwart" is, on Sunday preached a sermon on "The Nation's Dead." It was on a Sunday morning, be it remembered, and he was in church, not at a Stalwart dinner, nor on the stump, but in the pulpit, with the Bible open before him, and in the middle of Divine service, with the most solemn obligations to be truthful and accurate in his statements resting upon him which can rest on a human being. Nevertheless, he gave this account of the doings and sayings of the civil-service reformers:

> "This republic had erected monuments, it had provided generous pensions to widows and orphans. But there are a class of miserable, sickly sentimentalists, quasi-civil-service reformers, who say that the noble soldier should be thrown out from the civil service because he could less accurately locate the North Pole and the equator than some other who stayed home and learned these things. Every clerical office in the country, so far as practicable, ought to be filled by men who served in the late war, and by their widows and orphaned daughters."

What is oddest in all this is not so much that the Newmans should talk in this way in their pulpits, but that there should be so little anxiety among religious people about the effect of their talk on religion.

The *Times* publishes three pages of opinions on Southern politics. They have been gathered with evident care, but it may be doubted if the information is as trustworthy and valuable as that concerning the crops which the same journal printed some time ago. The *Times* finds that the letters taken as a whole "do not furnish any evidence of substantial dissatisfaction in the Southern Democracy with the Democratic party as a national party." The value of the evidence depends to a degree upon the authorship of the letters. They were written by the editors of Democratic newspapers in county towns. Perhaps no better source of information than this was within easy reach; but, while the local journalist ought to know what local opinion is, in politics his views are apt to be those of an optimist. Usually it is his duty and desire to promote union and harmony within his party. It is natural for him to believe that the union he wants really exists. He is greatly tempted to report, not what is, but what he thinks ought to be. One way to secure harmony is to assert that perfect harmony prevails. The country editor, however intelligent, is usually a strong partisan, and it would be a marvel of ingenuousness for him, if he suspected that there was dissatisfaction in his party, to disclose the fact to a leading newspaper of the opposite party. The worth of these letters might be more accurately estimated if they were offset with letters from other journalists—Republican editors, Independent editors, discontented Democratic editors.

The Egyptian crisis has been moving through so many different phases with such rapidity that all comment on it seems idle. The ostensible cause of the present phase of the trouble between Arabi and the Khedive, is that the latter commuted the sentences passed by a court-martial on some Circassian officers convicted of a conspiracy against Arabi's life. The Ministers, who are Arabi's creatures, thereupon resolved to call the Notables together to depose the Khedive, therein exceeding their powers. At this point both sides began to prepare for war, and, as anarchy was spreading over the country, the two Powers at last peremptorily intervened. Their policy was pretty clearly foreshadowed by M. de Freycinet in a recent speech in the French Chamber. He said in substance that France and England were in perfect accord, and would remain so; that the other Powers were satisfied to leave the settlement of the Egyptian difficulty in their hands, and they would settle it. He did not say plumply, but he did indicate pretty clearly, that under no circumstances would Turkey be permitted to meddle in the affair. The Sultan has long been dying to interfere, and, if the matter had been left to England alone, might possibly have been allowed to do so; but on this point France is apparently inexorable, having in mind the trouble he has given her in the Tunisian question. The English and French agents then presented an ultimatum to the Ministers, calling for the removal of Arabi Bey from the country, but leaving him his rank and pay, on receiving which the Ministers resigned. Then there was a rising of the Army and the Notables, which put Arabi back as Minister of War, with the whole power of the Government really in his hands, and the Khedive surrendered to him almost without a word. Arabi then set the Powers at defiance, denying anybody's right to intefere with him except the Sultan, and the Powers came to the conclusion that the Sultan was egging him on, while apparently condemning him, in the hope of being finally called on to intervene. In the meantime, anarchy, or something very like it, reigns at Cairo, and the Europeans are flying with their valuables, the soldiers having apparently got out of hand. The allied fleets are at Alexandria, and can demolish anything within range of their guns, but they cannot reach Cairo, and Arabi and his men will not come within range. The ships can only land 300 men, it is said, to assail his 3,000, and no others are near at hand. The latest news is of an identical note said to have been presented to the Sultan by the English and French Ministers at Constantinople, calling on him to summon Arabi to explain his conduct in person.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE Administration has begun in earnest to use the patronage of New York State for the advancement of the Stalwart interests. On Thursday James W. Bentley and John A. Luby were nominated for the offices of Collector of Internal Revenue and Surveyor of Customs of the port of Albany respectively. The present incumbents of these offices have filled them in a satisfactory manner, but they are not in sympathy with the Administration. It is thought that this is but the beginning of a "crusade" against the "Half-Breeds" in New York State.

Circulars from the National Republican Campaign Committee have been received by the employees at the Capitol in Washington, in which each employee is informed that he will be expected to contribute two per cent. of his annual salary toward the campaign fund which is to be used next fall. These circulars impose an assessment of $25 on each doorkeeper and about $10 on the page boys.

The Senate has passed a bill to distribute $200,000 among the officers and crew of the iron-clad *Monitor*, which was engaged in the fight in Hampton Roads, on the 9th of March, 1862.

The Senate Finance Committee has practically decided that the House requirement of ninety days' notice for the retirement of the national-bank circulation shall be stricken out of the Bank-Charter Extension Bill and a new provision inserted in its place. This new provision is to allow deposits of currency for the purpose of releasing security bonds and retiring circulation to a maximum amount, not exceeding three million dollars per month; the release of the bonds to be made in all cases in the exact order of the reception of the deposits by the respective banks within the proposed maximum.

The Mackey *vs.* O'Connor election case has occupied the House of Representatives for the last week. This case arose out of a contest from the Second Congressional District of South Carolina, which was submitted to the Committee on Elections, who found that there had been fraud in the election, and that Mackey, Republican, was entitled to the seat in the House in the place of Dibble, Democrat, the successor of O'Connor, deceased. At the election to fill the vacancy caused by the death of O'Connor, which resulted in the election of Dibble, the Republicans refused to vote, alleging that there was no vacancy, as O'Connor had never been entitled to the seat. The majority of the Committee on Elections having found as above, the Democrats began a long filibustering to prevent the consideration of the case, on the ground that the charges of forgery and fraudulent interpolation had not been properly investigated by the Committee on Elections. A deadlock resulted, which was only broken on Monday by the adoption of an amendment to the rules shutting off dilatory motions in such cases. The debate on the amendment was exciting, and resulted in a scene of disorder, the Speaker being totally unable to control the House. The Democrats have signed a protest against the ruling of the Speaker which made possible the passage of the amendment to the rules.

The Attorney-General has decided that ex-Secretary Kirkwood is ineligible for appointment as a member of the Tariff Commission.

Secretary Teller has decided that the claim of certain Chippewa Indians to the Turtle Mountain district lying to the north and west of Devil's Lake in Dakota, is invalid. This decision opens up nine million acres of the finest land in Dakota, and has caused great excitement in Dakota. Thousands of settlers are ready to rush in as soon as it can be formally opened.

The one hundred and fourteenth call for the redemption of bonds of the loan of March 3, 1863, continued at three and a half per cent. from July 1, 1881, was issued on Saturday.

The Secretary of the Treasury has prepared a circular to collectors of customs prescribing the form of certificate to be delivered to Chinese laborers departing from this country, entitling them to return under the provisions of the Act recently passed. It is provided that the certificate shall be printed on bank-note fibre paper so as to guard against counterfeiting.

Vice-Admiral Stephen C. Rowan, who has been selected by Secretary Chandler as Superintendent of the Naval Observatory in Washington, has formally accepted the office.

The Census Office has issued a bulletin showing that by the census of 1880 the number of persons in the United States was 50,155,783; the area in square miles, 2,900,170; the number of families, 9,945,916; the number of dwellings, 8,955,812; acres to a person, 37.01; persons to a dwelling, 5.60; and persons to a family, 5.04.

The State Convention of the Independent Republicans of Pennsylvania met in Philadelphia on Wednesday. Senator Mitchell was chosen temporary chairman, and made a speech in denunciation of "bossism" and in advocacy of civil-service reform. The platform adopted declares attachment to the principles of the Republican party; deplores the fact that the calamity of Garfield's assassination has been followed by the overthrow of the reforms his election signified; denounces the spoils system, "boss" rule, and "Machine" control of the party; demands the reformation of the civil service by law, and declares in favor of reforms in the party rules. The ticket nominated is as follows: Governor, State Senator John Steward, of Franklin; Lieutenant-Governor, Levi Bird Duff, of Allegheny; Secretary of Internal Affairs, Mayor George W. Merrick, of Wellsboro; Congressman-at-large, Colonel William McMichael, of Philadelphia; Justice of the Supreme Court, George Junkin, of Philadelphia. The ticket is generally considered a strong one, and the Stalwarts are said to be much troubled by the strength the movement shows.

The National Committee of the Greenback-Labor party has adopted an "address to the American people" denouncing monopolies of all kinds; a platform opposing telegraph and railroad monopolies, and calling for the substitution of greenbacks for national-bank currency; and a petition to the President requesting him to veto the bill for the rechartering of the national banks, should it pass the Senate.

The Straight Greenback State Convention of Maine met at Bangor on Tuesday. Resolutions were adopted asking that the Government buy bullion with greenbacks, demanding the abolition of all banks of issue, and approving the acts of the National Committee. Solon Chase was nominated for Governor.

At a meeting of the New England Woman Suffrage Association in Boston on Tuesday a letter was read from Governor Hoyt, of Wyoming Territory, pronouncing woman suffrage in Wyoming an unqualified success. Resolutions were adopted regretting the death of James T. Fields, Ralph Waldo Emerson, S. S. Foster, and other friends of woman suffrage.

The General Assemblies of the Presbyterian Church, North and South, in session at Atlanta, Georgia, and Springfield, Illinois, on Saturday, appointed delegates to attend each other's Conventions next May.

It is probable that one of the most extensive lockouts in the history of the iron industry will begin on the 1st of June. In the Pittsburg district alone fully 40,000 men will be thrown out of employment. The employers and the Amalgamated Association have been unable to come to any terms. The Association proposes to start stores to deal out groceries, etc., to the strikers in case the grocers and others decline to sell on time to the members of the Association.

The annual report of the Board of Trade of Cincinnati shows a growth of the manufacturing interest. The total value of the goods manufactured in the city during the year is $204,079,867—an increase of thirty per cent. over the previous year. A feature in connection with this growth is the fact that the number of manufacturing establishments has been reduced, showing that the business is being monopolized by the large houses.

It is stated that Mr. Reed, Guiteau's counsel, applied to Justice Gray, of the Supreme Court, on Friday last, in Boston, for a writ of habeas corpus for his client, and that Judge Gray refused to grant the writ until the case had been presented to his associates.

The arguments on the motion to quash the indictments in the Star-route cases were concluded on Monday, and Judge Wylie overruled all the points made against the indictment by the defence. Unless further dilatory manœuvres are successful, the trial of the conspirators will begin on Thursday next.

The Supreme Court of Ohio on Tuesday declared the Pond liquor-tax law, which has aroused much opposition from the liquor-dealers, unconstitutional, on the ground that it is of the nature of a license.

The Honorable Lionel Sackville West gave a large dinner at the British Legation in Washington on Wednesday evening in celebration of the Queen's birthday. The members of the Cabinet, with the exception of Mr. Folger and Mr. Howe, Senator Davis, Speaker Keifer, the Diplomatic Corps, and many other prominent men were present. Secretary Frelinghuysen proposed the health of Queen Victoria and responded to the toast of the President of the United States.

The St. Paul (Minn.) *Pioneer-Press* has printed crop reports from about sixty points on the Chicago, Milwaukee, and St. Paul Railroad not covered by recent reports. Nearly all agree that the weather is very favorable both to wheat and coarser grains. From the river division, which runs through a heavy wheat country along the Mississippi, reports of condition and prospects vary. Wheat is generally looking well, though it is backward on account of cold rain, and on some cold soils it looks thin and poor. In other places it already begins to show the need of more rain. The Cincinnati *Commercial* has information from nearly all the counties of Ohio, Indiana, and Kentucky as to the condition of the growing crops. Wheat throughout these three States has rarely looked better in May than it does now. The frosts of the middle of April have proved a benefit rather than otherwise.

One of the worst accidents that have happened in the Schuylkill, Pennsylvania, coal regions for a number of years occurred on Wednesday afternoon at the Kohinor Colliery at Shenandoah. Six men were killed and three so badly injured that they may not recover. The accident was caused by some of the miners uncovering their safety lamps, which, as the mine was very full of gas, caused an explosion.

Lieutenant Danenhower, Dr. Newcomb, Cole, and Long Sing, four survivors of the *Jeannette* Arctic expedition, arrived in New York on Sunday.

Despatches from Arizona announce that some of the Apache Indians are on the warpath. They have attacked several ranches in the valleys and driven the stock into the mountains. The miners in the mountain ranges are alarmed, and have organized for defence.

FOREIGN.

There has been a crisis in Egypt. England and France sent an ultimatum to Mahmud Barudi demanding the temporary removal of Arabi Bey from Egypt, with retention of rank and pay, and the resignation of the Ministry, and giving the Government twenty-four hours to come to a decision. On Saturday it was announced that the Ministry had resigned, after refusing the demands of England and France and referring them to the Sultan. Upon resigning, the President and Council of Ministers sent two notes—one to the Khedive and one to the agents of England and France

—in both of which they took the ground that the intervention of the foreign Powers in the present instance was an infringement of the right of the Sultan of Turkey. The British and French Consuls-General then called on Arabi Bey and declared that they held him personally responsible for the maintenance of public security. The Khedive announced to the officers and other Notables that he would personally assume supreme command of the troops and maintain strict discipline. The officers replied in insolent language, and declared that they would never accept the ultimatum offered by England and France, nor recognize the right of interference of any power except Turkey. Shortly after this the military commander at Alexandria, the Notables, Ulemas, and other military officers demanded the reinstatement of Arabi Bey. The Khedive refused the request, and said that the Porte supported him in his refusal. On Sunday, however, the Khedive was forced to yield and reinstate Arabi Bey, as he was informed that an armed force was in readiness to make him a prisoner if he refused. Before he was restored to power, Arabi Bey gave assurances to the diplomatic agents of Germany, Austria, Italy, and Russia, who had declared that they held him responsible for public security. It is said that England and France are convinced that the Porte has openly encouraged the Khedive while secretly countenancing the action of the Army, the object being to bring about Turkish intervention, and that England and France have accordingly threatened the Porte with foreign intervention unless the watchword of immediate and complete submission is given to the Egyptian Army. The immediate despatch of a Turkish squadron to Egypt with an Imperial Commissioner is probable.

Lord Dufferin and the Marquis de Noailles, the English and French Ambassadors at Constantinople, presented to the Porte on Monday an identical note recommending the summoning to Constantinople, from Egypt, of the three military leaders and the ex-President of the Council, to answer for their conduct.

Tuesday's despatches from Egypt were of a contradictory character. Arabi Bey is said to have been circulating statements that he had received a telegram from the Sultan announcing the deposition of the present Khedive and the nomination of Halim Pasha to succeed him. The British community at Alexandria has appealed to the British Consul for greater security against the disorderly soldiery. The joint English and French fleet, though able to silence the forts of Alexandria, can only spare 300 men to meet the Egyptian garrison of 3,000, who are daily becoming more and more exasperated.

A despatch from Tunis says that the French authorities are greatly irritated by intelligence that Turkish troops have disembarked near the frontier, between Tripoli and Tunis, in order to reinforce a camp already existing. The submission of the insurgent Arabs is now regarded as improbable.

There was an exciting debate on the Repression Bill in the House of Commons on Wednesday. Mr. Gladstone denounced Mr. Dillon for approving outrages by refusing to assist the Government in carrying the bill. Mr. Dillon replied that he had always denounced outrages. In regard to the objection of the Irish judges to the supersession of juries, Mr. Gladstone declared that if Parliament were to allow the judges to interfere in the framing of the bill, they would abandon one of the most important functions of the Government. He said he thought the institution of a special tribunal was necessary, but this question could be discussed in committee. He deprecated a long discussion of the bill, and said no good could come of it, as it would engender animosity between England and Ireland. Sir Stafford Northcote said that whatever fault might be found with the Government's Irish policy, the Conservatives ought to give a solid vote for the bill in the interests of peace and order. On Thursday Mr. Parnell made a very moderate speech. He said he regretted the Government had not confined itself to the Arrears of Rent Bill, which would have brought about a settlement of Irish affairs. Fresh coercion would simply play into the hands of the secret societies. Mr. Trevelyan made a speech, in which he admitted that the Government sent simultaneously messages of conciliation and coercion, but pointed out that the messages were not sent to the same address. He also said that the powers granted by the Repression Bill in regard to public meetings would only be exercised where meetings were part of the machinery of violence and disorder. Mr. Cowen offered an amendment to the bill declaring that while the House is desirous of aiding the Government in the detection of crime, it disapproves of restrictions upon the free expression of public opinion in Ireland, which was rejected by a vote of 344 to 47.

A memorial signed by forty-seven Liberal members of Parliament has been presented to Mr. Gladstone, urging a reduction of the period in which the Repression Bill shall be in force, and a modification of the clauses in regard to intimidation, public meetings, and the press. So much opposition has been shown to the Prevention of Crime and the Arrears Bills during the last week that there seems to be little prospect of either measure becoming a law before a late period in the session, and the rules for regulating the procedure of the House will therefore probably be put off till next year. Should the forthcoming debates indicate any factious spirit of obstruction to the Prevention of Crime Bill, the Government will make a declaration of urgency in order to hasten forward the measure.

Lord Salisbury, speaking at Stratford on Wednesday night, dwelt on the importance of constituencies preparing for a general election, which, he said, must speedily occur. He severely censured the Kilmainham compact, and described the Arrears of Rent Bill as a measure for paying the debts of persons from a fund on which they have no claim.

A letter from Mr. Davitt to Bishop Nulty, of Meath, violently denouncing landlords and demanding Home Rule, has been published. Bishop Nulty read the letter to the assembled clergy of his diocese, who received it with enthusiastic applause. In this letter Mr. Davitt says the Irish have been accused of not giving the Land Act a fair trial, but that the truth is they refuse to give landlordism any more trials. He also says that the Repression Bill is an act for the better encouragement of secret societies.

Archbishop McCabe was enthroned with imposing ceremonies at the Catholic Cathedral at Dublin, on Sunday. In replying to addresses after his enthronement, the Cardinal expressed his belief that, in spite of the ominous shadows now cast on Ireland, there was yet a bright future in store for her.

The London *Standard*, discussing the correspondence between Mr. Lowell and Secretary Frelinghuysen touching the Irish suspects, says it is a pitiable spectacle to witness the Foreign Office of the nation to which Story, Wheaton, and Kent belonged repudiating the elementary principles of international law at the bidding of a few Irish rowdies in New York and electioneering wirepullers.

In the House of Commons, on Thursday, Sir Charles Dilke said that confidential conversations had taken place between Lord Lyons, the British Ambassador to France, and the Mexican Minister at Paris regarding the resumption of diplomatic relations between England and Mexico, but that they had thus far proved fruitless.

A movement has been started in England to raise a memorial to the late Charles Darwin, by establishing a fund associated with his name, the proceeds of which will be devoted to the furtherance of biological science.

An official denial of the engagement of the Princess Beatrice to the eldest son of the Landgrave of Hesse has been published.

The race for the Derby Stakes at the Epsom summer meeting on Wednesday was won by the Duke of Westminster's chestnut filly Shotover. Lord Bradford's Quicklime was second, and Mr. Pierre Lorillard's Sachem third.

A despatch from London announces that Herr Neumann has nearly concluded arrangements for a visit to America with his German Opera Company early in 1883, to perform the "Ring of the Nibelung" and other operas by Wagner.

The Czar of Russia, "desirous to appease the people," as the despatch puts it, has decided to grant reforms. Two commissions will be constituted to consider the question of central institutions and the share in the administration to be given to the people. There is a committee at present sitting to examine local institutions. General Melikoff is made supreme head of all three commissions. A manifesto will soon be issued stating that the Czar desires to celebrate his coronation by granting reforms, but that he is compelled to postpone the ceremony for a year, because of the impossibility of completing the preparations sooner.

The St. Petersburg *Official Messenger* announced on Wednesday that by order of the Emperor the Government is firmly resolved to punish inexorably all who commit outrages against the persons and property of Jews. Governors and other authorities are therefore commanded, on their personal responsibility, to take timely measures to prevent such outrages, and any remissness in carrying out this order will be followed by dismissal from office. The *Messenger* also publishes the regulations agreed upon by the Committee of Ministers and approved by the Emperor. They provide that Jews shall henceforth be prohibited from settling outside of towns and villages except where Jewish settlements already exist. Jews are prohibited from trading on Sundays and on Christian holidays. All contracts of purchase or tenancy with Jews are provisionally suspended. These regulations are to apply only in governments where Jews are permanently settled. Notwithstanding the Emperor's order, however, outrages continue. The Governor of Kieff has issued a proclamation to the inhabitants of Balta, declaring that the authors and instigators of outrages upon Jews will be tried by court-martial, and that if the number of police is insufficient to prevent outrages, the military will be used. The Chief of the Balta police has recommended the Jews to "remain calm," and has assured them of the immediate repression of attempts at outrages.

A despatch to the Vienna *Presse* from Brody says that the Jews there are without bread, and their children almost starving. On Monday evening they noisily demanded bread and means to continue their journey. The authorities were compelled forcibly to restore tranquillity.

A despatch from Paris says that a duel took place on Wednesday evening between the Chief of the Department of Central Administration in the Ministry of Finance and M. Dreyfus, private secretary to M. Wilson, Under Minister of Finance. Both were wounded, but neither seriously. The causes of the duel were violent articles in the *Lanterne* newspaper against the Finance Department, which were written by M. Dreyfus.

Several hundred Communists made a demonstration on Monday in the Cemetery of Père-la-Chaise. Louise Michel was among the speakers. The tomb of Blanqui was visited and adorned with flowers.

A despatch from Madrid says that the revenue receipts of the last nine months show an increase of 22,000,000 pesetas over those of the same period of the previous fiscal year.

TUESDAY, May 30, 1882.

THE TRUE COURSE FOR INDEPENDENTS AND "HALF-BREEDS."

THE President's removals of Mr. R. P. Lathrop from the Internal Revenue Collectorship, and of Mr. W. N. S. Sanders from the Surveyorship of Customs at Albany, to make way for "Johnny" Luby and "Jimmy" Bentley, have almost every element of badness which it is possible for a removal to have. There is no theory of the civil service which supplies a defence for them, and least of all the President's own theory, as propounded in his late message to Congress. They oust faithful and competent officers without cause before the expiration of their terms. They put in their place tricky and disreputable political adventurers, best known as tools of the notorious John F. Smyth, whose misconduct as Superintendent of Insurance was so gross that Governor Cornell, when he renominated him, under party pressure, two years ago, found it impossible to get a faithful Republican Senate, even during the Conkling reign, to confirm him. They offend deeply that portion of the Republican party which proved to be the strongest at the last Presidential Convention and at the last Senatorial election in this State, and which, no one doubts, is strongest at the polls. In fact, it would be impossible to find a man in public life, from the President down, who could consistently defend them. Of course defenders of them can be found, but they are men who do not care about consistency, and are ready on a pinch to lie themselves out of any ordinary "corner." You might call up in succession a representative of every variety of Republican at present in existence, and show him these appointments, and though several would say they liked them, not one would say that he knew of any publicly propounded view of the mode in which administrative offices should be filled which would justify them. In fact, the only defence of them which is attempted is that old one of the late Mr. William M. Tweed, which consists in asking, "What are you going to do about it?"

The denunciation of the appointments is not of course, under these circumstances, confined to civil-service reformers, properly so called. Even that portion of the "Half-Breed" press, like the New York *Tribune*, which has no confidence in the plans of the reformers, and believes in the spoils system (under the name of "practical politics"), inveighs against the appointments in the language of reform, and with tones and gestures of indignation worthy of Mr. Dorman B. Eaton. The reasons it gives for disliking them are almost identical with those which one might hear at the rooms of the Civil-Service Reform Association. This is not surprising, considering how rapidly the public during the past three or four years has begun to perceive that public business, being the business of a body of moral, industrious, and rational beings, cannot greatly differ in its nature and methods from that of moral, industrious, and rational individuals. The perception of this now colors unconsciously nearly everything which even politicians say in describing the evils of the present system. The Half-Breed papers, in fact, in their diagnosis of the disease, cordially agree with the professed reformers, and make it known vigorously in discussing the President's present policy.

Thus far, however, they say nothing about a remedy, or, if pushed, talk about it in what must be considered a very impractical and visionary way. In fact, the only remedy to which they make any allusion is that old nurs ery panacea of "being good." They would like the President to be good, and stop removing good officers, and John F. Smyth to be good, and not push bad men for office, and "Johnny" Luby and "Jimmy" Bentley to be good, and not seek offices for which they know they are too wicked and incompetent. In fact, like Smyth, and Conkling, and Platt, and Logan, and Cameron, and all the rest of them, they seem to think it necessary, in order to get good tax collectors for the United States, to raise the whole nature of man several feet, though they always decline to say where the jackscrew is to be found which is to perform this gigantic operation.

We would now ask them once more, while their grief is still fresh and their minds impressionable, under this great Albany affliction, whether they have ever heard of any great political change for the better being effected by the simple improvement of human character, without aids in the shape of laws and regulations? Has a single governmental abuse of long standing ever been removed in any country by a simple improvement in the moral perceptions of the men who practised it or lived by it? Was slavery abolished by the slaveholders? Was the British Parliament reformed by the growth in grace of the owners of rotten boroughs? Were the scandalous abuses which formerly attended the granting of charters in this State done away with by the resolve of legislators to be pure, and of the promoters of corporations to use only honest means to accomplish their ends? Questions like these seem almost silly, and yet when one reads the comments of the Half-Breed press on the President's doings they seem almost necessary. The answer to them is obvious. Political abuses do not cure themselves. Improvement in human character does not cure them. They have to be cured by legislation, or, in other words, a mode of cure has to be provided by legislation. There never will be any end to the performances by which the President is now surprising the whole country as long as it is left in his power to make and fill vacancies as he pleases, because, as long as this power exists, the power to dismiss without cause will surely be exercised. We have now had experience enough to satisfy any reasonable person of the folly of relying on any President's good intentions, and of the absolute necessity, if we wish for a cessation of these scandals, to provide a mode of entering the service which no one can control or pervert to personal ends. This will take away the great incentive to removals without cause; for be it remembered that Messrs. Lathrop and Sanders would still be in their places if "Johnny" Luby and "Jimmy" Bentley could enter the service only through competition, and could become collectors and surveyors only by promotion. This is the moral of the whole affair. It contains no lesson about human nature, but it does contain a striking reminder of a defect in our laws.

THE REPUBLICAN INDEPENDENTS IN PENNSYLVANIA.

ALL accounts agree that the State Convention of Independent Republicans which took place in Philadelphia on May 24 was a very respectable body, in numbers as well as character; that in it almost every district in the State was represented; that it contained many Republicans of great political influence; and that it exhibited much genuine enthusiasm and unyielding determination to break down the dictatorship of the Camerons. The platform it adopted might have been more explicit, but it is a good platform as platforms go, its real value depending upon the intelligence and spirit of the men who stand behind it. The demand for civil-service reform which it contains, was cheered by the Convention with especial fervor. The Convention put forth a complete State ticket, composed of very respectable names, to run against the candidates nominated by the Cameron Convention, who claim to represent the regular Republican organization. The movement is distinctly one of revolt against boss rule, which in Pennsylvania has made itself especially obnoxious. It was not originally inspired by the desire to put into practice a definite and well-digested scheme of reform; but, the demand for such a reform scheme growing from day to day in extent and urgency, it naturally drifted into taking up that demand, and the peculiar significance of the Convention is that it made this particular object its principal one. The campaign it has initiated may therefore acquire considerable importance, if it is made one not only of exciting, but also of instructive agitation. The real capacity of the movement to leave behind lasting benefits will have to show itself in the first place in this direction.

As to the strength of the revolt, it is evident that it will be much greater than that of the "bolt" led by Mr. Wolfe last year. He polled about 50,000 votes, and would have defeated the Cameron candidates had not the Democrats weakened their own vote by turning a part of it over to Mr. Wolfe. But Mr. Wolfe was not supported by many prominent and influential Republicans who took an active part in the Convention on Wednesday. In fact, the present candidate of the Independents for the Governorship was last year one of those who deprecated Mr. Wolfe's "hasty" movement, and gave a reluctant but effective support to the "regular ticket." It is easy to see that with such accessions the Independents muster very much greater voting strength than they did a year ago, and that, although they will not be able to elect their own candidates, which, a few enthusiastic men excepted, they do not expect, they will have more than enough votes to defeat Mr. Cameron's candidates, thus permitting the election of the Democratic ticket. The Independents do not blink this issue, but frankly declare their determination to deliver the party of boss rule, and thus to regenerate it, at the expense of temporary defeat.

Some time ago Senator Mitchell of Pennsylvania asked President Arthur to withdraw the appointments asked for by Mr. Cameron, for the sake of peace in the party, but the President is said to have replied that

he had been a "practical politician" for twenty-five years, and did not understand and appreciate "abstract politics." He therefore stood by Mr. Cameron, the beau ideal of a practical politician. We wonder whether the President and Mr. Cameron, when they look at this very formidable revolt in Pennsylvania, do not begin to feel some misgivings as to the practical value of the practical politics which bring forth such very curious practical results. Here is the Senator's own colleague, Mr. Mitchell, not at all a restless theorist and innovator, nor a natural defier of the powers that be, but rather a mild and yielding sort of man, not at all inclined to step out of the regular track; and there is State Senator Stewart, an "earnest Republican," who until recently was willing to sacrifice ever so much of his personal pride and his liberal inclinations to preserve the Republican party from harm; and there are a host of others of like disposition, all, at last, actually driven to the declaration that this kind of "practical politics" must cease, and that they stand ready—earnest Republicans though they be—to defeat the Republican party again and again, until it does cease. Can it indeed be a really "practical" kind of politics that brings forth such fruit? Mr. Cameron has also occasion to reflect that when this strong opposing force, provoked by him, has actually overthrown him, which now seems inevitable, his "practical" statesmanship, confined to the manipulation of the patronage, will be entirely exhausted, and will leave him absolutely no resource to put him on his feet again. And President Arthur, studying this remarkable event, may further reflect that such movements are contagious, and that the masses of the party are just in that temper which would evolve like results from like "practical politics" in every State of the Union. There is already a little muttering of a storm observable in Massachusetts not unlikely to break out as soon as the "practical politician" of the Cameron school undertakes to put himself forward in the politics of that State.

It is reported in some of our contemporaries, we do not know upon how good authority, that when President Arthur next visits this city he will "look over the ground" with a view to many "important changes" among the officeholders, which will "make it hot" for the Half-Breeds and "renegade Stalwarts," and bring on "a lively time generally." We are curious to see what "practical" view President Arthur will take of the political situation here, for, as to the general tendency of "practical politics" to produce a "lively time," the State of New York would probably prove no exception. Some premonitory symptoms of it were observable a year ago, and there seems to be now more electricity in the air than there was then.

It is very doubtful whether the President and Senator Cameron will conceive a less contemptuous opinion of "abstract politics" than they now entertain as long as they are in office. But it is quite certain that they will when, after the expiration of their terms, they take a retrospective view of what was and what might have been. It will then certainly occur to them that "practical politics," treating the offices of the Government as political perquisites and tools of power, and concentrating that power in the hands of a few leaders—thus not only debasing and demoralizing the whole machinery of the Government, but also driving into desperate opposition a large number of men of character and influence who would prefer to be loyal partisans—are not very practical after all. Further, that the "abstract politics," which would have suggested a candid inquiry into the real needs and interests of the public service, and respectful and harmonious coöperation with that public sentiment which demands conscientious care for those needs and interests, would not have been so very "abstract" after all; but that their acceptance would have been the really practical thing, for it would have saved those who pushed it aside with contempt much trouble and humiliation, besides effectually promoting the public good.

THE REASONS WHY MR. LOWELL SHOULD BE RECALLED.

The outcry raised by some newspapers against Mr. Lowell has some very peculiar features. They demand his recall on the ground that he has not been sufficiently strenuous in defending the rights of American citizens, but they are wholly unable to name any American citizen whose rights have suffered through his negligence or timidity. Not one of them ventures to say that O'Mahoney, or McSweeny, or McEnery, or Slattery, or Brophy, or Gorman, the six American suspects, is an American citizen in good and regular standing, whose interests have not been properly looked after by Mr. Lowell, and for whose liberation we should be willing to go to war or make reprisals. This, we believe, is something unprecedented in diplomatic history. It makes the attack on Mr. Lowell very like indicting him for the murder of O'Mahoney, not because he had been murdered, but because he (Mr. Lowell) had not displayed sufficient horror at the thought of his being murdered. Mr. Lowell has not displayed any want of zeal in defence of American citizens, but he has expressed serious doubts about the bona-fide citizenship of certain persons claiming American citizenship. It is this doubt which has made all the trouble, and the funny part of the story is that his assailants share the doubt. They do not believe in Citizen O'Mahoney or Citizen McSweeny any more than he does. Nor do they maintain, as they ought to maintain in order to be consistent, that an American Minister ought not to question any man's American citizenship, and ought to accept every Irishman's "papers" as conclusive proof of his title to a certain amount of excitement on his behalf toward the British Government, in case it deprives him of his freedom. They acknowledge that no one is entitled to the patriotic fury of the American Minister in London until he has shown that he is a real and not a sham citizen, an honest man, bent on lawful business, and not a scheming knave, bent on crime.

"Oh," but they say, "Mr. Lowell offered these men a bribe to induce them to waive their claims, such as they were, to his patriotic fury and go home to the United States, this being the last place to which this class of citizens ever want to go. He actually proposed to give these estimable persons forty pounds apiece to leave their dungeons and return to their beloved country. Was anything so shamefully un-American ever done before? Think of trying to bribe the O'Mahoney, of Ballydehob, to return to the dear old land from which he had been absent during thirteen years of his fifteen years' citizenship, owing to his being engaged in the hateful business of a British taxpayer, officeholder, and grogshop-keeper." Mr. Lowell did make this offer, it is quite true, but if he was wrong in doing so, the wrong lay in being over-generous and over-ready to spend good money on very unworthy objects. His fault here was, in short, the fault, not of a diplomatist, but of a simple-minded philanthropist. In other words, he proposed to pay them for doing what the British Government had a perfect right to compel them to do, if they were American citizens, but had no right to compel them to do if they were British subjects. If the American suspects were really American, the British Government had the right to expel them peremptorily under the law of nations. All the authorities, American as well as others, are agreed on this point. Mr. Bancroft acknowledged it in his correspondence over the German-American naturalization question in 1875. In the well-known Passenger Cases decided by the United States Supreme Court, the right of sovereign States as a police power, resting on what Judge Grier called "the sacred law of self-defence," to expel "persons dangerous to the peace or morals of the community," or persons "with incendiary purposes," was acknowledged incidentally by all the nine judges. This was not the point raised in the cases, which was, whether this power was among those reserved by the States under the Constitution; but that a sovereign State had it, and could not as such deprive itself of it, all were agreed. That no treaty with a foreign power was considered by us as capable of depriving a Government of this right is shown by the fact that the Act of Congress of June 25, 1798, authorized the President to expel such aliens as "he shall judge dangerous to the peace and safety of the United States, or shall have reasonable cause to suspect are concerned in any treasonable or secret machinations against the Government thereof." This was an unpopular law, but it was not considered an unconstitutional law, or a violation of international obligation, for a treaty had been concluded with Great Britain four years before (1794) which gave the inhabitants of each country full liberty to go and come, and "remain and reside, without any limitation of time," in the other country. So that whether the American suspects were or were not American citizens, Mr. Lowell's offer of money to them to pay their expenses to the United States was at worst mistaken charity. He ought to have thought of many better uses for forty pounds than giving it to O'Mahoney and McSweeny to pay their way to these shores, because he might easily have foreseen that even if he had got them to come out here they would not have remained very long. They would in three months have been claiming again the protection of the flag in Ireland.

The "true inwardness" of the whole outcry has been very happily revealed in some interviews on the matter with Western politicians, reported by the *Herald* on Thursday. Senators Farley, Conger, Coke, and Representatives Willis and Jay Hubbell, all Western men, condemned Mr. Lowell's conduct, without describing it, but they all suggested the same remedy—giving the place to a Western man. Senators Logan and Angus Cameron were not prepared to condemn Mr. Lowell outright, but were very sure that if he was recalled his successor ought to be a Western man. The relations, commercial and other, between New and Old England are, they think, too close to make it proper to have us represented by a New Englander in London. He makes us too friendly with Great Britain. The post should be given to a man of less culture, from Illinois, or Colorado, or Kentucky, who would "make things hum" and beard the lion in his den. What this all means is of course plain enough. They doubtless hold, with Mr. Moore, of Tennessee, that a Union widow makes a very good post-office clerk for a while, but that "the existing peculiarities of our human nature" require that she ought to give way within a reasonable time to your wife's brother. In other words, they want a "new deal," and think it is time for the West to have the London mission, too long reserved to the Eastern "littery fellers." It is this which really makes O'Mahoney, of Ballydehob, seem a victim.

THE LIBRARIANS AT CINCINNATI.

ALTHOUGH the Convention of Librarians at Cincinnati may not have produced anything absolutely new, it shows a progress both in the technicalities of the art and in the higher branches of the profession. The *Saturday Review* is continually surprised to find the tiresome details of cataloguing and classification so much discussed on such occasions, forgetting that those who show this interest pass their lives in struggling with the difficulties of the art, and are naturally eager to have puzzling problems solved. In this line the most noteworthy was a very well-written and well-thought-out paper on the principles of classification, by Mr. Larned, of Buffalo. The far more important work of the Convention consisted in emphasizing the importance of the connection between the libraries and the schools, a connection which has often been spoken of during the last decade, the library being called the People's Museum, but until within five years has been rather theoretical than real. That it has come to be an actual power for good is, in a great measure, due to the experiments tried by the Public Library of Worcester, Mass. The head of that library, Mr. Green, was at Cincinnati, and in an enthusiastic address, full of interesting details, showed how the library had been made not merely to continue the literary life of the scholars after graduation—that is not new—and not merely to afford assistance to the teachers; but actually to take part in the school work, by visits of the pupils during the school hours, as a regular part of their studies on certain subjects.

The account was doubly interesting, first, as an example—one of many—that in sociology the best things do not start into existence full grown, but result from the slight progressive improvements which occur to the man who is always on the watch to supersede the good by the better; and, secondly, that an entirely new era of usefulness is dawning upon public libraries, if only men can be found capable of seizing the opportunity. It needs enthusiasm to undertake and persevere, caution not to undertake too much at the beginning, learning, tact, and a liking for the young to carry it on successfully. These qualities are rare, especially rare in combination; and without them any remarkable success is impossible. But partial success is better than nothing, and they are not likely to be so conspicuously absent as to lead to positive failure. Hereafter, if the work spreads, their possession will be one of the qualifications looked for in a librarian by those appointing bodies who think anything about qualifications.

The experiment has worked excellent results in Worcester. Excepting that Mr. Green cannot be duplicated, one does not see why the same should not be done in scores of our public libraries. It is true that this will introduce an entirely new function into the activity of public libraries, that it will add, to a work that is already somewhat expensive and is viewed with jealous eye by grudging taxpayers, another work which requires in the librarian an even higher order of ability, and will call imperatively for a greater number of assistants. But in the communities which believe heartily in education this will not be a weighty objection. Many of our cities are willing enough to pay for buildings and teachers. In this new work the librarians will be teachers, and the additional expense might well be borne by the school boards. But it will not be necessary to call upon them. When the library thus increases the range of its visible good works, it is likely that there will be less rather than more disposition to find fault with its cost.

A profitable part of these conventions has always been the private interchange of opinion and experience. On the present occasion this revealed the contrast between the Eastern and Western librarians in regard to the tenure of office and the influence of politics. In too many places in the West no length of experience, no degree of fitness for his duties, no amount of devotion to his work will retain the librarian in his post if a new party comes into power. Strangely enough, this does not seem to have prevented the choice of good officers, if one may judge by those who were present at Cincinnati; and the generally steady supremacy of the Republican party of late has allowed them a sufficiently long tenure of office to learn their trade; but we heard of one case where the Republicans succeeded the Democrats, and an officer of worth was expected to yield his place to a man without knowledge either of literature, language, or librarianship, simply because he had always "voted the Republican ticket." Fortunately the Republican papers themselves protested against the blunder and prevented it. As the result of a little inquiry among those present, it appeared that with nearly every one politics had led to his appointment or had nearly led to his dismissal, or was likely to lead to it, or had given him an incompetent school board. In the West, it should be remembered, the public libraries are generally under the charge of the school board, an arrangement which is theoretically laudable, as recognizing the connection that ought to exist between the public system of education and the public's collections of books, but practically very objectionable, as committing the charge of libraries to a body of men who care little and know less about them—men, too, who are elected for another purpose, which too often is simply that they may further the cause of the party by the use of their patronage.

THE ASSASSINATIONS IN DUBLIN.

THE EVENTS WHICH LED UP TO THEM.

LONDON, May 12.

THE expected Irish crisis was long delayed, but when at last it came, it came with a suddenness and violence which startled even those who had been best prepared. And it has not yet passed over, nor shown what its results will be. In this letter I can speak only of its earlier scenes.

For some weeks before the 2d of May it had been felt that some change in the Irish policy of the Government must take place. The Land Bill had been for six months in operation, yet outrages went on increasing, and the condition of the peasantry was in many parts of the country no better than before. Thousands were being evicted, many of whom were no doubt unable to pay up the arrears of rent incurred during the bad seasons that had preceded. As many as six hundred persons were in prison without a trial, under the special provisions of the Preservation of Person and Property Act; yet the country was no more peaceful than when that act was passed, indeed less so. The No-Rent party in the House of Commons, although deprived of the leadership of Mr. Parnell, were as bitter and aggressive as ever; the Tories complained of the Government for not keeping order in Ireland; among the Liberal majority there was a growing feeling that either the Coercion Act itself, or Mr. Forster's administration of it, or both, had been a mistake, and ought no longer to be continued. In short, everybody was disappointed and discontented, prepared for a change, though the greatest difference of opinion prevailed as to the direction in which the change should be made.

The first symptom of the coming outbreak was seen in the demand which the representative organ of the advanced section of the Liberal party made for the retirement of Mr. Forster. The next was the liberation on parole of Mr. Parnell, which, although made for a few days only, and nominally for the purpose of enabling him to attend the funeral in Paris of his sister's child, was generally taken as having some further significance. The third was the resignation of Lord Cowper, the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, and the appointment in his place of Lord Spencer, who, as having been Lord Lieutenant in former days, and as a member of the Cabinet, would naturally take a far larger share in the actual government of the country than Lord Cowper had done. Meantime a bill had been brought in by Mr. Redmond, one of the Parnellite section, for dealing with the tenants in arrears, and had been advocated by him in a speech more moderate than had for a long time been heard from any member of that section. Mr. Gladstone replied in similar tones, acknowledging the difficulty and importance of the question, as well as the conciliatory spirit evinced by the promoters of the bill, and promising that the Government would take the matter up, in the hope of helping these poor tenants—if necessary, even by loans from the national exchequer—out of their distress.

This was on the 25th of April, the day of Mr. Darwin's funeral. Two or three days later the Government announced that they would on the 2d of May, the day for which a motion by a Tory member arraigning their administration of the Coercion Act had been fixed, make a declaration regarding their Irish policy. By that evening public curiosity had been roused to the highest point. It was known that something remarkable was to take place, and the unusual incident of a Cabinet Council held in one of the rooms behind the Speaker's chair in the House of Commons at the very hour when the houses were assembling, showed that a final decision was being postponed till the latest possible moment. This decision, as you know, was that

Messrs. Parnell, Dillon, and O'Kelly, confined in Kilmainham since October last, should be forthwith released, and the Coercion Act suffered to expire on the 30th of September without being renewed. Mr. Gladstone intimated that information with regard to the views and intentions of Mr. Parnell and his friends had reached the Government which had had some influence in bringing it to this conclusion. But the most important part of his statement was that Mr. Forster had declined to share the responsibility of his colleagues in releasing the suspects and letting the Coercion Act drop, and that he had therefore resigned his office of Chief Secretary to the Lord Lieutenant.

This announcement, which was accompanied by a statement that when the rules of procedure had been despatched new Irish measures would be brought in, was received with very different feelings by different parties. The Parnellite faction, which had pursued Mr. Forster with unceasing bitterness, and charged all the faults of Irish administration upon him, was in ecstasy. The more advanced half of the Liberal party, who had always disliked the Coercion Act, and would not have voted for its renewal, were scarcely less pleased to be delivered from the necessity of separating themselves from the Government, and to see a prospect of reconciliation with the Irish party opened up. The Tories were, of course, indignant. The change of policy —for such, in spite of Mr. Gladstone's disclaimer, they insisted, and not without reason, on considering it—appeared to them a surrender. To open the doors of Kilmainham Jail to the leaders of the No-Rent party while outrages were still rife in Ireland; to proclaim that the Coercion Act would not be renewed, although there was no security for life and property over the island, seemed to them folly little short of criminal. And in these feelings a certain section of the Ministerial party joined—a section which had always valued Mr. Forster's services, and now conceived that he, in whose hands the administration of Ireland had lain for two years, was more likely to be right on so vital a question than his colleagues. However, they professed to be willing to suspend their judgment till they heard Mr. Forster's own explanation of his views and conduct—an explanation which, according to an ancient rule of etiquette, he was not at liberty to give till he had obtained the consent of the Crown. This was the first scene in the drama: it left everybody anxious—firstly, as to what the Government meant to do; secondly, as to what had been the substantial points of difference between them and their late Irish Secretary; thirdly, as to who would be appointed to fill his place and carry out the policy of the new departure. It was commonly supposed that Mr. Chamberlain, who, as the most advanced Liberal in the Cabinet, was credited, though certainly on no sufficient grounds, with being the author of the change of policy, would be entrusted with it. The Irish members openly expressed their wishes for him, the Tories were filling vials of wrath to be discharged on his head and Mr. Gladstone's.

Thus the Wednesday of this fateful week wore away, amid hopes and fears, and varying rumors, which a burning curiosity caught up. There was a great party that night at Mr. Gladstone's house, the official house, in Downing Street, of the First Lord of the Treasury. The Prince of Wales was there, and the Crown Prince of Denmark. Mr. Gladstone looked, in spite of the anxieties crowding on him, strong and hopeful. Mr. Forster, who had come to show that his separation from the Cabinet involved no breach of private friendship, was greeted with sympathy even by those who had disapproved his policy. Lord Frederick Cavendish was there, with no shadow of doom on his frank and kindly face. Distinguished Irishmen were heard expressing their belief that the condition of the country would, for a time at least, improve; some even hoped that the measures for strengthening the ordinary law in Ireland, at which the Government had hinted, might be found unnecessary. An atmosphere of hope was beginning to take the place of the gloom which had so long hung over men's minds. Next day it was announced, about noon, that Lord Frederick Cavendish had been appointed Irish Secretary. Everybody was surprised, and nearly everybody, it must be added, was disappointed. Of Lord Frederick's character and abilities I shall say something presently. Those who knew him best, knew that they justified the Prime Minister's choice. But the House of Commons, which, like every talking body, overvalues gifts of speech and manner, knew him only as an industrious and painstaking Secretary to the Treasury, a modest official who rarely spoke except in committee on matters relating to the estimates, and who spoke sensibly indeed, and with full knowledge of his subject, but neither easily nor fluently. "How," men asked, "will he defend the Government in that constant guerilla warfare which the Parnellites carry on? What administrative experience will he bring to the details of Irish work, where magistrates and police have to be instructed and controlled in duties of unexampled difficulty?" Those who defended the appointment defended it as meaning that Mr. Gladstone, who was attached to Lord Frederick by a specially close friendship, meant to be his own Irish Secretary, and bear the weight of Irish debates in Parliament.

That Thursday evening saw Mr. Forster in the House of Commons, though no longer on the Ministerial bench, and saw every corner of the House of Commons filled as it had not been on any preceding occasion since the election of 1880. The session opened by a painful passage between Mr. Dillon, who, liberated from Kilmainham on Tuesday night, had returned to take his seat, and Mr. Gladstone, with reference to the terms on which he and his two fellow-prisoners had been released, and a string of close and passionate questions pressed on Mr. Gladstone by the Tory members on the same subject. Then Mr. Forster rose to make his statement of the reasons which had caused his resignation. You know its substance. I need write only of its manner and the sentiments it evoked. He was cheered at first by the Liberals as well as the Tories, the Parnellite party alone showing their hatred by their silence. When, after declaring that he would have agreed to the release of the three "suspect" members, had it been accompanied by measures of repression, he observed that in his judgment those measures ought to have had precedence of the resolutions for reforming the procedure of the House, the remark was caught up rapturously by the Tories, whose dislike to the proposed introduction of the power of closing a debate by the majority is intense; while Mr. Gladstone gave a start of surprise and turned half round toward his late colleague behind him. When toward the close of his speech he dilated in terms of growing strength on the danger of concessions to agitation, and warned the country against paying blackmail to violence, he was cheered to the echo by the Conservative Opposition, while his own side of the House preserved for the most part an ominous silence. Mr. Gladstone then, with a calmness that had something melancholy in it, indicated the intention of the Government to bring in, as soon as the procedure resolutions were settled, measures for dealing with secret societies and generally in aid of the powers of the law, as also a measure for the relief of tenants in arrears; while Mr. Parnell, who had walked into the House during Mr. Forster's speech, in his peculiarly quiet, dry, precise manner, denied that he had been released upon any conditions whatever, and claimed for himself and his friends full liberty to deal as they thought fit with any proposal the Ministry might make. It is long since a scene so dramatic has been witnessed in our Parliament—not only because the leaders were visibly struggling to conceal their excitement, nor because the passion of the rank and file of the Tory party vented itself in interruptions which the Prime Minister was repeatedly forced to check, but because every one felt what great issues and results lay behind this sudden alteration of the attitude of parties. The Parnellites, who had for the last few weeks been joined in a scarcely-concealed alliance with the Tory party, now turned fiercely upon them and protested their friendliness to the Government, declaring that now, at last, when Mr. Forster was away and the coercion policy abandoned, all would go well in Ireland. The advanced Liberals, irritated by Mr. Forster's speech, seemed half inclined to agree with them.

But what the Government gained in one direction it was evidently likely to lose in another. No one could mistake the cloud that had settled down on the faces of what is called the Whig section of the Ministerialists, the "moderate men," the landholders, or moneyed people, who accepted with regret the Land Act of last session, and think that the rights of property are in danger. They had trusted Mr. Forster, they regretted his retirement, and held, with him, that the release of the suspects was an unworthy concession to disorder and sedition. They disapproved of any communications, anything like a negotiation, between the Ministry and the suspects. Next day their discontent took shape in the formation of what, in our political slang, are called "caves"—groups who disapprove the conduct of the Ministry, and are inclined to withdraw their support from it. Besides one from the Tory side, several Liberals gave notice of motions calling on the Government to disclose at once their measures for strengthening the law in Ireland. It was reported that the Government, recognizing the strength of this feeling, was about to soothe it by declarations to be made in the debate which the Opposition had demanded for Monday. But before Monday came, everything was changed by news which shook England as nothing has shaken it within the memory of living men—the news of the murder of the new Chief Secretary and the Under Secretary for Ireland, on the very day when the former and Lord Spencer had landed in Dublin amidst the acclamations of the people. Y.

THEIR EFFECT ON PUBLIC FEELING.

LONDON, May 13.

SUNDAY, May 6, was a day the like of which has not been known in England this century or last. We have long been so accustomed to conduct our political disputes in a peaceable way, never putting people to death, seldom even trying them for treason or sedition, wholly unused to the sight of arms and blood, thinking of all such things as lying far back in the past, that to hear of two high officials—one of them the brother of the nobleman second in command in the Liberal party—being murdered by political assassins on a summer's evening, in a public park, under the very windows of the Viceroy's residence, seemed no more credible than if we had been told that the chiefs of the Opposition had lost their heads on Tower Hill. Although policemen have for some months past watched the houses of the Prime Minister and Irish Secretary, we never could bring ourselves to think

them seriously in danger. This terrible news, therefore, was at first received with incredulity. It was not till it came with something of circumstance that its truth was admitted. It reached London on Saturday night, about 10 o'clock, but was not generally known in England till Sunday forenoon. Generally, no news, however important, makes its way on a Sunday; for few people out of London, and not many there, read a Sunday newspaper. But this was so startling that every one who heard it made haste to spread it. Most people heard it leaving church at half-past 12 o'clock; by 2 every one in the towns was apprised, and till evening the streets were in most towns full of people, moving hither and thither, thronging round the newspaper offices to inquire if anything more were known, stopping to form groups to speculate on the manner of the deed (which at first was not known) and the chances of seizing the murderers.

The first feeling was one of amazement and horror; next came anger, which increased as the horrible circumstances of the attack became known. Many people feared a general outburst of fury against Ireland and the Irish. Fortunately, we escaped this; and we escaped it not only because the English are a sensible people, capable of self-control, but also because it was plain to any one who thought about the matter that the crime must have been committed in the hope and with the wish of destroying any reviving friendliness and good feeling between the two countries, of turning the Government back from their policy of conciliation, and of thereby driving the mass of the people more and more into the arms of the desperate faction by which the murder was perpetrated. This was quickly felt; it was expressed by most of the leading organs of liberal opinion through England and Scotland; it was stated with an earnestness no one could doubt by Mr. Parnell, Mr. Dillon, and Mr. Davitt in the manifesto which they issued to the Irish nation. One may say, on the whole, that the English people bore the shock with a calmness and firmness worthy of their history and their freedom. But there were also in some quarters furious cries raised for general and reckless vengeance, for martial law, the proclamation of a state of siege in Dublin, and other such desperate and useless remedies. One prominent organ went so far as to make the assassination the ground for a political attack on the Government, and many Conservative papers held that it justified Mr. Forster's view of the situation, though they forgot that the Coercion Act was still in force, and that the crime, so far from being done in the interest of the three members who had just been released against Mr. Forster's advice, was obviously the greatest misfortune that could have befallen them and that more moderate section of the Nationalist party to which they belong. Nothing did more to allay the passion which the first news had excited than the calm and pathetic attitude of the nearest relatives of the murdered Chief Secretary. They were the first to entreat that the crime should not be charged on the Irish people as a whole, and to express the hope that England would not gratify the assassins by letting herself be turned from the path of sympathy and conciliation A letter, written by the widow of Lord Frederick (a daughter of the late Lord Lyttleton, and a niece of Mrs. Gladstone), which Lord Spencer, the new Lord Lieutenant, read to a meeting at Dublin, produced a profound impression, and deserves, for its simple dignity and noble self-forgetfulness, to go down to posterity with the narrative of these strange and terrible events.

Of Lord Frederick Cavendish himself, whose tragic end would give him a place in history, even had his abilities been far inferior to what they were, a few words must be said. He was a retiring and modest man, whose apparent diffidence of his own powers made people rate him below his real value. He was not a fluent speaker, and in the place he filled was seldom required to make set speeches, so that the world at large, and even the House of Commons, knew him but slightly. Every one who saw something of him in society, or had to do business with him, could not but like him, there was something so genuine and upright in his character—so much simplicity, so much kindliness, such an evident desire to do what was right irrespective of any personal interests. He was very careful and thorough as an official, understanding his work perfectly, and discharging it with steady, unobtrusive zeal. But the quality which chiefly recommended him for the difficult post of Irish Secretary was the singular fairness of his judgment. With him it was a moral as well as an intellectual quality, and being united with great candor and self-forgetfulness, it would have enabled him to learn how things really stood in Ireland, and to keep from falling into the hands of any one set of advisers, while at the same time his sterling goodness of heart would have made itself appreciated by those who came in contact with him. It is not, therefore, merely that compassion and sorrow which now naturally gather round him that have made men feel how much was lost in his death, but a recognition of the presence in him of qualities which would have been more helpful in the actual administration of the country than eloquence or skill in debate.

His funeral in the churchyard of Edensor, a tiny village close to Chatsworth, in Derbyshire, the famous country seat of his father, the Duke of Devonshire, was the most remarkable England has seen since the burial of the Princess Charlotte. The valley in which Chatsworth stands is one of the loveliest in England, and on this bright May day all the trees were in fresh and tender green, and a spring sun was bathing the hillsides in the richest and softest light. Three hundred members of the House of Commons, with some peers and the officials of the Treasury, had come down from London, 140 miles, by a special train, which was greeted with silent marks of respect and sympathy at every station which it passed, the people crowding the platforms and even climbing on the bridges to watch it sweep past. In Chatsworth Park a prodigious crowd of people—some estimated the number at 50,000—had gathered from the towns of Lancashire and Yorkshire, and lined the path which the funeral procession took from Chatsworth House to the church, all standing bareheaded and perfectly silent. Scarcely a policeman was to be seen, for no such gathering had been expected; but the most perfect order and decorum reigned. It was a real national mourning for men who had fallen in the service of their country just as truly as if they had been defending its shores against an invader. The very depth and universality of the feeling displayed seemed to sober men's minds, and since that day less violent language has been heard, and people have come to feel that the Irish question must be dealt with in a cool and judicial way. The sympathy shown in America has been gratefully received, and though there have been discordant manifestations in some parts of Ireland, the great mass of the Irish people seems to be filled with indignation and shame. No words have been used there similar to those which we have been astonished to read reported from the Irish meeting in New York, nor is this owing merely to the fact that men might be afraid to express their true sentiments too openly on this side the ocean. The extreme section of the Nationalist party, the section which advocates assassination, and, as we now learn, uses it, is believed to be extremely small in Ireland, and might almost be disregarded if it were not encouraged and supported from abroad.

The very night of Lord F. Cavendish's funeral saw the recommencement of our party strife here; but this, with the singular scenes of the present week, is a subject too long for the present letter. Y.

THE CORRESPONDENCE OF GEORGE SAND.

PARIS, May 12, 1882.

THE first volume of the 'Correspondence of George Sand,' the only one which has yet appeared,* extends from 1812 to 1836. It enters at once *in medias res;* there is not a word of introduction, not a biographical notice, not even an indication of the name of the person who has undertaken the work of collecting and publishing the letters. With the French public, to be sure, George Sand needs no introduction. She has lived before our eyes, so to speak; she has lived in her works, as her novels are the mirror of her changing passions and emotions. What a worker she was! The collection of her works contains no less than 105 volumes; and all these 105 volumes were written, in one sense, with her blood—they are all full of her emotions, of her hopes, of her fancies, of her troubles.

The 'Correspondance' begins in 1812, when Mlle. Aurore Dupin was eight years old. The letters are written at Nohant, which is near La Châtre; it was then the estate of Madame Dupin de Francueil, and it became afterward the favorite sojourn of Madame Sand. Mlle. Dupin was married very young to M. François Casimir Dudevant, and she had her first child, Maurice, in 1823; her eldest sister was married to a M. Cazamajou. In 1825 she made a journey to the Pyrenees. Her love of nature was there well satisfied: "Such is my enthusiasm over the Pyrenees that I shall think for the rest of my life of mountain torrents, grottos, precipices." She makes long descriptions for her mother, in which you can already find the writer. We find also her character already developed in many letters. For example, speaking of a friend who led a bad life: "—— will always be dear to me, however unfortunate he may become. He is already unfortunate, and the more so he becomes, the less interest he will inspire—such is the rule of society. As for myself, I shall repair his misfortunes as far as in me lies. He will find me when others turn their back on him; and, even if he sank as low as his brother, I should still love him from compassion, after having ceased to love him from esteem." This is the true George Sand already—a heart open to compassion, capable of great faults, but, on the whole, noble and generous. "If I were a man," said she, "I would, having the will to serve him, answer for him; but, being a woman, what I can get from him is nullified by the difference of sex, of position—by a thousand things which thwart my intentions." This letter certainly shows an active sort of charity. Madame Sand was, in truth, always a good and devoted friend; she sinned more against herself than against others.

The society of La Châtre, where Madame Sand spent the winter, was very exclusive. "You know," she writes to a friend, "that there are here seven or eight sets which never mix together. You know, also, that Périgny and myself, who make a pretence of being philosophers, invite everybody. I do not receive this year; but he has begun. The first evening passed off tolerably well, except that the most *huppées* [the proudest] were stupefied at seeing themselves amalgamated with what they call the *canaille*,

* 'George Sand. Correspondance. 1812-1876.' Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.

though this *canaille* is as good as they. The music-master and his wife, who is very nice, caused a great indignation, and the good souls said that Périgny was polite to the musician in order to economize five francs for his soirée." She goes on to say that at the next soirée nobody came except herself and the music-master. Such a society was a little too narrow for a person like Madame Sand.

She had a daughter, whom she named Solange; and her son Maurice, whom she educated herself at first, was coming to the age when he must have a tutor. She chose M. Jules Boucoiran, who remained ever afterward an intimate friend of the family. Boucoiran was still a very young man; and Madame Sand's letters to him, when she was away from Nohant, are very interesting, full of good sense, of good advice, and of affection. She treated him like a mother, and in fact she always was motherly toward all men, even toward those who afterward became her lovers.

The Revolution of 1830 caused a great agitation at Nohant, for Madame Sand had relations in Paris. She had an uncle who was inspector of the King's household. This uncle was married, and had a daughter. So far, she had taken no interest whatever in politics; she was essentially domestic, though she was not provincial; she had friends, and was devoted to them. She was afraid at first of the Revolution of 1830; her pacific *pays* was agitated: there were troubles at Bourges, at Issoudun, even at La Châtre. Still she writes to her mother: "I am not disposed to be afraid of the dark future which is painted for us. Fear magnifies everything; and these sanguinary men are, seen from near, half the time mere drunkards, who become merry with wine, and who will kill nobody. They make much noise and do little harm; still, I am glad you are not in Paris."

She took more interest in what was then called the Romantic movement, and she wrote "Romantic" epistles to her friends, ridiculing the style of the new school. In September, 1830, there came a great crisis in her life. Up to that date we see no allusion in her letters to any domestic differences with M. Dudevant, her husband; but in a letter to M. Jules Boucoiran, of the 3d of December, 1830, we learn that in looking in her husband's secretary she found a package to her address. There was written on it: "Open only after my death." "I had not," said she, "the patience to wait till I should be a widow. With a health like mine, I cannot hope to survive anybody. Besides, I imagined my husband dead, and I was curious to know what he thought of me during his lifetime. The package being addressed to me, I had the right to open it without indiscretion." This is very strange reasoning, and Madame Sand says more than she intends when she makes such a confession. Her curiosity was rewarded. "Good God!" says she, "what a will! Maledictions, and that was all. He had concentrated there all his ill humor, all his anger against me, all his reflections on my *perversity*, all his sentiments of contempt for my character." She drew her conclusions rapidly: she said to herself that it was needless for her to live with a man who had for her neither esteem nor confidence. She took her decision "irrevocably." She said to her husband: "I want a pension. I will go to Paris; my children will remain at Nohant." "This," she adds, "about the children was a feint. I have not the slightest idea of abandoning my children." She proposed to live six months of the year in Paris and six months at Nohant. "Hitherto he has treated me as if I were odious to him. Now that I am sure of it, I am going away." But she wished to return whenever it suited her and whenever the children required it. She implored Boucoiran to leave Paris, where he had a good place, to return to Nohant and take care of her little Maurice.

She arrived in Paris in January, 1831. She had the consolation of knowing that the good Boucoiran had returned to Nohant, and was acting there the part of a mother. She launched herself at once on the stormy sea of literature. She was not rich, she wanted more money, and she had something in her which could not be controlled. This is the time when the acquaintance of Madame Dudevant with Jules Sandeau began. Sandeau was younger than she. They wrote together, Sandeau signing the articles. She soon adopted his name, Sand, as she did not wish to write anything under the name of her husband. The letters to Boucoiran are full of her projects, of her hopes, of her disappointments. "I am resolved to follow the literary career. Though I am often disgusted, though days of laziness and of fatigue interrupt my work, I feel that my existence is now fixed: I have a task; I have a passion." She wrote for the *Revue de Paris*, for the *Mode*, for the *Artiste*, for *Figaro*. "If you knew what it is! But one is paid seven francs the column; and with that one eats, drinks, and even goes to the play." She had truly the soul of an artist, of a Bohemian: she amused herself everywhere. She had no expensive tastes; she simplified herself, as the Russians say. In April, 1831, she made a visit to Nohant, and she lived there for about two months; then she returned to Paris. We see her now more and more interested in politics; she saw chiefly men, and men who had their fortunes to make, and who were in the Opposition. Her elastic nature took the bent of her *entourage*. There was also in her a born rebel; she hated instinctively all social laws and all control.

In September, 1831, we find Madame Sand again at Nohant, where she took the part of a preceptor for the children, and continued to write novels. She returned to Paris in April, 1832, taking her daughter Solange with her. 'Indiana' appeared in July, 1832. "The success of 'Indiana' frightens me. Until now I had thought my work of no consequence and not deserving any attention. Fate has ordered otherwise; I must now justify the unmerited admiration of which I am the object. This disgusts me with my career; it seems to me that I shall have no more pleasure in writing." The success of 'Indiana' was indeed extraordinary. This novel is full of the warmest descriptions of passion. The glorification of love—of material as well as ideal love—had never been so candidly made. The style was magnificent, rich, abundant; it had something of the best style of Rousseau. The philosophy of 'Indiana' was the philosophy of self-indulgence: love justifies itself, and it ought not to be controlled. Madame Sand professed the "droit à l'amour" as the Socialists afterward professed the "droit au travail."

After 'Indiana' she began 'Valentine,' which is in the same mood. She worked with a sort of curious ardor mixed with disgust. "I have to put all my heart and all my energy on sheets of paper. My soul is at the printer's, my faculties are in the proof-reader's hands. Dreadful life! the days when I live in this way I cannot live for myself. It is perhaps my good fortune; for, abandoned to myself, I should live too much. In two days I shall finish 'Valentine,' or I shall be dead." She sold 'Valentine' for four thousand francs. The *Revue des Deux Mondes* bought it. "I have sold myself to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for a yearly rent of four thousand francs—thirty-two pages of writing every six weeks." This arrangement made her a slave, but it gave her material independence. It was possible in 1832 for a woman to live in Paris on four thousand francs a year. With all her defects, Madame Sand was proud, and determined to earn her own living. She was now famous. 'Valentine' placed her at once at the front of the Romantic school.

Correspondence.

THE SHIRT AND FORK QUESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have a friend who is in the habit of saying that when the *Nation* has exhausted every other form of invective it ends by accusing a man of having no sense of humor. Does not Mr. Matthew Arnold call for this last resort by way of castigation when he takes the *Nation's* statement, that not one man in a hundred thousand in America changes his shirt more than once a week or eats with a fork, as a piece of statistical information? I.

Baltimore, May 24, 1882.

[We think he does. The statement was a hyperbolical illustration, and as applicable to England as America. But we have all along been ready to make large concessions in the way of increasing the proportion of men who change their shirts more than once a week—to make them one in a thousand for instance—in answer to respectful remonstrance from any quarter.—Ed. Nation.]

MR. ISAAC L. RICE ON RICARDO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I cannot refrain from expressing my astonishment at the extended and respectful consideration which the *Nation* has thought fit to bestow on Mr. Isaac L. Rice's childishly ridiculous attack upon Ricardo's doctrine of rent, in the June number of the *North American Review*. Certainly he has been handled with a very un-*Nation*-like gentleness; and if the matter in question were a personal or unimportant one, this would make little difference. But I feel that a journal of the weight and standing of the *Nation* does much harm in admitting by implication that such an argument as Mr. Rice's has anything in it which deserves to be seriously considered; just as a merely respectable weekly would do harm among the masses if it were quietly and respectfully to examine the arguments brought forward by one of the periodical disbelievers in the rotundity of the earth.

I do not wish to commit the very error I have just been deprecating, but I think it will not be amiss to quote one passage—out of very many—which may serve to measure Mr. Rice's clearness of vision in the field of political economy:

"But Ricardo himself has a confused notion of his own fundamental proposition. After repeatedly calling attention to the fact that, when he speaks of rent, he invariably speaks of what is paid to the landlord for the use of the original and indestructible powers of the soil, and after declaring emphatically that what is paid for the use of the capital which has been employed in ameliorating the quality of the land is not rent, he flies in the face of all this by asserting, in a note to chapter xviii. of his work, that as for the capital which has been expended in the 'improvement of a farm' and is 'inseparably amalgamated with the land, and tends to increase its productive powers, the remuneration paid to the landlord for its use is strictly of the nature of rent, and is subject to all the laws of rent.' By what magic this capital is converted into an original and indestructible power of the soil Ricardo fails to explain."

Of course Ricardo fails to explain; rightly judging that any one who could not perceive, by his own unaided powers, that what has been

"inseparably amalgamated with the land" thereafter affects landlord and tenant in precisely the same manner as if it had pertained to the land from the beginning of the world, would hardly be fitted to profit by an explanation.

Yours, very respectfully, X.

BALTIMORE, May 28, 1882.

[Our correspondent will, we trust, bear in mind that the periodical in which Mr. Rice's article appeared is not an obscure weekly newspaper whose opinions are *prima facie* to be rated as frivolous and inconsequential. Mr. Rice's article in the columns of a Greenback-Labor organ would call for different treatment from that accorded to the same article appearing in the pages of the *North American Review*.—ED. NATION.]

MR. LOWELL AND THE AMERICAN SUSPECTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the controversy over the proposed recall of Mr. Lowell, some of the newspapers have displayed the most unpardonable carelessness in putting forward declarations of alleged principles of international law, and statements of fact, which the most cursory examination will show to be absolutely without foundation. A country weekly, without the resources of a large library at its command, may perhaps be pardoned for vague generalizations upon this subject for want of the means of verifying or correcting its assertions. But that a representative of the metropolitan press should be found laying down as general principles statements which an examination of the records of our State Department and the authorities on international law show to be absurd, is inexcusable.

The *World*, for example, in the citations by which it pretends to support the allegation that Mr. Lowell has proved himself "ludicrously ignorant of the first principles of public law," displays itself an ignorance which is not only ludicrous, but highly culpable in a paper which prates, as the *World* does, with an air of authority, upon diplomatic practice and the law of nations. Take, for instance, the assertion that Mr. Lowell, by offering to pay the return expenses of an imprisoned "suspect," on his acceptance of a release upon condition of his returning to the United States, was guilty of an attempt to bribe an American citizen to forego certain of his rights. In point of fact, the proposed settlement was in accordance with repeated diplomatic practice. When Bergen and Ryan were arrested in Ireland in 1848, their release was finally accepted on condition of their leaving Ireland. In the famous Koszta dispute with Austria in 1853, which Mr. Cox, of New York, cites as "a valuable precedent and brilliant illustration" of what he calls "the staunch diplomacy of the past," the basis of compromise was an agreement that Koszta should be shipped to the United States, Austria reserving the right to proceed against him in event of his return. We insisted upon the right of conditional release only, in 1863, when Francis Carroll, a British subject confined on suspicion of complicity with Rebel plots, was released only on his agreement to leave the United States, or give bonds for his conduct. Finally, Mr. Seward himself suggested this course in his instructions to Mr. Adams, in 1866, when he wrote:

"You will be expected to suggest to Lord Clarendon the expediency of the exercise of clemency to the extent, at least, of releasing all of the American citizens, native or naturalized, who are in confinement, upon the condition of their returning to the United States. . . . While such a proceeding on the part of the British Government would seem to be an entirely safe one, it cannot be doubted that it would have a tranquillizing effect here."

If the *World* will take the trouble to examine our diplomatic correspondence during the years when questions of disputed nationality have arisen between the United States and other countries, it will find that it has been our custom to pay the expenses home of such prisoners, when released upon condition of their returning to the United States, and when they did not themselves have the means to pay. (Dip. Cor. 1868. Mr. Adams to Mr. Seward, April 22, 1868.) It should be remarked, by the way, that Mr. Lowell's offer of £40 to such of the "suspects" as might accept a release on these terms was made *after* he had received instructions from the Secretary of State, "if requisite, to draw on the Department of State for $200 per man for all such American citizens as might be released and might need the means of reaching home." (Mr. Frelinghuysen to President Arthur, May 22, 1882.)

A great outcry has been made because of the "monstrous notion upon which Mr. Lowell owns to having acted as a minister, that an adopted citizen of the United States cannot 'prolong' his residence in the land of his birth 'without an extinction of his acquired and a renewal of his original allegiance.'" What Mr. Lowell really said, in his despatch to Secretary Frelinghuysen, May 4, 1882, was this:

"The United States have from the first justly insisted on and have finally established the principle of the right of expatriation; but when a man has completed the process of expatriating himself and returns to the land of his birth, I should be glad to be instructed how far his residence there may be prolonged without an extinction of the acquired and a revival of the original allegiance."

The language used by Mr. Lowell in this request for instructions shows plainly enough his familiarity with that portion of the diplomatic history of our Government bearing upon the point toward which his query is directed, and of which, it is to be inferred, his assailants are entirely ignorant. After the discussion that followed the Fenian arrests of 1866–7, and the submission of the report of the Banks Committee to the House of Representatives in 1869, we entered into treaty stipulations with various powers relating to questions of nationality. Many of these treaties, notably those with the North German Union (1868), Mexico (1871), and Norway and Sweden (1869), included clauses aimed at just such a state of facts as that covered by Mr. Lowell's inquiry, in which it was agreed that a renewal of residence by the naturalized person in the mother country without the intention of returning should work a renunciation of the acquired and a renewal of the native allegiance; and that two years' such residence should be accepted as presumptive evidence of the intent to abandon the acquired naturalization. Such a contingency, moreover, was suggested to our Government, and opinions given upon it, by the members of General Grant's Cabinet in 1873. The President submitted to the principal officers of each of the executive departments, in that year, a series of questions relating to the proper attitude to be assumed by the Government toward such persons as might claim its protection in a foreign country as citizens of the United States. One of those questions read as follows:

"IV. Ought the Government to hold itself bound to extend its protection, and consequently exert its military and naval power for such protection, in favor of persons who have left its territories and who reside abroad without an apparent intent to return to them, and who do not contribute to its support?"

To this the Secretary of War replied:

"Such a residence abroad, accompanied by no avowed, known, or apparent intent to return, would constitute a *prima-facie* case of expatriation which would justify the Government in withholding its protection until explained away and overcome by counter satisfactory testimony." (Opinions relating to Expatriation, etc., p. 40. Government Printing Office, Washington, 1873.)

The answer of the Attorney-General, concurred in by the Postmaster-General, was to the same effect, and the gist of the opinions delivered by the rest of the Cabinet was to the effect that acts on the part of the naturalized citizen, sojourning in a foreign land, inconsistent with the idea of a return to the United States, freed this country from the obligation of protection.

Many other facts and official declarations of such a character as ought to influence diplomatic conduct might be cited in support of Mr. Lowell's position on these two points at least. But I think I need not trespass further upon your space and your good nature by the offer of cumulative evidence to prove the inaccuracy, to use no harsher term, of the statements alluded to above. I trust I shall not seem impertinent when I venture to suggest that the *World*, the *Sun*, and perhaps the *Herald*, too, would do well to consult the following, by way of preparation, before pursuing this discussion further: Opinions relating to Expatriation, etc., Washington, 1873; United States Diplomatic Correspondence for 1861, '63, '65, '66, '67, and 1868; and United States Consular Regulations, sections 109, 110, 111.

GEORGE WALTON GREEN.

NEW YORK, May 29, 1882.

Notes.

PORTER & COATES, Philadelphia, will print an American edition of 'Three in Norway, by Two of Them,' an illustrated volume.

A. Williams & Co., Boston, have in press a large pamphlet, elegantly printed, embodying the proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society with reference to the deaths of Longfellow and Emerson. Photographic portraits of both these eminent men will accompany it, and the edition will be small.

Ginn & Heath, Boston, publish immediately a third edition of "The True Key to Ancient Cosmology and Mythical Geography," a thin pamphlet, by President W. F. Warren, of the Boston University.

'Harper's Handbook for Travellers in Egypt and the East' has at last burst the bounds of a single volume, and is now much more commodiously distributed in three, of which the first and third are well grouped, geographically and for purposes of travel; the second containing, besides Switzerland and the Tyrol, Russia, Spain, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, or the less-visited parts of Europe. The already abundant supply of maps and plans has been enlarged, and the customary annual revision made. Though space has been left for additions, it is less easy to make these than corrections in the stereotyped plates. To this circumstance, perhaps, we owe (to choose a trifling example) the failure to insert in the text any mention of the Alexandrian obelisk on the Thames Embankment, or even to indicate its location on the map. But this work, being now in its twenty-first year, has come of age, and is exempted from minute research for flaws. A peculiarity of it is its recommendation, not only of hotels, but of tradesmen—a delicate service, but a real one when the traveller's interest and not the tradesman's is consulted.

From the Messrs. Appleton we have the latest volume of their 'Annual Cyclopædia,' that for 1881. It can hardly be necessary to characterize afresh this convenient and, we might say, indispensable summary. All the States of the Union and all the leading countries of the globe

have articles devoted to their yearly progress, and on this side the Cyclopædia becomes a current gazetteer. Then there are biographical notices consequent on sudden eminence, such as Gambetta's short-lived Premiership, or on death, as in the case of President Garfield. Obituaries supplement this department. Astronomy, Chemistry, Engineering, Physiology, etc., group the salient discoveries and achievements under each head. The religious denominations have their articles, and under Presbyterians one may read of the persecution of Professor Robertson Smith. Literature, American and foreign, is reviewed. The debates of Congress are digested, and certain public documents printed in full. The Bimetallic Conference; the Atlanta and Paris (Electrical) Expositions; the London Medical Congress; the New Testament Revision; the Panama Canal; the Electoral Count; Guiteau's Trial, with articles on Presidential Inability and Disability, and on Insanity as a Defence for Crime, are specimens of the topics which represent the past year in this chronicle. Besides portraits of President Arthur, Mr. Blaine, and Gambetta, there are numerous colored maps, illustrating the population statistics of the late Census.

In compliance with a request from the collectors' committee of the Longfellow Memorial Association, the Publisher of the *Nation* will receive, and transmit to the Treasurer, any dollar subscriptions that may be forwarded to him for that purpose.

J. C. Morison & Co., 86 South Street, send us a tasteful souvenir of the ill-fated *Jeannette*. A view of the ship itself, apparently from a water-color drawing, is surrounded by eight photographic portraits of officers and other members of the expedition, the whole reproduced by the artotype process.

In the *Bibliographer* for May (J. W. Bouton), Dr. W. A. Greenhill makes a contribution to the bibliography of Browne's 'Religio Medici'—MSS. and printed books. He feels doubtful if he has named all the American editions; and in fact, both here and in his charming edition of the work published by Macmillan in 1881, there is no allusion to Roberts Bros.' (Boston) edition of 1878.

The Mercantile Library of Peoria, Illinois, having been consolidated with the Public Library of that place, the latter now reckons some 20,000 volumes, and, as a sign of new life, has begun the publication of a monthly bulletin called the *Library News*. Its bibliographical portion shows the influence of the discussions and consensus of the body of librarians of this country since they began to have an organization and a mouthpiece.

Some of our readers may not need to be reminded of the existence and worth of the bi-monthly *Revue Historique* (Paris: Germer Baillière et Cie.), one of the most learned, candid, and serious historical journals published anywhere. Besides its original essays and elaborate book reviews, and its *bulletins* for the several countries, a singularly valuable department is the summary of the (historical) contents of periodicals. Here we are not put off with a barren list of subject and author, but to each article is appended in parenthesis a brief characterization —sometimes a word, like "bon," "important," "intéressant," sometimes a sentence of several lines by way of criticism or of special indication. The *Revue* is now in its 19th volume.

Parts 28–31 of Ebers's 'Egypt,' translated by Clara Bell, complete the two volumes of this beautiful and delightful work, the offspring of profound learning and of exceptional literary gifts; popular in its style, yet too costly in its manufacture for the many. The magnificent illustrations are unstinted to the end. Dr. Samuel Birch furnishes an introduction to the translation, essaying a rapid sketch of Egyptian history and of the revival of Egyptology as a result of the French conquest. Prof. Ebers himself adds a preface to the second volume, referring to the recent political transformations, and saying what good word he can for Ismaïl Pasha, and speaking hopefully of the present Khedive. Indexes, title-pages, etc., are furnished with these last instalments.

Koolman's slow-moving 'Wörterbuch der Ostfriesischen Sprache' (Norden: Braams) arrives, with its fourteenth and fifteenth parts and 720th page, at the word *pîrer*. A large proportion of the words in these numbers have intimate relations with English forms, and, as usual, the etymologies are suggestive even when frankly hypothetical. That of *paradîs* (paradise) may be compared with Skeat's in his new 'Etymological Dictionary,' and in his correction in the *Academy* some three months ago. The proverbial and colloquial illustrations are again numerous and often of a quaint humor. The following rule of conduct hardly needs a gloss for English readers: "Beter junk lôpen un old faren, as junk faren un old lôpen."

Die Wespen, one of the best comic papers of North Germany, edited by Julius Stettenheim, now appears as a weekly supplement to the Berliner *Boersen-Courier*.

—The Palmer family is to meet again at Stonington this summer. Last year the gathering was almost impromptu; now there is a Palmer Reunion Association, with a full list of officers, including a Treasurer, a Chaplain, and a Grand Marshal. The membership is open to any respectable descendant, "paternal or maternal," of the Palmer lineage, and there is nothing in the constitution to prevent the collateral descendants, of either sex, from being chosen to direct the Association; but the present Board is wholly male and Palmer. The permanence of the spirit of reunion is greatly favored by the charms of Stonington and its vicinity as a seaside resort. The Western branches, who naturally seek the salt water in the heat of summer, will doubtless time their flight to Newport, Westerly, Watch Hill, or New London, so as to have a share in the Palmer hand-shaking and picnicking. Moreover, the proceedings of last year have all been set down in a book of some 300 pages (Jamaica, L. I., N. Y.: Noyes F. Palmer), where also are to be found artotype illustrations of places and persons—a veritable portrait-gallery—brief biographies, much genealogical information, and even a necrology of Palmers deceased since the first meeting. There is an "alphabetical arrangement of places where some of the descendants of Walter Palmer have lived," and a list of "celebrated Palmers," classified by occupation—as, General Grant among the Army officers, Senator David Davis among the judges, General John M. Palmer and Senator Pendleton among State governors; Professor D. C. Eaton, the sculptor Palmer, the maker of Palmer's artificial limbs, the inventor of the Gatling gun, ex-Speaker Elisha Grow—the wealthy, the long-lived, the large-family Palmers (twelve children was the example of the founder, Walter Palmer), and so forth. "Grandmother Palmer" passed away in January. She was the ultimate cause of the reunion, though her own habits were so far unsocial or ungaddish that "during the period of a quarter of a century she left her house to visit her neighbors but two or three times." Her grandson doubts "if she beheld a locomotive more than two or three times, though hearing the whistle daily." She was brought up in the Baptist faith. "Near my birthplace," wrote this old lady, "were high ledges of huge rocks, which mother said were rent asunder when Christ was crucified, which in our infancy [*circa* 1800] created no little interest for the great God of Heaven and Earth." There is much else that is curious and instructive in this volume.

—After the death of Freiligrath, six years ago, it seemed probable that the interesting library of Germany's "poet of democracy" would share the usual fate of dispersion by auction, and in 1878 a catalogue was printed preparatory to a sale. Mr. J. M. Sears, of Boston, arranged for the purchase of the entire collection, and soon after its arrival in this country entrusted the making of a suitable catalogue to the care of Mr. J. L. Whitney. Mr. Whitney has just completed his task, and the result is an unusually attractive specimen of this sort of bibliography ('Catalogue of the Library of J. Montgomery Sears, including the poetical library of Ferdinand Freiligrath.' Cambridge: John Wilson & Son, pp. vi., 330. 4to). Its alphabetical arrangement by authors, a clear typography, and hand-made paper set off its contents very handsomely. Freiligrath was no bibliomaniac, and consequently his library was not composed entirely or mainly of works of inestimable rarity—in the dealers' sense; indeed, his vicissitudes of fortune would hardly have permitted such indulgence. But he had a certain literary second-sight, which enabled him to foresee the future value of some books, perhaps lightly esteemed at the time. As a consequence, though always remaining a poor man, as book-buyers go, he gradually gathered about him an unusually valuable and desirable collection. Its chief strength lies in the works of German and English authors of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, particularly in the department of poetry. The catalogue gives the titles of one hundred and twenty-seven different editions of Goethe and Schiller, the difficulty of duplicating which any one acquainted with these matters can appreciate. While drudging at his clerk's desk in London, Freiligrath learned to know the poetry of Burns, and the result was not only some of his best efforts at translation, but a precious collection of the early editions of that poet's works. A look through the titles shows how fortunate he was in finding many rarities of Milton, Byron, Shelley, and some other poets. These shrewd purchases, and doubtless gifts from generous friends, besides carefully-preserved presentation copies from various sources, as far back as 1841 numbered fifteen hundred, and at the time of his death reached a total of nearly five thousand volumes—as a whole, an exceptionally fine gathering of literature for a man placed as Freiligrath was, and considering the intrinsic merit which his delicacy as a poet seemed to demand in a book. In this respect the absence of what are conveniently classified in the phraseology of catalogues as "Facetiæ" is very noticeable. These treasures he carried with him, wherever he chanced to be driven by the political agitations of his times. A genuine book-lover, Freiligrath could hardly have wished for a happier destiny for his cherished volumes than their present appropriate resting-place in this country, to which, it will be remembered, he had serious hopes of emigrating when he was recalled by the Revolution of 1848.

—The same refinement of taste that guided him in his choice of books is shown in the picture of Freiligrath's life and friendships presented in Wilhelm Büchner's two volumes ('Ferdinand Freiligrath. Ein Dichterleben in Briefen.' Lahr: M. Schauenburg. 1882. 2 vols. 8vo). The poet in his younger days always found the house of the Büchner family in Darmstadt an hospitable one, and there began an intimacy of thirty years' duration. Hence the work intrusted to him by Freiligrath's widow of giving order and consistency to the correspondence, and of making it

the groundwork of a biography, would seem to have devolved fitly upon Herr Büchner. He has, however, been somewhat unfortunate in his execution of this task, and shows a lack of good literary judgment in giving to his natural enthusiasm for the subject a certain adulatory effect, and in retaining too much of the unimportant correspondence—a common enough defect in biographies of this kind. But the letters themselves, of course, make the chief interest of the book, and the reader of them needs no assurance that letter-writing with Freiligrath was not an obligation which must be paid to a friend, in a half-hearted way, but a congenial labor, in which appear unreservedly all the moods of a poet's nature. Great as is the charm of looking into the domestic life of such a man, it is somewhat disappointing not to find more about his acquaintance with his contemporaries in literature, in particular during his long sojourns in London; but judging from the letters given, he passed these periods in much seclusion. This is strange, considering the friendliness with which he was regarded by the brightest literary men in England and America. It is a regrettable fact that, with the exception of some versions of single poems scattered through the *Athenæum* and through several of the English magazines, finally collected and edited by his daughter in 1869, Freiligrath's poetry has not been made known very extensively to English literature. The translator of some of our best poetry, he deserves to be judged in the language of the land of his refuge, as he calls England, by his lyrics, thought by one critic (Justin McCarthy) to be the most picturesque poetry of our age; and also by his stirring patriotic verses, on account of which he narrowly escaped imprisonment. Goethe's fear that the politician may absorb the poet was not confirmed in Freiligrath's case, for he continued his literary pursuits even after his honorable retirement at Cannstadt. Perhaps these new volumes, unsatisfactory as they are in some respects, may freshen the interest in his writings, as they can hardly fail to do in the manly record of his life.

—From a printed circular lately received, we learn that each year, as the result of a bequest to the Royal Netherland Academy of Sciences (Academia Regia Disciplinarum Neerlandica) for that purpose, a prize of 200 florins is offered for the best Latin ode of not less than fifty lines. This ode must be original, and must be handed or sent in, by the 1st of January, 1883, to Johan C. G. Boot, of the "Ordo litterarius" of this Academy, at Amsterdam, in Holland. A motto or sentiment is to be added to the ode, and repeated in a sealed envelope containing the name and residence of the writer. The contesting poems will be opened and read in the following March, and the one winning the prize and any others worthy of honorable mention will, with the consent of the authors, be printed, while the remainder will be destroyed (*comburentur*). The contest appears to be open to all comers. On the 15th of March last, at a meeting of the "Ordo litterarius," ten poems were offered in competition. Of these one was ruled out for its brevity, five others were mediocre, and a seventh not much better; the eighth was commended as an ode likely to please the man of literary tastes; the ninth was regarded as worthy of the prize, but was excelled by one other, from Freiburg, Switzerland, which accordingly took the palm.

—The language of ancient Etruria, the Etruscan or Tuscan, of which only exceedingly scanty remains exist—in inscriptions, mostly sepulchral, containing little more than names, and on a pair of ivory dice, on which the first six numerals can be read—has long challenged the ingenuity of philologists in regard to its classification. It has been classed by different critics as Italic, Celtic, Germanic, Slavic; others, like Stickel in 1858 and Isaac Taylor in 1874, contesting its Aryan, or Indo-European, origin, have endeavored to establish its relationship to the Semitic or Turanian branches of the human speech. Corssen, in a great work, 'Die Sprache der Etrusker' (2 vols., 1874–75), resumed the advocacy of the Italic theory. Another great authority on the subject, W. Deecke, combated the arguments by which it was supported in his 'Corssen und die Sprache der Etruscer' (1875), and, like Ottfried Müller before him, recommended an attitude of reserve as to a final decision, though pointing out decided analogies to non-Aryan, especially Finnic, grammatical forms. The same general opinion he expressed in the article "Etruria" in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' of which he wrote the linguistic portion, in 1878, and in other writings. This negative view seemed so decisive that A. Kirchhof, for instance—in a note to his edition of Peschel's 'Völkerkunde' (1881)—had no hesitation to declare Corssen's attempt a failure. Deecke himself, however, continuing his Etruscan researches with great zeal and diligence, gradually began wavering in his opinion. In 1879 he acknowledged the existence of great resemblance between Etruscan and Aryan words, for which he could not account. In 1880 he still considered all such words as borrowed from Aryan nations, and their frequency made him suspect the Etruscan to have been a mixed language, like the English or Neo-Persian. Since then he has made the last step in the new direction, decidedly declaring in the second number (1882) of the *Etruskische Forschungen und Studien*, which he edits jointly with Pauli, that the Etruscan was an idiom of the Italic branch of the Aryan languages, and thus returning to the old view of Passeri (1767), for which Corssen had elaborated a strictly scientific basis.

—A recent writer (Mr. H. Stonehewer Cooper) calls attention to the *copra* trade in the South Pacific as a source of considerable present and of greater prospective profit. Copra is now the chief export of the Fiji and of some other South Sea Islands. It is the prepared kernel of the cocoanut. The best is that which is dried whole before breaking the nut. A floored shed in which to stack the nuts is necessary; if they are allowed to touch the ground, they will germinate instead of growing. The tough husk which envelopes the shell must not be removed, else the *kalulu*, a sort of cockroach, makes its way through the one vulnerable point or eye in the shell and regales itself upon the water contained in it. It takes three months for the water to disappear. Meanwhile, the kernel has become as dry and tough as glue. The husk and the hard shell are now removed, and the hollow, shrunken shell of kernel is broken up into fragments to reduce its bulk. In this state it will keep forever. Copra is also cured by opening the fresh nuts and sun-drying the meat for three days, or more if the weather is cloudy. The article thus prepared is never, however, equal to that which is dried in the husk, the process being too rapid. Besides this, rain injures it, and if artificial heat is used in the drying, the copra always breeds animalcules which destroy it. Cocoanut oil, in much demand as a lubricator, is extracted from copra, and the refuse is worked up into cocoanut biscuits, or used to enrich cattle food. Copra is worth about £14 per ton in Fiji, and from £21 to £23 in London; the fibre is worth a little more, but at present most of it is thrown away. The trees bear all the year round in the South Pacific. Each tree will average 100 nuts per annum; about 6,000 nuts go to make a ton of copra, and they can be bought from the Fijian natives at 25s. per thousand. In those islands some 10,000 acres of cocoanut trees are now under cultivation. During the year 1878 this group alone exported copra to the value of £122,194. The Samoan cocoanuts are even larger than those of Fiji, but the manufacture is not yet developed in Samoa.

—Another article of export, scarcely heard of in our market, is the *bêche-de-mer*, or large sea-slug, which is in great demand upon the tables of the rich in China, where it is known as *tripang*. It is chiefly found upon the beaches of the coral islands and reefs in the South Pacific, and is one of the most important articles of commerce obtained in these waters. The animal belongs to the class *holothurides*, and consists of an elongated sac, of a gristly consistence and incredibly elastic: "if slung by the middle across a pole, he will, by his own weight, stretch to several times his normal length." It has no eyes, but its triangular mouth is furnished with three teeth. "Its life seems to consist in taking water and sand in at one end, and squirting it out at the other." There are four kinds of *bêche-de-mer*—the gray, the black, the red, and the leopard. The gray is the most valuable; it grows to be eighteen inches long, and nearly as much in circumference. The black *bêche-de-mer* is sometimes thirty inches long, and as thick as a man's leg; it lives in the still lagoons, and can be dived for when the weather is too stormy to gather the other varieties upon the reef. The fishing is often done by companies of Polynesian men and women, brought under contract to the uninhabited islands where the tripang abounds. During the afternoon the morning's catch is split open and steamed in the Polynesian earth-oven, a pit heated with red-hot stones and covered with earth and leaves. This is done in an hour; then the fish are removed to a smoke-shed, and exposed to smoke from a fire of damp wood. In two or three days the gelatinous creature is completely dried. If it is cured thoroughly—and without this it will not bear long transportation—it will "rattle like a bag of chestnuts." *Bêche-de-mer* brings in the Chinese markets from £60 to £80, or even £100 per ton. Whole cargoes of it are sometimes lost on the way to China through defective curing. The business is one which offers, in Mr. Cooper's opinion, excellent profits to persons willing to venture a small capital in the South Pacific. The argument of his interesting book ('Coral Lands') is mainly to show the promises of European traffic with these islands.

—The performances of Wagner's "Nibelung" Tetralogy now taking place in London are of interest in more than one way. When this work, so difficult to understand and execute, was first produced at Bayreuth in 1876, few were sanguine enough to hope that it would, in the course of half a dozen years, establish itself in more than a dozen leading German cities, and even make a flying visit across the Channel. An attempt to produce it in London with local artists would have ended in complete failure, from an artistic point of view, because the vocalists assembled there mostly belong to the Italian school, and are unable to do justice to the Wagnerian dramatic style. But this style has been assiduously cultivated by the most prominent German vocalists during the last ten years, and the engagement of many of these, besides a German chorus and orchestra, in addition to some of the original Bayreuth scenery, insured a faith fulinterpretation of the work in London. Full reports of the first cycle are now at hand, and they are eminently satisfactory. Notwithstanding the high prices of admission, the house was full every evening and the audiences enthusiastic. As London, on account of its large foreign population, may be

really classed among the German capitals, it might be said that this favorable result was largely due to Teutonic influence. But the attitude of the press shows that the English themselves are prepared to appreciate to a considerable extent the grandeur of Wagner's latest works. With the exception of the *Times*, Wagner's ablest champion in England, the papers find more or less to object to in the Tetralogy; but these criticisms merely concern points of detail and general form, the numerous orchestral, dramatic, and scenic beauties in the work being willingly conceded. Only a few years ago the whole London press was most violently opposed to everything remotely suggestive of Wagner, and the present change in the general tone of criticism can only be compared to a similar change which took place in Berlin when the Tetralogy was first produced there. But it is always so with Wagner. People in their ignorance will continue to abuse him until they hear his works properly rendered, and then they usually try to compromise matters by admitting that his music is not so bad after all, but that he is nevertheless an odious, impertinent, and horrid man.

—Wagner's music-dramas, like all works of art, have their faults, but it is not for us to insist on these. The first duty in the case of a work that "teems with beauties indescribable, and abounds in magic sounds never before heard by mortal ears," is to call attention to these beauties and endeavor to help everybody to an opportunity to hear them. Future generations will then be able to balance its merits and demerits and assign it its proper place among works of art. The peculiarity of contemporaneous criticism is that fault is usually found with those very things in which posterity finds most to admire. This was the case even with Rossini, whose reforms in Italian opera were violently opposed at first; and it was the case with Wagner's early operas, which are now accepted as almost orthodox, while Jahn and most other critics at the time of their first appearance attacked them with amazing violence and venom. English critics will find that ultimately Wagner's claims to immortality will be largely based on precisely those features of his works which they now condemn—their "ultra-realism," the substitution of dramatic declamation for lyric song, the predominance of the orchestra and actor over the solo-singer, the characterization of events and persons by leading motives, etc. Some of the criticisms betray a lamentable want of dramaturgic insight. There are too many "painful discords," it is said. But surely a tragedy does not call for sweet music of a molasses-candy flavor. Conflicts of emotions can only be expressed by discords in music as well as in literature. The *Saturday Review* wants to know "whether the truest enjoyment of stage music is to be got from work which of its nature involves so close and constant a strain upon the attention." The *Saturday Review* ought to know that "the strain upon the attention" becomes less after every repetition, and that if Wagner had written his works down to the average intelligence of his contemporaries, posterity would have never heard of them. The funniest objection of all, however, is that the characters in Wagner's Tetralogy are such a wicked set of fellows. This remark shows the disadvantage of being a specialist. For if the musical critics who make it were occasionally sent to see a drama without music, they would discover that good characters do not exactly abound in the best dramas of Shakspere and other tragedians. Indeed, Schopenhauer regards the prevalence of good people in a tragedy as a sure sign of the author's inferiority and untruthfulness.

— We have received the first number of a new quarterly Italian periodical published at Palermo, and devoted to folk-lore, the title of which is, *Archivio per lo Studio delle Tradizioni Popolari*. The names of the editors, Messrs. G. Pitrè and S. Salamone-Marino, are a sufficient guarantee of the high character of the publication, which is fully evinced by the contents of the first number, a handsomely printed book of 172 pages. A letter from Max Müller forms a fitting introduction, and lays down some general principles in regard to the value and mode of collection of popular tales. The contents are as diversified as possible, including customs of the Sicilian peasants, proverbs from the Marches and Bologna, ballads from the Abruzzi, children's games from Montferrato, songs from the former French Department of the Moselle, etc. In addition to the above there are copious reviews of recent works, and a summary of articles in periodicals. We can warmly recommend the *Archivio* to all interested in folk-lore in general, and in that of Italy in particular, to which the new publication will naturally devote most of its space.

FROUDE'S CARLYLE.

Thomas Carlyle: A History of the First Forty Years of His Life, 1795–1835. By James Anthony Froude, M.A. In two volumes. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

THESE volumes cannot be said to add a great deal to the picture of Carlyle already given in his 'Reminiscences.' They do something, however, to complete and fill it out. They also let us still further into the secret of his domestic life, and give us ample means of making close acquaintance with the character of his wife. The readers of the 'Reminiscences' have already seen how much Carlyle owed to her: how the gloom of his life was brightened by her vivacity and unselfish cheerfulness; how her ingenious devotion to his interests rendered his poverty endurable; and how very much as a matter of course the great man took it all, until in the end, worn out with privation and excessive work, she died, and left him to mourn her loss with an unaffected selfishness of grief that threw a strong reflected light back upon their married life. The correspondence printed by Mr. Froude in these volumes reveals the psychological details of the process by which Miss Welsh was brought to the point of marrying a man who she evidently knew from the outset was utterly unfit to make her happy. On Carlyle's part there seems to have been no pretence of anything like sentiment. He had a great contempt for "love," as the following extract from his wife's notebook with regard to his opinions on this subject shows:

"What the greatest philosopher of our day execrates loudest in Thackeray's new novel—finds indeed 'altogether false and damnable in it'—is that love is represented as spreading itself over our whole existence, and constituting the one grand interest of it; whereas love—*the thing people call love*—is confined to a very few years of man's life; to, in fact, a quite insignificant fraction of it, and even then is but one thing to be attended to among many infinitely more important things. Indeed, so far as he (Mr. C.) has seen into it, the whole concern of love is such a beggarly futility that in an heroic age of the world nobody would be at the pains to think of it, much less to open his mouth upon it."

But he saw very clearly that Miss Welsh had qualities of mind and heart that would make her an excellent wife; and though he did not wish to be bored with love himself, he had no objection to her loving him. She was, according to her own confession, not in love with him, though she admired and respected him greatly. Nor had she any illusions with regard to the life at Craigenputtock, which he proposed to her. She knew it was a "desert," and that the life would be one of exile, made worse by poverty. Nevertheless, we see from the first that she is going to yield, and it was here that Carlyle's profound contempt for everything feminine stood him in very good stead. He simply insisted, as if the counter-arguments advanced by the future Mrs. Carlyle were only made to be overthrown; and as he did not allow them to have any weight with his judgment, nor to make any impression upon his heart, he was in the end victorious. Most men would have shrunk from the idea of what he knew perfectly well he was going to subject his wife to; but with Carlyle the supreme importance of his being able to carry out his scheme of life exactly as he had planned it, gave his own wishes almost the authority of divine commands.

To the reader of the biography the marriage appears, necessarily, a most ill-assorted union. Carlyle's views of matrimony were those of the class from which he had sprung. He had been accustomed from his childhood in his father's home to the spectacle of the women of the family performing those household duties which in the class of life to which his wife belonged always fall to the share of servants. That a lady of refined and sensitive tastes ought not to be made a household drudge by her husband, probably never occurred to him, or, if it did, it never made any impression upon his conscience. His perpetual "Ay, di me!" over her remains is the only sign he gives of remorse, and that came rather late.

If we turn from his domestic to his literary life, we cannot say that the volumes contain much of interest. To tell the truth, Carlyle was not, properly speaking, a literary man. He felt that he had a moral message to deliver to the world, and for the purpose of delivering it he invented an extraordinary literary vehicle which he used with great effect. But his interests were all ethical. His contempt for all the best known of his literary contemporaries in England is so exaggerated as to be amusing. In 1832 we find him recording in his note-book: "Singular how little wisdom or light of any kind I have met with in London! Do not find a single creature that has communicated an idea to me; at best, one or two that can understand an idea." Macaulay he speaks of as an "emphatic, hottish, really forcible person, but unhappily without divine idea." Rogers struck him as "an elegant, politely-malignant old lady." Moore he sets down as "a lascivious triviality of great name"; and Bentham as "said to have become a driveller and garrulous old man." Again: "Two objects would reduce me to gravity had I the spirits of a Merry-Andrew—a death's-head and a modern London wit. The besom of destruction should be swept over these people, or else perpetual silence (except when they needed victuals or the like) imposed upon them." And he sums up his notes on Lockhart, Hogg, Allan Cunningham, and a few other contemporaries, in this compendious way: "Literary *men!* They are not worthy to be valets of such." Undoubtedly, criticism conceived in this spirit is valuable in a certain sense, and there is plenty of it to be found in Mr. Froude's volumes; but it is based too exclusively on contempt to be of much use for purely literary purposes. Contempt, in the last resort, dictated a large number of those prejudices of Carlyle's which passed during his life for opinions, and, indeed, it dictated even the method he selected for expressing them. His style, in his early days simple enough, grew, as his authority increased, more and more grotesque, and, whatever may be said for its picturesqueness, no one who had not a contempt for most human traditions on the subject of lan-

guage could possibly have had the audacity to adopt it consciously.

Mr. Froude devotes a chapter to an analysis of Carlyle's religious belief. So far as dogma was concerned, it was mainly sceptical and negative. He did not believe in the scheme of Christian redemption; he did not believe in miracles; he rejected the literal narrative of the sacred writers. We find him, toward the end of his life, telling an inquiring correspondent that he believed in prayer; but he qualified even this confession of faith by the admission, "Words of prayer, in this epoch, I know hardly any"; and added, characteristically, "On the whole, silence is the one safe form of prayer known to me in this poor, sordid era." There is something very amusing in the habit into which Carlyle fell in his later years of recommending everybody to be silent on all possible occasions. As he gained more and more the reputation of a philosopher who could solve for humble inquirers the grave riddles of life (and this he did, in a sense, profess to do), more and more questions were asked which he found it very difficult to answer, and the announcement of his law of silence was a most convenient way of preventing any unnecessary or tedious discussion. Almost invariably he tells the inquirer that the best thing for him to do is to hold his tongue, mainly because he cannot answer his question.

To turn to the positive side of his religious faith, Mr. Froude says of him, very neatly, that he was "a Calvinist without the theology." He believed profoundly in the depravity of man's nature, if he did not believe either the historical account of his fall or in his salvation through a mediator and redeemer; he believed in the permanence and eternity of "the law," and that the law was identical with the will of God. His fatalism was a species of predestination. He despised everybody about him, because he saw that the modern world took a more optimist view of life than his. They believed, fools that they were, "in expediency, in the rights of man, in government by majorities, as if they could make their laws for themselves. The law, did they but know it, was already made; and their wisdom, if they wished to prosper, was not to look for what was convenient to themselves, but for what had been decided already in nature's chancery."

"Many corollaries followed from such a creed when sincerely and passionately held. In arts and sciences the authority is the expert who understands his business. No one dreamed of discovering a longitude by the vote of a majority; and those who trusted to any such methods would learn that they had been fools by running upon the rocks. The science of life was no easier—was harder far than the science of navigation; the phenomena were infinitely more complex; and the consequences of error were infinitely more terrible. The rights of man, properly understood, meant the right of the wise to rule, and the right of the ignorant to be ruled. 'The gospel of force,' of the divine right of the strong, which Carlyle has been so often taunted with teaching, merely meant that when a man has visibly exercised any great power in this world, it has been because he has truly and faithfully seen into the facts around him—seen them more accurately and interpreted them more correctly than his contemporaries. He has become in himself, as it were, one of nature's forces, imperatively insisting that certain things must be done. Success may blind him, and then he mis-sees the facts and comes to ruin. But while his strength remains he is strong through the working of a power greater than himself. The old Bible language that God raised up such and such a man for a special purpose represents a genuine truth."

This is the best that Mr. Froude can do to make a consistent system for Carlyle. His success cannot be called great. We trust an expert as to the longitude because there are sciences called trigonometry and astronomy, which, as anybody may satisfy himself if he pleases, enable experts to calculate the longitude. We trust to the vote of a majority for the very reason that in human affairs there is no such thing as a "science of life" which experts can master, so as to tell their fellows what they ought to do; because rules of conduct must be established and be based on force, and because it has been found by experience that these rules of conduct, when established by a majority vote, are more readily obeyed than when they are established by "strong men" without regard to popular opinion or wishes. Strength will always make itself felt, whether it is the strength of the individual or the strength of numbers; and if force is an indication of the presence of the Deity, it should not be forgotten that "the heaviest battalions" can claim the sanction of divine presence with fully as much reason as the "strong man" in whose name they take the field. If strength and tyranny are of themselves things deserving of admiration, as much may probably be said in favor of the "tyranny of the majority" as for the tyranny of the heroes sung by Carlyle and his disciples.

Mr. Froude may congratulate himself on having very nearly destroyed the authority of his master. It was essential to the preservation of Carlyle's hold upon the affection and respect of the present generation that they should believe that he did understand the "science of life" or "the law" about which he talked so vociferously. But these volumes do not show that he saw much further into it than his contemporaries, and they do show that many of his opinions about it were the outgrowth of a by no means amiable character, and were open besides to the charge of being what he was himself fond of calling "mere wind." If there is not a science of life, there is at any rate an art of biography which Mr. Froude would do well to pay some attention to before laying his hand upon any more dead reputations.

STALLO'S PHYSICS.

The Concepts and Theories of Modern Physics. By J. B. Stallo. [International Scientific Series.] D. Appleton & Co. 1882. Pp. 308.

THIS volume makes an imposing first impression. It is admirably written, with copious and interesting quotations from the literature of several sciences during several centuries and in several languages, especially German. The author commands his resources ably and well, and has written a book which will no doubt prove of exceptional value and interest to the very many non-experts who deliberately prefer comprehensiveness to depth and accuracy of view. Its many-sidedness is puzzling to the critic. The writer constantly modulates from physics to logic, chemistry, astronomy, mathematics, and other sciences; his drift, or purpose, so far as he may be assumed to have a positive one, nowhere expressly appears in explanation of his almost purely negative, destructive aim. He seems outside all the traditional lines of the schools. He is often positivistic, and, in his keen scent for ontological survivals, writes occasionally quite in the vein of Göring, Laas, and Dühring; but then he excoriates Mill, does not idolize facts or things as fetishes, and has no allusion to Comte even where it would admirably serve his purpose. He is not an evolutionist, rejecting the nebular hypothesis in favor of the theory of meteoric aggregation, and refusing homage to the Undifferentiated of Mr. Spencer. He is not an idealist, at least in the traditional sense; for he abhors metaphysics, and apologizes for a youthful publication in 1848, in the vein of Hegel and Oken, while materialism is for him quintessential absurdity *per se*. Wisely declining to take any of the "through-lines" of thought, our author may be catalogued—for those who insist on labels—as a psychological relativist, with a strong tendency to take his creed now in too absolute, now in too eclectic a sense.

The drift of what we may call the first part of the book is as follows: The mechanical theory, which reduces everything to mass and motion, as disparate and constant, in holding that atoms are simple, and therefore equal, is "in utter and irreconcilable conflict" with the theory of Avogadro—that equal volumes of all substances, in a gaseous state, with like pressure and temperature, contain the same number of molecules. While atoms cannot be elastic, because that implies variable distance between their parts, it is yet admitted that in gases at least they must be highly elastic—a contradiction which no theory of vortexes, rotation, or envelopes has yet been able to solve. If, as mechanists say, all physical action is by impact, and there are no pulls but only pushes, then gravity and all action at a distance are inexplicable. If motion be indestructible, all energy is kinetic, and there can be no potential or virtual energy due to position, but only a reciprocity of molar and molecular motion. Impenetrability is not a datum of experience; the light-bearing ether at least cannot be discontinuous or granular; the atomic theory has lost its simplicity—only pulverizes facts and explains nothing; and the kinetic concepts are "repugnant to all scientific sobriety," because they explain the familiar by the unfamiliar.

In the second part we are told that the mechanico-atomic theory is a metaphysical survival of mediæval realism (p. 150). Matter is only the most generic concept in classifying bodies, like substance or Hegel's pure being, all alike indistinguishable from nothingness. Precisely the same is true of pure force, which is not a fact, but a generic concept, and not necessarily a counterpart of reality (conceivability being no test of truth), but only a counterpart of experience. By another metaphysical error, these most generic and latest-formed concepts are said to preëxist, and all things to be derived from them in evolution by addition of attributes. By a third error, we affirm solidity and impenetrability of atoms, because we knew solids long before gases, although the former is far more complex, familiarity being confounded with simplicity, and the genesis of concepts with the order of the genesis of things. Hardness is a prejudice: why not soft or fluid atoms? Finally, motion, rest, time, weight are only relations, and there is no absolute thing, standard, space, etc. The transcendental geometry, so-called, only hypostatizes space by the "reification of its concepts."

This résumé affords an exquisite illustration of the insuperable difficulty which an adult mind, of unusual candor, learning, and ability, experiences both in uprooting youthful convictions and in fully grasping the fundamental ideas of science by solitary reading. In his love of potencies and energy of position, which makes his notion of the kinetic theory so superficial; in the ideal, almost dialectic, relativity of what we have called the second part; in the repugnance to atomism, based, perhaps, far more than Judge Stallo is conscious, upon the chasm it causes between the organic and inorganic, Schelling, Hegel, and Oken would still recognize their own leaven of ideal, monistic identity. The many ancillary hypotheses, too, which investigators have found useful to meet special exigencies of research—enchainments, thermalizations, valencies, and various dynamisms, etc.—are confessedly not unanimously agreed upon, and there is much residual obscurity which is, of course, increasing as the field of science widens. This circumstance gives ample

scope to the vicious dialectic habit of subtle verbal minds of setting facts by the ears and bumping friendly heads together, or even to a logician who prefers exiguous consistency between the parts of a theory to its flexile and serviceable adaptability to facts of many and diverse orders, and refuses to see that a material, a working, and an ultimate hypothesis must be subjected each to its own radically different test of logical canonicity. Judging our author's own processes by this method, we might call attention to his self-contradiction in rejecting the kinetic theory because it explains the familiar by the unfamiliar, which is precisely what he requires us to do in explaining solids by gases; or we might ask how knowledge itself can ever be explained, if we must always explain the less known by the more known, or convict him of absolute idealism from the principles of the second part. As a "contribution to the theory of cognition" for which it is designed, the work is not in the line of modern progress in that direction, and adds nothing whatever. Science is at bottom metaphysics, with a persistent tendency to "reify" its concepts, which must then be extirpated as ontological survivals —is his drift.

Another capital error which pervades the first part of the book is, that the atomic theory is defined as a physical but criticised more as a chemical theory. It is physicists who are more inclined to reduce everything to mechanism, and no one but a pure theorist would ever think of asserting that any great body of chemical facts, save only thermal and kinetic ones, have yet been even approximately explained mechanically. For physics atomism is a more material and relatively simple theory, while for chemistry it is more formal and complex. After asserting "utter anarchy" concerning it, our author yet manages to recruit a very comprehensive set of propositions which "command universal assent." Yet, although he has unwittingly changed his view from the physical to the chemical aspect, both statements are alike extravagant. From both aspects, but especially the latter, atomism is a didactic, formal, explanatory device, so serviceable that, as L. Meyer well says, a confessedly wrong auxiliary hypothesis often continues to be of great use. The chief unanimity concerning it is not in the form our author calls axiomatic, but as a symbolic and later a graphic system, which might be almost visualized illustratively for specific purposes, but which should not be too grossly conceived, and from which deductions should be very sparingly made for fear of catastrophes. Atomism is the oldest and most widely accepted of all scientific theories; it has created chemistry out of chaos, and given provisional order where it could give no other, and made manifest in a hundred ways that there is nothing so practical as a good theory. It is a complex grammar of facts, or rather a language in which thought instinctively expresses and grasps them, and, like language, its very inconsistencies are often the most valuable and suggestive.

Still more than the kinetic theory, our author fails to comprehend the important formal, analytic, and still more important psychological results which have slowly unfolded from Gauss's fruitful idea of the measure of curvature. He deals almost entirely with the illustrative elements of the problem, the injudiciousness of even attempting which is now generally admitted by mathematicians. Erdmann, whose attempt to rectify this tendency has been widely endorsed by them, seems "simply puerile" to our author, and, although he cites Stumpf, he has not grasped the psychological problem involved in a geometry without the axiom of parallels.

Our author's employment of the word *mass* to mean weight, inertia, or even matter, when it has no sense till one has been assigned it for a specific purpose, may perhaps be taken as a type of a general error, fallen into often even by scientific men, and of which especially chemists complain, by which a theory, or even a working hypothesis, is taken concretely as a basis of deductions, or materialized into dogma. If the philosopher would get perfect command of the facts in a field, and restrain his reason where he has not done so, he might be of great service in making common cause with those scientific men who strive, often in vain, against their own co-laborers, to keep a "fine lucidity" of hypothesis from lapsing into either empiricism on the one hand or dogmatism on the other. If, on the other hand, he only retails the residual but tedious truism of idealism, that things are really thoughts, and that whenever we say matter, cause, time, space, or *quod libet* we are in fact dealing with objects mysteriously more subjective than we dream; or if he would dispense with the brain because it is not a perfect platonic mathematic sphere, or, like our author, with the atomic hypothesis because it does not conform to all the text-book tests of logical consistency, because its "record" does not show infallibility, or authorities differ, or because, as all admit, there are great possibilities outside, then philosophy is discredited, labor that should be better spent is lost, and the thoughtless or immature are misled by vigorous works like this, which, though somewhat less comprehensive than Hegelism, does almost nothing, because it attempts so much. Had he really comprehended the newer problems and understood the laboratory function of an hypothesis, both of which tend so strongly to make the theoretic part of science more and more flexible, transparent, formal, and practical, he would have tried to aid this process along, which is precisely the work science now so wants and needs and wants men of psychological acumen to do, instead of feeling complacency in reviving a method applied repeatedly a decade or two ago in this field—viz., crassifying, developing contradictions, and then sublating or volatilizing into concepts. In the vast scope of his plan; in the dialectics of the second stage of the above process (which is greatly facilitated by the absence of discrimination among authorities, Helmholtz and Maxwell being in no wise distinguished for his readers from the fanatical Dühring and Zöllner, or from the dreamy Spiller); in the fundamental assumption that these matters can be treated in the study; and probably in the latent animus of anti-atomism, it is not hard to see Hegelism, so pervasive as to be, perhaps, unconscious, venturing forth again into the light of day, tastefully arrayed in the choicest finery of popular science.

RUSSIA AND THE RUSSIANS.—II.

L'Empire des Tsars et les Russes. Par Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu. Tome i. Le pays et les habitants. Paris: Librairie Hachette et Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern. 1881.

NATURE in Russia presents two opposite aspects —vastness and vacuity. Her enormous territories are devoid of variety of form and variety of color. Animate as well as inanimate nature lacks grandeur and power. The picturesque is almost imperceptible. Travel through the Russian plains produces a feeling of satiety almost like a sea-voyage. You open your eyes after a night's sleep in a steamer or a railway-train, and perceive no change of place. The grandeur of the rivers diminishes their beauty: the finest banks are lowered into insignificance by distance. Everywhere you see the same animals, the same plants, the same trees. The cultivated fields vie in monotony with the forest and the steppe. There are no hamlets, no isolated farms. The Russian seems to dread solitude in the boundless space which surrounds him. The community of property which prevails among the peasants adds to the defect of nature. Here none of those capriciously multiform hedges are seen which embellish the rural landscapes of England or Normandy; the land is level, featureless, sombre. The Russian's fondness for property in common and association in labor is probably owing less to race instinct than to the immensity of space, under a rigorous climate, in which man in isolation feels himself powerless and as if lost.

From the same sources springs an inclination in the opposite direction: the taste for adventure, travel, and vagabondage—an intense migratory propensity. It is easy to explain the peasant's lack of fondness for agriculture, of attachment to the ungrateful and almost mournful soil of old Muscovy; but this disposition has in great part been nurtured by the institutions, by serfdom and the modes of possession. The northern nations have in general less attachment to the soil than the nations of the south, and rural Russia is, besides—from the hut of the peasant to the church and seigneurial manor—a country of pine habitations, "a Europe of timber," again and again visited by the destructive and dispersive scourge of conflagration. Every dwelling becomes sooner or later a prey to fire: why should one cling to so fragile an abode? why embellish it so as to love it? Many a Russian leaves his village for parts unknown as soon as "the red cock" has crowed on his roof.

To this fondness for going ahead in a venturesome way corresponds a moral tendency—the readiness of the Russian mind to plunge into the most reckless speculations; a disregard of obstacles which fears no temerity, philosophical, social, or religious; an astonishing indulgence for temerity in every field. The Russian's thought, like his rural horizon, knows no bounds—it loves the unlimited; it pushes right ahead toward the extreme, at the risk of reaching the absurd. And side by side with this propensity we discover an almost general lack of individuality, of originality, of creative power. A backward civilization is partly responsible for this defect, but its main source is the want of variety and power in the surrounding nature. To the poverty of the latter is owing in great part the sterility of Russian thought. This country offers no images to the poet, no color to the painter, no freshness to impressions or ideas. Hence the vigorlessness and lifelessness of the ancient mythology of the Russian Slavs, as compared with the myths of the Greeks or the Scandinavians. It was amid the grand scenery of the Caucasus, at the very extremity of European Russia—whither a suspicious police has exiled so many literary talents—that Pushkin and Lermontoff found poetical inspiration and a lofty romanticism.

What there is of diversity, picturesqueness, and beauty in rural Russia is derived more from time than from space, from the alternation of seasons rather than from scenery. In the south, especially in tropical lands, the earth glows with tints, but the seasons are hardly distinguishable. In a northern continental country like Great Russia the seasons are strikingly unlike each other; they robe the earth in markedly new colors. The thus varying aspects of nature restore to the Russian the variety of impressions and sentiments which the soil refuses him. Without leaving his village, he sees alternations of climate and aspect such as others witness in passing and repassing through thirty degrees of latitude between the pole and the equator.

These alternations act upon character and temperament, upon the imagination and the mind. In Russia every season has its labors, its holidays, its pleasures, different songs, and even different dances. To the violent alternations of the seasons, which temper him for all climates, the Russian owes a peculiar flexibility and elasticity of organs—a facility of passing from one sentiment or idea to another. To the same cause may be attributed much that in the Russian appears unbridled, eccentric, rough. If he has little intellectual originality and a poorly-developed inventive faculty, he is very often original in his tastes, manners, and expressions. He sometimes evinces a *bizarrerie* closely bordering on insanity. Ivan the Terrible, Peter the Great, and Paul are examples of it among his sovereigns. Like his climate, he easily goes from one extreme to the other: his changes of mood, thought, or feeling are striking; the oscillations of his intellect and heart embrace a wide range. He rapidly passes from activity to torpor, from tenderness to rage, from joviality to moroseness, from enthusiasm to apathy, from submission and resignation to revolt; he displays in rapid turns all the variations of heat and cold, calm and tempest. In the individual, in society, in the Government, this propensity to move and act by fits and starts is equally perceptible. Periods of inertia, languor, and despondency are abruptly succeeded by periods of ardor, energy, and confidence. Doubt and conviction, indifference and fanaticism, strangely relieve and almost blend with each other.

The climate, by its rigor and exigencies, renders the Russian inclined to realism, to practical common sense; the grandeur, monotony, and poverty of his boundless plain create in him a disposition to mysticism and sadness. This conflict or alliance of tendencies is illustrated by various striking phenomena—among them by Nihilism. Like most theories which move the Russian mind, Nihilism is an importation from the West. From Europe, chiefly from the philosophical nurseries of Germany, came the first seeds of that spirit of negation and revolt which we see thrive so amazingly in the shade of absolute autocracy. The radical epigoni of Kant and Hegel were the masters of Hertzen and Bakunin. French revolutionists and socialists have done their part in developing Nihilism, which is but the Russian form of the destructive spirit of the age. That this general disease has become endemic in the lowlands of the Neva and Volga; that it is there more virulent, and accompanied by special symptoms, is owing to the mental constitution and diet of the people. Nihilism is not a growth of a decade; it existed many years ago, and it has assumed various shapes. There is an active and violent Nihilism, which conspires and assassinates; an older variety—theoretic, vague, and unconscious—permeates the schools and society, penetrating into the very salons and chanceries. Nihilism breathed everywhere, was the fashion, was the creed of students and of all short-haired school-maidens, long before the murderous attempts and deeds of 1878, 1879, and 1880 (and, let us add, the catastrophe of 1881) unveiled it to the world in all its destructive power.

But though an offspring of Occidental metaphysical speculation, Nihilism is not a system, like Schopenhauer's pessimism or Comte's positivism, or a new form of ancient scepticism or naturalism. As a philosophical theory, it is an unscientific, coarse materialism; as a political doctrine, it is a socialistic radicalism, bent less on improving the moral and material condition of the masses than on annihilating the social and political order now existing. Nihilism constitutes no party. Its name, by which we generally designate the doctrines of Russian revolutionists of all shades—federalists, terrorists, anarchists, communists, etc.—is rejected by most of them. But Russian radicalism deserves it both by its scientific nullity and its destructively negative attitude toward civilization—toward Christian and classical culture, as developed by the Germano-Latin races. The Russian, half a century ago, adored that culture with the ardor of a neophyte; he swore by the liberal principles it had proclaimed since 1789; he has discovered its shallowness and hollowness, and, with the mobility which carries him from one extreme to the other, with the bitterness of a cruelly deceived and undeceived believer, he blasphemes the object of his former worship; he vows to destroy the proud temple erected to those modern idols which, under the usurped names of liberty, equality, and fraternity, give sanction to error, discord, and the sordid bondage of poverty. This is, indeed, a sad self-emancipation of the Russian conscience; a violent reaction against the intellectual, social, and scientific supremacy of Europe. The part of initiator and savior is henceforth to be acted by the people till now left in ignorance; light is to come from the dweller in darkness. Having lost his faith in Europe, the Russian has again begun to believe in Muscovy. He finds his despised country superior to others on account of its very inferiority. This is logical. Modern civilization being once condemned, that country is best adapted for future creations in which the past has left the freest field to the present; where modern culture and art have built so little and have penetrated so slightly beneath the surface that the necessary clearing and uprooting are most easy. The Russian people, having the least to lose by destruction, thus becomes the chosen people of radical revolution. And thus, through the negations of nationality and fatherland, the Russian revolutionist returns to the glorification of country and people, which are exalted in his eyes by their nudity and poverty.

Last Days of Knickerbocker Life in New York. By Ab am C. Dayton. George W. Harlan. 1882.

THE title of this unpretending volume is misleading, for it has very little to say of the origin or the traces of the enduring stamp left by Holland on the fashions and ways of her colony. It is a slight gossipy sketch of the outward aspect of New York, to one who shows no special pride of ancestry in it, about the year 1830, when it had ceased to look Dutch and not begun to look metropolitan—the sort of New York which Mrs. Trollope saw without liking or understanding it. Those of its people who talked about it at that time had a habit of calling it Gotham. Though commonplace enough in that transition period, it was hardly so dull as to deserve a nickname borrowed from the Nottinghamshire village the stupidity of whose rustics provoked a proverb to fit it.

Those quiet years of New York five decades ago, seeming full of life to those who moved and had their being in them, were really a period of dead water between two tides. They came after steamboats and before railroads—after the Erie Canal and before the flood of immigration. The United States Bank and the Missouri Compromise preceded them; the panic of 1837 and the Abolition Party followed. The old Naval war was a memory—the new Mexican war had not arisen. While the *Herald* was unborn, the *American* flourished. The city was narrow in limits, plain in architecture, of small population and simple fashions, separated by a day from its sister towns, by a month from Europe, and by a fortnight from the Mississippi, which was the western boundary of its interests. Telegraphs, propellers, and California were all to come. We can hardly narrow our minds back into the range of that day of small things. The writer has performed an easy task in giving a faint and imperfect picture of the superficial features of the town when every one in it knew every one else by sight at least. Its streets, churches, hotels, exchange, and the people who filled them are simply described, without any attempt to go below the surface, or connect its existing state, even by historic threads, with its past or future. The brilliant sketches of Sealsfield, published some twenty years later, treated the subject as picturesquely and with far more variety of suggestion and life of associations. Much space is given to theatres and horse-racing, with hardly a line for commerce, the professions, or the press. A modest sermon against the spendthrift whirl of to-day follows naturally upon a careful description of quiet domestic life in the old time. But even this does not show us a Dutch interior, nor touch the scene with any peculiar Knickerbocker color. The book might fairly be called a portrait of New York fifty years ago with its inherited Dutch features omitted.

Nor were those at all the last days of Knickerbocker life. There was every reason, drawn from conquest, commerce, and immigration, why New York should have ceased to be distinctively Dutch, fifty years after the Revolution, long before Boston was anything but an English town or Philadelphia had outgrown the serene state of a Quaker one. Yet that Batavian seed, starting early into so goodly a growth, still yields its sap and vigor to the best of New York life. Knickerbockerism never died out here, because, except within very narrow social precincts, it never degenerated into Chauvinism. As the English colonized abroad, so the Dutch of New Amsterdam colonized at home, by intermarriage with strangers, transmitting the virtues of the mother stock in the mother line; and in hundreds of families where the names of Holland have vanished, the blood of Holland survives. So it is, that though Irish seize the offices, and Germans usurp the shops, and Hebrews rage furiously together on the exchange, the Dutch element, strengthened by English alliance, still holds in New York the churches, the charities, the colleges, the professions, and, ruling through a thousand subtle social influences, keeps the kernel of our people sound.

Physical Education; or, The Health-Laws of Nature. By Felix L. Oswald, M.D. D. Appleton & Co. 1882. 12mo, pp. 257.

WHAT manner of physiologist and thinker Dr. Oswald is, may be gathered from the following question and answer in this book:

"What is the natural food of man? As an abstract truth, the maxim of the physiologist Haller is absolutely unimpeachable: 'Our proper nutriment should consist of vegetable and semi-animal substances which can be eaten with relish before their natural taste has been disguised by artificial preparation.' Cooking, spicing, heating, and freezing our food are, strictly speaking, abuses of our digestive organs."

This view is endorsed, as Dr. Oswald notes, by such authorities as Dio Lewis and by Bronson Alcott, whose "full table of human innerments" may be remembered by readers of the *Nation* (No. 704). It is, in a word, the transcendental or ontological physiology of the visionary reformer, who deduces his maxims from an assumed ideal state of nature, and rejects what is not given in his own consciousness as truly "natural" in regimen, exercise, clothing, sleep, and recreation. Dr. Oswald takes us again over the weary byways of the vegetarian and the tee-

totaller, rapidly disposing of controverted points by the *à-priori* method (as on p. 46), and apparently unconscious, for the most part, of what has been done in chemical and physiological science during recent years. All medicines are for him poisons; all religions, and nearly all civilizations, are race-calamities from which we are to return *en masse* to "nature," under the lucid guidance of works like the present one.

These theses are enforced from a large miscellaneous reading, in which Dr. Oswald displays a more catholic misunderstanding of science, history, and "nature" than we have come upon for years in a book of the present scope. Even when his criticism is at bottom just, as in his censure of Buddhist and Christian asceticism, his authority vanishes before the heat of his style. With books made up of visionary generalizations we are familiar, and with authors who are surer of a thousand difficult matters than those who have given special study to them. Dr. Oswald shows, in addition, a violence of asseveration that is out of keeping with scientific discussion and with the literary good breeding which befits an educated man and a physician. His matter is sometimes interesting; his manner recalls that of the Professor of Philosophy in Molière's "Bourgeois Gentilhomme."

The Index Guide to Travel and Art-Study in Europe: A Compendium of Geographical, Historical, and Artistic Information for the Use of Americans. By Lafayette C. Loomis, A.M. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1882.

THIS attractive and original volume is divided into three parts—viz., the Index proper, whose alphabetical titles refer to art, scenery, history, legends, and myths; a select Catalogue of the noted works of art in the principal galleries of Central Europe; and Routes. The book would be worth purchasing if only for the abundant maps of cities, plans of galleries, and charts of railway and river routes, to say nothing of the art illustrations, which are both numerous and of good quality. The execution of parts 2 and 3 is highly to be commended, that of part 1 with some qualifications. In the first place, Spain and Greece and southern and western France are entirely left out of account; one looks in vain for Athens, or Madrid, Blois, Marseilles, Avignon, Carcassonne, Nismes; for the Parthenon, for the Alhambra, for the Pont-du-Gard (under *Aqueducts*), for the Maison Carrée. Even in northeastern France neither Caen nor Laon is deemed worthy of the tourist's visit; and in Italy the omission of Verona, with its amphitheatre and all its mediæval monuments, and of Rimini seems capricious.

If these defects, however, indicate the author's restricted experience—as, for example, that he has never been in Sicily—it may be said, on the other hand, that he tells only of what he knows, and is therefore the more trustworthy. Still, even so, the execution of his plan is unequal. He has general titles for Scotland and Ireland, but, so far as we have observed, for no other country. Scotland, indeed, appears to be favorite ground with Mr. Loomis. He gives a title to Darnley, but none to Rousseau, though he has much to say about Geneva, and mentions the Frenchman's (or the Switzer's) statue there, while denying him a place under *Distinguished Persons* (residences and tombs of). Michael Angelo's "Moses" is admitted into the alphabetical arrangement, but not his "David." Mr. Loomis gives a useful list of hotels, and another of painters by schools; but he might well have added one of cathedrals and another of châteaux. In general, foreign names and expressions are accurately printed, but "*Dames Seul*" and "*Fur Damen*," in one line, on page 563, leave something to be desired. Still, after all our criticism, the value of the 'Index Guide' is incontestable.

A Parisian Year. By Henry Bacon. Illustrated by the Author. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 16mo, pp. viii.-225. 1882.

A DOZEN readable papers, each one related more or less in theme to the months in their succession, form the contents of Mr. Bacon's little book. The subjects touched upon are mostly connected with the life of American art-students in Paris, and there is enough of society talk to commend the book to members of the "American Colony" and others. Mr. Bacon can be amusingly satirical on occasion; as when, for instance, he describes his call upon the American Minister (his name is not given), for permission to study at the École des Beaux-Arts:

"I was shown into his presence at once, but I had to wait, as his Excellency was spelling out some despatches in French with the aid of a younger man. At last I was told with a smile that my wish would be granted, but I must first bring an introduction from some well-known person to the Minister. Then I smiled, took from my pocket a large folded paper, the first passport I had ever carried; it cost me ten dollars, and I knew the worth of the spread-eagle; and then those comforting words, 'In case of need to give him all lawful aid and protection.' His Excellency examined the document, looked at the eagle with the harp in its mouth, and the rays and stars about it; it was curious and worth looking at, and I was not surprised at his examining it, but I was astonished when he smiled again and said: 'This is not sufficient. You must bring me a letter from some resident in Paris.' I could not convince him of the importance of an introduction from the Secretary of State."

Mr. Bacon's difficulties in the matter were too intricate for us to follow; but his account of them is pleasantly acidulous.

A new slang word appears in the book—one which the editor of the Philological Society's new dictionary may be interested to note—the "swabble" (etymology, *ensemble*) of a picture. Mr. Bacon might have told us that the word has a considerable vogue among American students in Paris, and that it originated in an atelier much frequented by them, that of Carolus Duran.

Art Work in Earthenware. Pp. 70.—*Art Work in Gold and Silver.* Pp. 64. By Henry B. Wheatley, F. S. A., and Philip H. Delamotte. New York: Scribner & Welford. 1882.

THESE are concise outlines of the history of the arts treated of respectively. They contain references to the best authorities, and supply illustrations enough to make the text intelligible. They are handsomely printed, and may well serve as introductions to more extended study, while they afford in themselves a very serviceable general knowledge of the subjects. The work on Earthenware treats of Ancient Pottery (following the classification of M. Jacquemart), of Mediæval Pottery, of Majolica, French Faïence, German and Dutch Pottery, and English Earthenware. That on Gold and Silver treats of Early Coins and Medals, Ancient Art, Egyptian, Greek, Etruscan, Roman, Pompeian, Byzantine, and Early Christian Art; Gold-work of the Lombards, Spanish Art, Early French Art, the Eleventh Century to the Renaissance, Monastic Artists, Ecclesiastical Art, Shrines, Chalices, and Celebrated Goldsmiths.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbot, Lieut.-Col. H. L. Report upon Experiments and Investigations to Develop a System of Submarine Mines for Defending the Harbors of the United States. Washington.
Appletons' Annual Cyclopædia, for 1881. D. Appleton & Co.
Barrett, R. S. Character-Building: Talks to Young Men. Thomas Whittaker. 50 cents.
Barrili, A. G. The Eleventh Commandment: a Romance. Wm. S. Gottsberger.
Beard, G. M. Sea-Sickness: Its Symptoms, Nature, and Treatment. E. B. Treat. $1.
Berens, E. M. The Myths and Legends of Ancient Greece and Rome. Clark & Maynard.
Boulton, S. B. The Russian Empire: Its Origin and Development. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.
Bulkley, L. D. Manual of the Diseases of the Skin. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Catherwood, Mary Hartwell. Rocky Fork. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1 50.
Cox, J. D. Campaigns of the Civil War: Atlanta. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.
Cutts, E. L. Charlemagne. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1 15.
Freeman, E. A. The Reign of William Rufus, and the Accession of Henry the First. In 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $8.
Forbes, S. R. Rambles in Rome. Thomas Nelson & Sons. $1 50.
Gleed, C. S. From River to Sea: A Tourists' and Miners' Guide. Chicago; Rand, McNally & Co. $1.
Guerndale: An Old Story. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 25.
Harper's Hand-Book for Travellers in Europe and the East. In 3 volumes.
Hart, W. R. A Study of the Scriptural Doctrine of Immortality. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.
Heimburg, W. Lottie of the Mill. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 50.
Hopkins, L. A Comic History of the United States. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.
Howden, P. The Horse: How to Buy and Sell. Orange Judd Co. $1.
Knox, T. W. The Young Nimrods around the World. Harper & Bros.
Le Baron, Marie. The Villa Bohemian. New York Kochendoerfer & Uric. 50 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 8, 1882.

The Week.

MR. FRELINGHUYSEN has taken up the task of abrogating the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, but much more deftly and effectively than Mr. Blaine. The solid and substantial reason which Mr. Frelinghuysen advances for tearing up the treaty is that the agreement was made thirty years ago with reference to the construction of a canal by the Nicaragua route; that from that time to this no such canal has ever been built; that consequently the engagements of the treaty cannot be considered of binding force on either party. No such treaty can be expected to remain in force forever unexecuted. After thirty years' talk about a canal when there is no canal, the continuance of negotiations for a joint or universal protectorate of it seems idle, and a treaty for the purpose gets to be obsolete. Mr. Frelinghuysen might have made this part of his letter stronger by dwelling less upon the particular route designated by the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, and more upon the failure to construct a canal by any route. The article of the treaty which evidently gave him most trouble was the eighth, which declares that the Governments of the United States and Great Britain, "having not only desired, in entering into this convention, to accomplish a particular object" (to wit, the Nicaragua canal), but also to establish a general principle (that of an international protectorate), "hereby agree to extend their protection by treaty stipulations to any other practicable communication, whether by canal or railway, across the isthmus." It is this provision of the treaty, Mr. Frelinghuysen says, "which has occasioned this correspondence." It is this provision, at any rate, which has occasioned the main difficulty in carrying it on. It does undoubtedly show that in 1850 what we meant to do was to secure the canal, by whatever route it might run, by a general guarantee of the maritime powers. But here, again, there is no canal, and no general guarantee by means of additional "treaty stipulations" has been obtained, although Mr. Fish, only five years ago, made an attempt to carry out this branch of the treaty.

The more Mr. Frelinghuysen's despatch is examined the more clearly will it appear that the gist of his objections to the treaty is that it is a dead letter, owing to the fact that nothing has been done under it, and might as well be treated as such by both Governments. The various other arguments advanced by him do not strengthen his position, but give an opportunity for ingenious counter-arguments, which of course will be beside the point, but for which there was no necessity for making an opening. He says, for instance, that the treaty is "of course voidable at the pleasure of the United States," because Great Britain has been violating it by extending her "sovereignty" in Central America. He says that "the impression prevails that since the conclusion of the treaty of 1850 the English inhabitants of that district have spread into the territory of the neighboring republics, and now occupy a large area of land which, under the convention, belongs to one or the other of the two republics, but over which the Government of Her Majesty assumes to exercise control. Such dominion seems to be inconsistent with that provision of the treaty which prohibits the exercise of dominion by Great Britain over any part of Central America." This is a strong point, although not absolutely necessary to the argument. If Great Britain is actually doing anything of the kind, she is not merely violating the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, but she is violating the Monroe doctrine, which, according to Mr. Frelinghuysen's own definition of it, "at least opposes any intervention by European nations in the political affairs of American republics." But, as we have already said, the gist of his objections is that the treaty is obsolete. If we desire to withdraw from it, there is no reason why we should not, and Mr. Frelinghuysen's despatch extricates the Government from the awkward position in which Mr. Blaine placed it perhaps as well as could be expected.

We have been hoping for some days to see, in the columns of the *Herald* and *Sun*, something in the nature of a handsome apology to Mr. Lowell for the reproaches they have been heaping upon him for what they were pleased to term his "ignorance" in asking his Government for instructions as to the length of residence in his native country necessary to exhaust the American citizenship of a naturalized citizen. A correspondent of the *Nation* showed last week, in a very neat way, that the rumpus over this was all due to the ignorance of Mr. Lowell's assailants of the history of the expatriation question here, and thus the apology to him became at once due—that is to say, on Friday last. The *Sun* does not make this apology to Mr. Lowell, but tries to excuse itself by saying that what our correspondent showed the other day was simply that the several members of General Grant's Cabinet had expressed the opinion "that a renewal of residence by a naturalized citizen in his mother country should effect a renunciation of his acquired citizenship here." "But our Government," adds the *Sun*, "in its treaties with Great Britain, has never recognized any such view, and this Mr. Lowell ought to have known without making any inquiry of the Secretary of State on the subject." Error and injustice again, Esteemed Contemporary. The question on which the members of Grant's Cabinet expressed opinions was not whether the renewal of residence, etc., should "effect a renunciation of citizenship," but whether it should not be considered by this Government a release from the duty of giving its protection through the Army and Navy, and this question does not need a treaty for its decision. Great Britain has nothing to do with its decision. It lies wholly within the discretion of this Government; and when Mr. Lowell asked what view this Government was now taking of its duty in the matter, he made a perfectly proper and sensible inquiry, and did not fall into the error of supposing, like our contemporary, that we bind ourselves by treaty with foreign powers to give a certain amount or kind of protection to our citizens. We do nothing of the kind. On the contrary, by such treaty we simply bind foreign powers to respect certain claims of ours, if we choose to make them. So that the apology to Mr. Lowell is still due on this head, and we recommend at the same time an apology also for abusing him for asking for the release of the suspects, on condition that they would come home, this also being perfectly justified by our own precedents.

The Western case against Mr. Lowell grows darker every day. He is not only a scholar, a gentleman, and a man of civil demeanor in the transaction of business, who wears his trowsers outside his boots, but he has, according to the Dubuque *Herald*, become "liable to severe punishment, under Section 200 of the United States Revised Statutes," which provides that naturalized citizens shall receive the same protection as native-born citizens, and "provides for the punishment of any man guilty of collusion with a foreign government." "The statute," says the Dubuque publicist, "renders Lowell liable under this charge to a fine of $5,000 and imprisonment for three years," which, it justly observes, "is not a very agreeable thing to face." It only remains now, apparently, for the East to ask that in bringing him home for trial proper regard be paid to his age and to the position he has occupied in the United States service, and that he be allowed a cabin to himself, and be spared the indignity of irons, and that the goodness of his clothes, and general neatness of appearance, and his familiarity with English literature, be not used to prejudice his case under the statute. Many of the qualities, it must be remembered, which most damage him in Western eyes are congenital, and it would, therefore, be very un-American to punish him for them, or allow them to aggravate his punishment, in case he is found guilty of a violation of Section 200.

During the week the specie movement between the United States and foreign countries was unimportant, but at the close the indications were that some gold might be shipped for Italian account, particularly as under the recent law the Treasury will pay out fine gold bars on even terms for gold coin, and these bars are in London worth more than the coin. The crops have been the uppermost subject in Wall Street and mercantile circles, as on them to a large extent depend the profits of the railroads and the condition of business for the coming year. The weather has thus far not been favorable for corn. The winter-wheat crop, however, is well assured, and it is not venturesome to say that in quantity and quality it will exceed that of last year. It now looks as if the spring-wheat crop would be no larger than last year. The extensive strikes in the iron trade, the causes of which

we have discussed on another page, have had a depressing effect in all directions. The stock market was given over to the tender mercies of the bears, who raided one stock after another, and effected a decline ranging from 1@10¼ points. United States bonds declined ¼@⅜. The New York banks lost about $250,000 of their surplus reserve, but the loan market was very easy at low rates for borrowers. The bill which passed both branches of the Legislature, permitting call loans to be made at any rate agreed upon by the lender and borrower, became a law without the signature of Governor Cornell, who, however, had recommended such a law. This bill will, when money becomes worth 6 per cent., prevent rates from going up by jumps, as heretofore; instead of this we may expect to see the rate advance by half of 1 per cent. per annum—for instance, from 6 to 6½ per cent. Under the old law the next rate above 6 per cent. was 6 per cent. plus 1-64 of 1 per cent. per day, or about 11½ per cent. per annum. General trade is unquestionably dull; collections, however, are fair, and credits are not extended.

The recent exportation of some millions of gold from this country has led to numerous ejaculations in the press against the extravagance of our people, and to earnest suggestions that they ought not to buy so many things, especially foreign things. Exhortations of this sort may be very good for the moral nature of man, but they have no value in the discussion of questions of political economy. Convince a man that he cannot buy the article of luxury he wants, and you will make an impression upon him sufficiently strong to prevent him from buying it, but to argue with him that although he is perfectly able to have it, yet his buying it will lead to an exportation of gold, and that this will be a bad thing for some other person or persons, will, in nine cases out of ten, lead him to suspect that you are a little out of your mind. He will be perfectly content if you make your observations general, taking in whole classes of society, and especially if you point to the growing extravagance of bricklayers and boiler-makers and their wives. But to make a personal application to him, and to adduce a column of Treasury statistics to prove that he ought not to smoke such expensive cigars, and that his wife ought not to wear such costly bonnets, is in his view a gross impertinence. Even if he assents to the proposition that "national extravagance" is a bad thing, and that something ought to be done about it, he reasons that his abstinence would not amount to a drop in the bucket, and he reasons correctly. He may not carry the logical process so far as to conclude that if the individuals composing the nation can afford to live on a particular scale, the nation itself can afford it, but he will be pretty sure to resent any suggestion that *he* is responsible for the exportation of gold, even if he admits that the exportation of gold is a bad thing *per se*. And this he will do, whether his station in life be that of a banker or of a hod-carrier. There is no objection to the continuance of exhortations on this theme, but as they have never yielded any results heretofore, they will yield none now.

In response to a summons from Mr. Conkling, his friends who urged him to be a candidate for reëlection after his resignation, and to go to Albany for that purpose, have at last come forth. The *Herald* publishes letters from seven of them which agree in representing their sentiments as to what Mr. Conkling should do at the time, as unanimous. They agree also in stating that, at a sort of council of war held at General Arthur's house in this city, General Sharpe, who now says that he did not urge Mr. Conkling at all, was particularly fervid in advising that he should stand for a reëlection and go to Albany to manage his canvass. Whether General Sharpe will try to invalidate the testimony thus accumulating against him, and how he will try to do it, we are very curious to see. The public learn now, also, who it was that Mr. Conkling advised with when he was engaged in the greatest effort of his life. The meeting of which the letters speak took place in Vice-President Arthur's house. Present were Senator Jones, from Nevada, ex-Senator "Tom" Platt, United States Marshal "Lew" Payn, Mr. John F. Smyth, of Insurance Department fame, Police Commissioner "Steve" French, Mr. C. W. Dennison, an old "canal man," Mr. A. B. Johnson, of Utica, Mr. Conkling's faithful committee-man, and General Sharpe. This was the council of statesmen whose advice Mr. Conkling took when he did the foolishest thing ever done by an American politician.

The Senate has confirmed another appointment of an internal-revenue collector in Pennsylvania, made at the request of Senator Cameron, to fill a place vacated by the removal of an unusually meritorious officer, without the slightest pretence of a cause. The removal, of course also at the request of Senator Cameron, was made against a protest signed by 8,000 respectable business men of the district. The arguments with which Mr. Cameron is reported to have defended that removal in the Senate were very characteristic. He admitted that the removed officer had performed his duties in a very efficient manner; but it was absurd to suppose, he said, that no other man of integrity, capacity, and character would make just as efficient a collector. According to this, Mr. Cameron would make it a rule that as long as there is a man of integrity, capacity, and character in the district, the office must be kept going round and round, for it would not do to permit any individual to get warm in the place and to become thoroughly conversant with its duties. This is a jolly view of what a well-regulated public service should be. But everybody knows that Boss Cameron did not ask for the removal of the meritorious officer for the purpose of putting in a man of equal integrity, capacity, and character, but for the purpose of securing the power and influence of that office for one of his political henchmen, and that, if that henchman is at the same time an able and respectable man, it is a lucky accident. However, the Senate took Mr. Cameron's view of the case, confirmed his nominee, and thereby made the rupture in the Republican party in Pennsylvania still more incurable. Mr. Cameron had ostensibly accepted the "peace platform," which provided that there should be no removals from office without cause. By insisting upon a removal without the slightest cause, against the emphatic protest of the business community interested in the case, Mr. Cameron has only given new proof of his bad faith and poured a little more oil into the flame.

Mr. Blaine has declined an invitation from his friends in Maine to become the Republican candidate "for Congressman-at-large" in that State. The principal reason he gives is that, in justice to those who have even a stronger claim upon him than the "great constituency" in Maine, he has to devote himself to his "long-neglected private affairs." This reason may be quite true and sufficient in itself, but it is also true that his election as Congressman-at-large, if he accepted the candidacy, would be an exceedingly doubtful thing. And this Mr. Blaine knows very well. He has undoubtedly a large number of enthusiastic friends among the Republicans of Maine, but also a great many very determined opponents, not confined to the Democratic or Greenback party, who would work hard to defeat him. And their numerical strength and influence are so large that Mr. Blaine would not only not be the strongest, but one of the weakest candidates the Republicans of Maine could nominate. It would be highly inexpedient for Mr. Blaine to expose himself to a defeat which would finish his political prospects.

The temperance question has been making a world of trouble for the Republican managers in Ohio, and is now leaving them very much in the position of the Old Man and his Ass. The Legislature recently passed the Pond Liquor Law, which compelled every dealer not only to take out an expensive license, but to give a bond. This seemed likely to secure the temperance vote, which amounts to about 16,000, even if it alienated the German vote. But now the Supreme Court has declared the act unconstitutional, so that there is nothing to offer the temperance men in the way of legislation, and they ask for more in the way of declaration than any party dare give. In the meantime the Germans are so much exasperated by the law that its nullification by the courts does not satisfy them, and they are disaffected to the party on the ground of radical unsoundness on this issue. The Republican Convention meets as we go to press, and it is very difficult to devise anything effective for the platform. The prospect is said to be rendered all the more gloomy by the widespread dissatisfaction caused by the apparent "proscription" of the Garfield officeholders by President Arthur. The "war" which he has been carrying on against these gentlemen may be fun for him, but it is a serious matter for Republicans who have to carry State elections without the assistance of "the boys" in New York.

The Roman Catholic Bishop of Cleveland is at odds with some of the women of his diocese. It seems that the Parnell Land League there has a ladies' branch. Bishop Gilmour has his own views of Irish wrongs and reme-

dies, and, in "a card" to the *Catholic Universe*, refers to his "late lecture" on the subject. Difference of opinion in this matter, however, is not the cause of the trouble. He intimates that if the local Land League had "confined itself to male membership," there would have been no difficulty. But as it tolerates a female branch, he denounces "the presidentess thereof" and her associates as "brawling politicians"; and his "card" concludes with a formal excommunication of these women and all others who shall attend any of their meetings. He denies them the guidance and consolation of the Church, not because they advise tenants not to pay rent, or encourage them to shoot their landlords, or because they have opposed the Land Act or connived at the Dublin murders, but because they hold meetings for the discussion of the Irish question at all. When they do this they become "brawling politicians," and "assume the brazen unwomanliness of female politicians." "Female modesty must be maintained," exclaims the Bishop, "let the cost be what it may!" "Woman must be woman," must "live within the modesty of the family circle," must "not be tainted with the noisy brawl of the virago." It will be seen that something more than the Irish question is involved here. According to the Bishop's card, any Roman Catholic woman who attends a public meeting, for the discussion of any subject whatever, becomes a "brawling politician" and a "virago," and incurs the penalty of excommunication.

The most curious "correction" probably ever addressed to the press has come from the pen of Mrs. Dunmire, Guiteau's former wife. She desires, she says, to participate in any movement that may be made to procure a commutation of his sentence, and wishes to say that "we"—presumably she and her present husband—"are not in favor of him being hung," the newspaper reports to the contrary notwithstanding. This is a very tender but very unusual mode of recognizing the force of old, though long dissolved, matrimonial associations, and it must touch Guiteau, hardened though he be.

At the Ministers' Conference of the Baptist Church in this city on Monday, the Rev. William Harris, of St. Joseph, Mo., sought to exonerate the Missouri Baptists from the charge of sympathy and fellowship with Jesse James. He denied that James was a Baptist church member at the time of his death, but admitted that he had been one, and that his father had been a Baptist minister, and that his mother was a Baptist church member now, but maintained that all good Missouri Baptists were glad of his death, though they did not like to have him killed in the way "the Ford boys" killed him. He had himself refused to perform services over his body at St. Joseph, and the task was performed by another minister elsewhere, who had, however, refrained from eulogizing the defunct. We cannot help thinking that a minister, Baptist or other, who, on such an occasion, spoke his mind out freely about the defunct, and painted him as the dreadful scoundrel and cut-throat that he really was, would not only perform his simple duty as a minister, but greatly improve the occasion. We admit, however, that such a discourse would in Missouri perhaps lead to a row among the mourners, which might either compel the minister to fly precipitately or resort to the arm of flesh for his own protection.

Despatches from Quincy, Illinois, report the shooting of Dr. Hoffman, editor of the *Germania*, by Dr. Spear and "the Hellhake boys," but do not make the motives of the crime as clear as could be wished. It seems that the article which "is supposed to have led to the shooting speaks kindly of all the persons mentioned in it." A eulogistic editorial notice of this kind seldom leads to murder in the East, and it is difficult to see why it should in Illinois. The publicity of praise may be disagreeable to persons of extremely sensitive natures, and a friendly puff may be so exaggerated as to cause pain; but the account given of the two Hellhakes does not show them to be "boys" of exaggerated sensibility, or, in fact, different from other Illinois "boys." To the sociologist such cases look as if crime in the West was produced by different causes and governed by different laws from those which exist in other parts of the Union.

Franklin J. Moses, some time Governor of South Carolina, has been sent to the Penitentiary for six months, for petty larceny. It is only ten years since he was in office, with the United States Army and Navy at his back, and defending himself against arrest on judicial process with a guard of negro militia, and enjoying the support of a considerable portion of the Republican press at the North. His career furnishes a deplorable example of the kind of white man which the social revolution at the South brought into prominence after the war. Most of the others have disappeared into obscurity, and are only too glad to be forgotten. Moses was less lucky or less shrewd, and had the misfortune to be a drunkard. He has led a precarious existence as a petty swindler here for several years, but impunity made him too bold. It is, however, pleasant to remember that he was not a Northerner or a carpet-bagger. This unique specimen of a Governor was a native South Carolinian and an ardent Secessionist, and bore a prominent part in the attack on Fort Sumter. He then became a "repentant Rebel," but appears to have repented too rapidly and too much.

The new Tichborne claimant, who has been getting up his case in California, is going over to England very soon to establish his right to the title and estates. His backers are a gardener named Lane and two "Catholic instructors," with whom, however, he has not yet had an interview. His case therefore cannot be considered as carefully prepared, and is not so strong at the outset as that of the original claimant, who was recognized as Sir Roger by the latter's mother. On the other hand, he is said to be a "highly educated man," and his claims upon our interest are heightened by the fact that he is a "one-handed man," having lost one of his hands as a soldier in a New York regiment during the Rebellion. When a one-handed soldier crosses the ocean to assert his rights against the aristocracy of England, the judges, the Lord Chancellor, and the Queen, supported by her land and naval forces, backed only by a gardener and possibly two Catholic instructors, we cannot but sympathize with him quite as deeply as we have done with McEnery and Dr. Lamson in their trials. Is he not entitled to have his case pressed by our Government?

The Repression Bill is being pushed steadily through the Committee of the Whole in the House of Commons, all attempts of the Home Rulers to amend it having been defeated by heavy majorities. Thus far, however, it is only the constitution of the new courts, and the inclusion of treason-felony and treason committed on foreign soil in their jurisdiction, which have been the objects of attack. When the clauses are reached which give the Lord Lieutenant and the magistrates power to suppress newspapers and public meetings, the onslaughts of the Irish will undoubtedly come nearer success, if they do not attain it, as there is a strong dislike of these provisions among the English Radicals. In the debate, Sir William Harcourt, whose discomfiture the House always enjoys, seems to have got the worst of it in a set-to with Mr. Healy. He made the very extravagant statement that the clause making treason committed on foreign soil justiciable in Ireland was necessary to meet such cases as O'Donovan Rossa's, who ought to be punished even if he had only one reader on the other side of the water. This gave Healy the opportunity of saying that O'Donovan Rossa was as necessary to Sir William Harcourt as Sir William to O'Donovan Rossa, in which there is a great deal of truth. O'Donovan Rossa owes much of the prosperity of his paper and his own notoriety to his having apparently shaken the nerves of the English Home Secretary, and, on the other hand, whenever Sir William is hard up for an argument in favor of Irish coercion he always says, "Look at O'Donovan Rossa."

The solution of the Egyptian problem has made very little progress. The conference of the Powers will probably soon be held, but the date is not fixed, and the Sultan has issued a circular opposing it *in toto*, on the ground that it is not necessary, inasmuch as he will settle the whole matter himself, if permitted. His dislike of European conferences is quite comprehensible, inasmuch as they rarely meet without stripping him of something or imposing some new and disagreeable duty on him. He has sent orders to Arabi Bey to stop throwing up earthworks around Alexandria, which he has been doing, it appears, within five hundred yards of the British and French fleets. The Admirals have, however, been somewhat indifferent to the process, knowing that Arabi has no guns to arm the works with, which could survive a single broadside from the ships. But he is enjoying a certain appearance of power and impunity, owing to the fear of the British and French that if they employed force against him, even on a small scale, it would expose the foreigners at Cairo to a popular Mussulman outbreak, which would certainly endanger their property and might endanger their lives.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE great strike of the members of the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel-Workers was fairly begun on Thursday. The morning of that day found twenty-six iron rolling-mills of Pittsburgh silent, and 25,000 workmen out of employment. Despatches from Milwaukee, Cincinnati, Chicago, and many other cities announced that the strike had also begun in those places. The Association professes to have a million dollars in the treasury at Pittsburgh. The proprietor of one of the mills at Pittsburgh which was closed by the strike, and who is said to be one of the best-informed men in the business, was interviewed on Friday, and is reported to have said that he thought the strikers would succeed, for the reason that the manufacturers were not prepared to fight the Association, and there was no union among them.

The total number of immigrants that arrived in New York during the month of May was 86,677, as against 78,359 for the same period in 1881. The total number of arrivals since January 1 was 227,325, an increase of 39,843 over the corresponding period of last year. Of those arriving during the month of May, the Germans take the lead, with 30,047, followed by the Irish, with 13,453.

A request having been made that the eight-hour law should be enforced in the Navy-yards, Attorney-General Brewster has written an opinion on the matter, taking the ground that the existing laws on the subject are conflicting and defective, and that further legislation is required. It is understood that the President will send a special message to Congress on the subject.

The Army Appropriation Bill was passed by the Senate on Tuesday. The compulsory-retirement clause makes the retiring age sixty-four years.

In further compliance with the Senate's resolution of December 12 of last year, calling for copies of the instructions to our Minister in London, in regard to the proposed modification of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, the President, on Monday, submitted to the Senate a copy of a despatch sent by the Secretary of State to Mr. Lowell and dated May 8, 1882. The points made in the despatch are in substance as follows: 1st, the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is no longer binding upon the United States, because England herself has violated its provisions. The treaty forbade both the United States and Great Britain to extend their authority in Central America. This stipulation England violated in the case of Honduras; 2d, the great object of the treaty was to hasten the construction of a canal on the Nicaragua route. This object failed, and therefore all agreements with Nicaragua concerning the maintenance of neutrality have ceased to be in force, and cannot be revived for the benefit of any other scheme. In regard to the suggestion made by Lord Granville, in his note of January 7, that the United States should take the initiative in an invitation to other Powers to participate in an agreement based upon the Convention of 1850, Mr. Frelinghuysen says that the President "is constrained by the considerations already presented to say that the United States cannot take part in extending such an invitation, and to state with entire frankness that the United States would look with disfavor upon an attempt at a concert of political action by other Powers in that direction."

The consideration of the Mackey-Dibble contested-election case was resumed in the House of Representatives on Wednesday. The resolution from the Committee on Elections declaring Mackey entitled to the seat was finally adopted. On Thursday, the contested-election case from the Second Florida District was called up, and Mr. Bisbee, the Republican candidate, was seated by a vote of 141 to 9. On Friday the Lowe-Wheeler case from the Eighth Alabama District was taken up and the day consumed in its discussion. On Saturday Mr. Lowe, the Republican candidate, was declared entitled to the seat, by a vote of 149 to 3.

An exhaustive report was made to the House of Representatives on Tuesday in response to a resolution intimating that undue influence and haste were used in passing the Bonded Spirits Bill. The report denies that the bill was passed hastily, and says that the Commissioner of Internal Revenue made no suggestions except when asked to do so by the Committee.

On Tuesday, on motion of Mr. Kasson, the House unanimously adopted resolutions eulogizing General Garibaldi, and expressing sympathy with Italy in her bereavement.

A memorial was presented to the House on Monday from the American Meteorological Society and others, with regard to the establishment of standard time. The memorial asks that Congress adopt such measures as may be necessary to bring about an international conference for the purpose of selecting a prime meridian and securing its universal adoption as a standard of reference for the regulation of local time.

A Republican caucus will be held on Wednesday evening, to decide on a programme of business for the rest of the Congressional session.

The President has approved the act for the reëstablishment of the Court of Commissioners of *Alabama* Claims and for the distribution of the unappropriated moneys of the Geneva Award.

The President has spent most of the week in New York, and is reported to have had consultations with the leading politicians of the State, preparatory to the nomination of Secretary Folger for Governor, and the inauguration of a campaign to be conducted on strict Stalwart principles.

A despatch to the New York *Tribune* on Tuesday stated that the renewed rumors of Mr. Lowell's return are without foundation, and that there is excellent authority for saying that Mr. Lowell has not been recalled and has not resigned, and that no name is being considered for his place.

A large number of prominent and influential Maine Republicans, aggregating several thousands in all, addressed a letter, dated May 18, to Mr. Blaine, asking him to consent to be nominated for Congressman-at-large from that State. On Saturday Mr. Blaine wrote in reply that "neglected private affairs, from which I cannot at this time turn aside, except with injustice to those who have even a stronger claim upon me than the great constituency which in all these years has honored me with an earnest support and unwavering confidence," would make it impossible for him to consent to the use of his name.

The Fusion Greenback Convention met at Bangor, Maine, on Thursday, and chose a State Committee, and nominated Harris M. Plaisted for Governor.

A majority and a minority report in the matter of Judge Westbrook, of the Supreme Court of New York, were presented to the Assembly by the Judiciary Committee, which has had charge of the investigation of the Judge's acts, on Wednesday. The majority report "whitewashed" him, and the minority report recommended that he be impeached. The former was adopted by a vote of 77 to 35. This action of the Assembly has aroused a great outcry throughout the State. The Legislature, which adjourned on Friday, has earned, in the opinion of many, the reputation of being the most corrupt and dishonest Legislature since the days of Tweed's ascendancy.

The Rhode Island Legislature has passed resolutions appropriating $10,000 for an equestrian statue of General Burnside to be erected in Providence, provided $20,000 is raised by private subscription. $7,500 was also appropriated for a statue of Commodore Perry, to be erected in Newport. The Legislature will meet on June 13 to reëlect Senator Henry B. Anthony to the Senate.

A committee of the Louisiana House of Representatives has reported strongly against legalizing any more lottery companies, and, in the Senate, a proposed amendment to the Constitution, abolishing all lottery charters, passed two readings by a vote of 22 to 12.

General Sherman has submitted to the Secretary of War the report of a board appointed to investigate the loss in lives and property caused by the recent Indian outbreak in Arizona. From this report it appears that forty-two persons were killed and five wounded. The depredations committed, as reported to the board by citizens, involved a loss to stock and other property of about $30,250.

General Fuero, commander of the Mexican troops at Chihuahua, with four hundred Mexican cavalry, surprised and attacked a band of renegade Apaches, early on the morning of the 25th of May, near Bosque de Santiago. Thirty-seven Indians were killed and ten taken prisoners, and the entire camp outfit, including fifty head of stock, was captured. This is the second time that Mexican troops have inflicted severe loss on the Apaches, who are reported to be much demoralized, and will probably now keep quiet for some time.

Bishop Gilmour, of the Cleveland Catholic diocese, issued a card to the ladies of the Land League of Cleveland, threatening their excommunication unless they renounced all relations to the League. The ladies refused to comply, and "in plain words told the Bishop to mind his own business." On Sunday, the President of the Ladies' Land League offered for publication an open letter to Bishop Gilmour, in which she upholds the righteousness of the cause the Land League is engaged in, flings defiance at the Bishop, and wishes to know how "one Bishop, without authority from the fountain-head of the Church, can excommunicate any individual or society engaged in the freedom of their native land?" Bishop Gilmour not only refuses to answer this inquiry, but goes so far as to say that he will take no cognizance of it whatever.

The proposition which was made to remove the body of Thomas Jefferson from the old grave-yard at Monticello and place it in a cemetery in Washington has met with such widespread opposition in Virginia that it is extremely unlikely that the plan will be carried out.

A new Atlantic Cable Company has been formed, with a capital of $10,000,000. The general route of the line of telegraph is from New York city to some point convenient upon the coast of the United States, and thence to the coast of Portugal, Spain, or France.

Lieutenant Danenhower, of the *Jeannette*, has been directed to prepare at his leisure a detailed account of his experiences after separating from Engineer Melville.

The long-postponed Star-route trials were finally begun on Thursday. In the matter of challenging the jurors, the Court ruled that the prosecution was entitled to only three peremptory challenges, while each of the defendants was entitled to four, making a total of twenty-eight. Mr. George Bliss opened for the Government on Friday, and concluded his argument on Monday.

Mr. Reed, counsel for Guiteau, presented a petition to the District Supreme Court at Washington, on Friday, asking for a rehearing of the case of his client. The application was on purely technical grounds. On Monday the Court delivered its opinion, refusing to grant the petition. The Judges declare that a reargument would bring them to no other conclusion than that which they have already arrived at. On Tuesday, in the Criminal Court, Mr. Read read a motion that the record and judgment in the case be amended so as to show that President Garfield did not die in the District of Columbia as alleged. Judge Wylie denied the motion.

Franklin J. Moses, ex-Governor of South Carolina, was sentenced in New York on Tuesday to six months in the Penitentiary, for obtaining money on false pretences.

FOREIGN.

The event of the week in Europe has been the death of General Giuseppe Garibaldi, which occurred on Friday at his home on the island of Caprera. The event created a profound sensation throughout Italy. In Rome all the performances in the theatres were stopped when the news arrived. In the Italian Chamber of Deputies on Saturday President Farini delivered a panegyric on the deceased patriot, while the whole House remained standing. Bills were passed postponing the national fête until June 18, decreeing funeral honors, voting a monument to his memory, and pensions to his wife and children. Both the Senate and Chamber then adjourned. The French Chamber of Deputies also adjourned, as a sign of mourning. Movements are on foot in many Italian cities to erect monuments to Garibaldi's memory. The body, in accordance with the will of the deceased, is to be cremated on Wednesday, and the funeral will be attended by deputations from the Senate and Chamber of Deputies and the municipality of Rome, and representatives of the King and Ministry. Victor Hugo has accepted the honorary Presidency of the funeral, but has telegraphed that he cannot be present on account of his great age.

On Thursday it was announced that the representatives in Constantinople of all the Powers had counselled the Sultan to comply with the demand of the French and British Governments for a declaration by the Sultan in favor of the Khedive, and summoning the leaders of the *émeute* to Constantinople. The Porte sent a letter to Arabi Bey warning him that he would be held personally responsible for the preservation of order and the safety of the European residents. Arabi then issued circulars to the consuls, repeating his assurances that the European residents were safe. On Sunday a Turkish Commission sailed for Egypt with the object of endeavoring to effect a reconciliation between the Khedive and Arabi Bey, and the Porte sent a circular to its representatives abroad, expressing the opinion that the proposed conference of the Powers is no longer called for, as the Commission sent to Egypt will be sufficient to restore order. Meanwhile the aspect of affairs in Egypt has not changed much. Arabi Bey is doing his utmost to strengthen his position by sending out circulars denouncing the Khedive, organizing the Army, and deporting to the Sudan prominent persons hostile to him. The troops in the barracks at Cairo have held excited meetings, demanding that Halim Pasha be proclaimed Khedive. Arabi Bey has been throwing up earthworks and fortifying Alexandria. The British Government protested to the Sultan against these military preparations, and the latter telegraphed the Khedive to request Arabi Bey to discontinue them, but the telegram is said to have come too late, as the fortifications at Alexandria were already completed. The English and French fleets at Alexandria have been strengthened by recent arrivals, and the English commander is said now to be able to land 1,000 men in case of an emergency. The general feeling that the Porte has been playing a double part, secretly encouraging Arabi Bey while pretending to support the Khedive, has been strengthened by the events of the week. Arabi Bey openly boasts that he has been supported in his course by the Turkish Government.

The news from Egypt on Tuesday was that a meeting of the military leaders had been held at Arabi Bey's house, at which it was decided to observe an expectant attitude until the Turkish Commissioners had disclosed the Sultan's intentions. Should the Sultan attempt to maintain the present Khedive in power, the military party are said to be resolved to wreak vengeance on the Khedive, even at the cost of their lives. Advices from Constantinople state that the German Ambassador, after an audience with the Sultan on Tuesday, informed Lord Dufferin that the Sultan would sustain the Khedive loyally and energetically.

In the House of Commons on Thursday the Government made some statements on the Egyptian situation. Sir Charles Dilke, in reply to a question, said the Government, at the suggestion of France, had agreed to invite the other Powers to a conference for the settlement of the Egyptian question on the basis of the *status quo*. The Government, he said, had on February 6 proposed to M. de Freycinet to take the other Powers into their confidence. Mr. Gladstone said that what was feared by the European residents in Egypt, as likely to endanger their safety, was European military intervention. The Government considered itself pledged to uphold the present Khedive, because he had, so far as they could judge, behaved with perfect honor and good faith. In regard to the question of Turkish intervention, Mr. Gladstone said that it, rather than European intervention, was desirable, because there was danger that the latter would inflame fanaticism

In a debate on the same day in the French Chamber of Deputies, on the Egyptian question, M. de Freycinet defended the proposed European concert; any other course, he said, must lead to complications. The idea of French military intervention had no place in the Government's plans. M. Gambetta said he could not hear without a protest that France would not intervene, and M. de Freycinet then explained that he meant France would never agree to cut the Egyptian question by her own isolated action, but that in entering the European concert she had accepted the duties which the decisions of Europe might entail. An order of the day expressing confidence in the Government was then adopted by a vote of 298 to 70.

In the debate on the release of the suspects in the House of Lords on Monday evening, Lord Cowper, who was Lord Lieutenant of Ireland when the Irish members of Parliament were released, said that he had only signed the order for their release after obtaining an understanding that his action should be considered as a mere matter of official routine. He believed that the opinion of the educated classes was against the release, as the sudden manner in which it was effected gave the matter the appearance of a complete surrender to disorder.

Lord Spencer, on receiving a deputation from the Corporation of Limerick on Tuesday, the 30th, said he trusted shortly to be able to release the last of the suspects. Christopher Palles, Lord Chief Baron of the Exchequer in Ireland, in opening the Dublin Commission on Friday, said that fifty-six per cent. of the crimes in the city, and seventy per cent. of those in the country were undetected—a matter for grave reflection. As to the Phœnix Park murders, he understood there was no chance of bringing the perpetrators to justice. Mr. Brennan, Secretary of the Land League, who was released from prison on Friday, delivered a violent address in Kilkenny immediately after his release, in which he said his real jailers were Gladstone, Bright, Chamberlain, "and the whole crowd of pseudo-humanitarians and renegade Republicans who compose the British Cabinet." He hoped if the 800 suspects were called on for real sacrifice, they would be ready, if necessary, to die for their country.

Mr. Sexton, Member of Parliament for Sligo, addressing his constituents, said that the land movement had wrung the Land Act from a reluctant and ignorant legislature. He violently condemned the Repression Bill, and, in reference to the alien clauses, he expressed doubt whether the relations between England and the United States were so friendly as to make it worth while for the former to embitter them still further. The Irish party, he said, felt it their duty to meet the bill with stern and resolute opposition. There were no splits in the party, and the triumph of the land movement in a year or two was certain.

Messrs. Davitt and Dillon will sail for New York on Thursday next.

The House of Commons went into committee on the Repression Bill on Friday. The treason-felony clause was the subject of a warm discussion. Sir William Harcourt said the clause would apply only to offences committed after the passage of the act. Mr. Parnell said that this statement was satisfactory as far as it went, but that political offences ought to be entirely excluded from the bill. After further discussion a vote was taken on the amendment, excluding cases of treason or treason-felony from those to be tried by the Special Commission Courts, and the amendment was lost by a vote of 70 to 227, but about forty Liberals voted with the minority. Various other amendments were offered by members of the Irish party, but were all rejected. On Monday evening debate on the bill was resumed. In the course of the discussion, several Irish members expressed the wish that the Special Commission Courts be precluded from trying prisoners for treason in consequence of words spoken or written in a foreign country, but Sir William Harcourt insisted that British subjects who in England or elsewhere counselled invasion of England, or committed treasonable acts, ought on coming within the jurisdiction of England to be made amenable for such counsels or acts. The House, by a vote of 138 to 25, approved the Home Secretary's views. Mr. Parnell made a speech in which he said the Phœnix Park murders had produced a desire to assist in the enforcement of the law, but this feeling disappeared when the Repression Bill was introduced. He declared that the bill would tend to increase outrages. A division was then taken on the first clause of the bill, and it was passed in committee by a vote of 227 to 37. The second clause of the bill, which provides for appeal from Special Commission Courts to the Court of Criminal Appeal, was then adopted unanimously. The House in Committee passed the third clause, prescribing the manner of the constitution of the Court of Criminal Appeal, on Tuesday, by a vote of 82 to 29.

Great excitement is said to prevail in India over an order issued by the Marquis of Hartington, Secretary of State for India, for the immediate repeal of the Petroleum Act of 1881, and the substitution therefor of a new act allowing the importation of any oil, subject to the orders of the Viceroy. The Chamber of Commerce of Calcutta has presented an address to the Government, strongly deprecating the Marquis of Hartington's measure. The Indian Government will take a week to consider the matter.

A despatch from Vienna says that Herr von Kallay has accepted the portfolio of Imperial Minister of Finance with the Administration of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

In Committee of the French Chamber of Deputies on the appropriation for Tunis, M. de Freycinet said the policy of the Government was not the annexation of Tunis, but the establishment of a protectorate as defined by the Bardo treaty.

The *Napoléon*, the organ of Prince Jerome Napoleon in Paris, has suspended publication on account of a lack of popular support. Prince Napoleon has written a final letter to the editor, declaring that his sons will always represent true Napoleonic doctrines "despite perfidious appeals to the worst sentiments." This is supposed to refer to M. Paul de Cassagnac's efforts to secure the recognition of Prince Victor as the head of the Bonapartist party, to the exclusion of Prince Napoleon.

The Princess Louise arrived in Quebec on Sunday night on the steamer *Sarmatian*. She was received with much enthusiasm and appeared to be in good health.

TUESDAY, June 6, 1882.

THE CROPS AND THE STRIKES.

THAT the present disturbances in industry, especially in the iron and cotton trades, are directly traceable to the deficient crops of last year, there seems little reason to doubt. Everywhere the strikers complain that they cannot live on the wages they are getting. Money wages have not been reduced except in a very few cases, but the cost of living has increased. The wages will not go so far in procuring the necessaries of life as last year and the year before. On the other hand, the employers say that the market for their products has fallen off, that they cannot sell at last year's prices, and that to pay higher wages under such conditions is impossible. There is good ground for believing that both are correct. There being less to divide this year than last year or the year before, the parties to the division must take less. Struggle with each other as they may, they cannot increase the sum total of their share of the nation's wealth; therefore, they can add nothing to the two halves of it by strikes or lock-outs. Last year's drought inflicted an enormous loss upon the country. Wide as our area is, no part of it wholly escaped the visitation. It fell upon the wheat, the corn, the cotton, the hay, the potato, and the fruits. Everything that depends upon the rainfall was shrunken and diminished. Some of our richest agricultural districts did not produce enough grain and meat for their own consumption.

The principal difference between British and American manufacturing industry is that the former has for its customers the population of the whole world, while the latter restricts itself as far as possible to the population of the United States. It results from this difference that a bad harvest in the British Islands, although a serious curtailment of the national resources, has little effect upon other industries than agriculture. In the United States, on the other hand, a bad harvest falls with blighting effect upon every other trade. Our iron trade is prostrate to-day and our iron-workers are on strike because the crops of 1881 were below the average. The dependence of the one upon the other, or rather the dependence of all the others upon agriculture, explains why every man of business is now straining his eyes and ears to catch the latest information regarding the growing crops. Too much wetness, too much dryness, too much cold, too much heat, the chinch-bug, the grasshopper, the cotton worm, the army worm, rust and blight, pleuro-pneumonia, and hog cholera—whatever plays havoc with fields and pastures, has for us an interest transcending every other interest, because we all feel and know that our bread and butter is made at home, and that if agriculture comes short, everything else must come short. Broadly speaking, we have no other resource.

The harvest of Great Britain is grown in Minnesota, California, Russia, Hungary, India, Canada, Australia, and Egypt, as well as in England and Ireland. Too much rain or too little in one country affects her but slightly, because the area of her wheat fields is coextensive with the earth. The bread of her iron-workers, her spinners and weavers, her sailors, her craftsmen of every sort, is grown as well in Illinois, or in Spain, or in Poland, as in Hampshire or in Berkshire. The failure of crops in one country, while never a matter of indifference, causes her the least possible harm because she does not depend upon one country. Freedom of trade has virtually annexed to her all the wheat fields of the world, and it makes no difference to her manufacturers and artisans whether her food is produced at home or abroad. In the years 1878, 1879, and 1880, she had three bad harvests in succession. Her landowners and farmers were severely pinched, but her prosperity in the aggregate was scarcely impaired, because her wheat fields in Western America and other parts of the globe yielded abundantly. Three as bad harvests in the United States coming in succession would demolish every branch of industry between the Atlantic and the Pacific, except those of petroleum and the precious metals, and, in place of strikes, we should probably have bread riots of the most alarming description.

Why does Great Britain, with her limited area and uncertain climate, possess such advantage over us that the vicissitudes of seasons affect her lightly while they put us in the gravest peril? Plainly because she is able to offer to those who have an abundance of food when she has a scarcity, more of the things they want—more pounds of iron, more yards of cloth, greater quantities of manufactures in general—than we can. Her superiority consists neither in natural resources, nor in native or acquired skill, nor in accumulated capital. Our natural resources are, upon the whole, greater than hers; our skill is equal, and our accumulated capital, if not as great, is sufficient, and more than sufficient, for all purposes of competition with her. With 281 iron furnaces out of blast at this time (as the *Tribune* informs us), there cannot be any lack of capital to carry on the iron business. On the contrary, there would seem to be an inconvenient surplus. Our inferiority to England consists in a rapacious system of taxation called "protection to American industry," based upon the crude idea that if all trades are allowed to feed off each other's vitals, the result will be generally invigorating and fattening. Scarcely a week passes that we do not hear of some distressed industry appealing to the public authorities at Washington for relief, upon the ground that the duties upon its raw materials are greater than those upon its finished product—assertions which may be true or may not, but, whether true or false, serve equally well to illustrate the cannibal practices of our whole tariff system. We shall never be in a position to compete with England in manufactures; we shall never be sheltered as she is sheltered against the contingency of bad harvests and bad seasons, until we begin to strike off the self-imposed shackles which restrict our commerce with the world.

THE ADVISORY BOARD AND FITZ-JOHN PORTER'S CASE.

GENERAL LOGAN'S minority report on the bill restoring Fitz-John Porter to his rank in the Army lays great stress on the assumption "that the Advisory Board was an illegal body, unwarranted by law or by precedent," and from this draws the conclusion that the opinions of the members should weigh no more "than the opinions of any other three gentlemen." This is really the only novel or strong point in General Logan's position. His discussion of the evidence taken by the Board will only interest those who think the General himself a candid and impartial man, accustomed to weighing proofs, who approaches this case without prejudice. When he says, therefore, that "the assumptions of the Board are not borne out or justified by the records or the evidence," he simply says that General Logan does not agree about the Fitz-John Porter case with Generals Schofield and Terry and Colonel Getty. He does not throw any new light on the subject.

His objection to the authority of the Advisory Board on the ground that it was a body unknown to the law, will, however, probably strike a good many unreflecting people as something weighty, if not insuperable, and, in fact, has apparently made some such impression on the plastic intellect of our contemporary, the *Times*. But the fact is that the objection is not only without weight, but without relevancy. It has no bearing on the merits of the case whatever. It would be important, if Fitz-John Porter or the President claimed for the Advisory Board the character of a court, to which an appeal lay from the judgment of a court-martial, and which had the power to overrule such judgment. But nobody has ever maintained that it was a court of any kind, or that any appeal lay to it from a court-martial or any other court whatever, or that it was an organization known to the law, or that it had any judicial powers whatever. So that when any one denies all these things he denies nothing which is of the smallest consequence. The Advisory Board was simply what its name indicates—a board of officers, requested by the President to examine the charges against Fitz-John Porter, and the evidence on which they were based, and let him know what conclusions they reached. The notion that these conclusions are at all weakened by the non-official character of the Board is due to the entirely mistaken supposition that the legal authority and moral authority of a court are derived from the same source. They are not derived from the same source at all. A judge's decision has only as much *moral* weight as his mind and character give it; while it has as much *legal* weight as the law gives it. If Generals Schofield and Terry and Colonel Getty had sat as a court-martial, the practical effect of their opinions would have been different, but their force as pieces of reasoning would have been just the same. The reason why people respect their findings in the Porter case is, that they are considered to be military men of the highest standing and character, who have made a painstaking examination of it; and this is the very reason, and no other, which would make people respect their findings if they had sat as a court-martial.

They examined the case in order to advise the President. They have advised him, and he has taken their advice within his own sphere, and now recommends Congress to take it in its sphere. This conveys no reflection on the original court-martial. It simply

says that that court, though composed of upright officers, sat in the most exciting period of the war, when party passion and professional jealousy ran furiously high, and when much evidence which is now available was not forthcoming. Nothing was more likely than that such a tribunal, sitting at such a time, should do great injustice. Nothing can now completely protect it against this imputation except proof of its inspiration. Is this forthcoming? We imagine not. We believe all acknowledge that the influences which governed its action were purely human.

Moreover, it cannot be true that the opinions of such officers as composed the Advisory Board are of no more weight "than those of any other three gentlemen." They must be of more weight than those of any three civilians, and are probably of more weight than those of all soldiers of less experience and less capacity, and of all who have not examined the case. We must believe this, or give up all faith in the future of mankind. If Generals Schofield and Terry know no more about war and Fitz-John Porter than any other men, we can hardly avoid the conclusion that nobody knows more than anybody else on any subject, and that there is no reason why General Logan should not have been sent out to Egypt to observe the late total eclipse of the sun for the Naval Observatory.

GARIBALDI.

The man who more than any man of our time has furnished modern Europe with a specimen of mediæval romance has just died. He was old and broken, and the fitful fever of his life had ended years ago, and his latest ventures were not successful, but he nevertheless retained to the last such a hold on the popular imagination as probably no real hero has ever had before. To find any parallel for the way in which he has fed the fancy of our century one has to go to fable rather than to history. His match must be looked for among the Knights of the Round Table or the Twelve Peers of Charlemagne, rather than among the warriors or sea-rovers, generals or filibusters of real story. Cortez, Pizarro, Drake, Hawkins, Charles XII., Clive, Napoleon, Lord Dundonald, all had the resources of great states in some degree at their command when they made their contributions to the history of adventure by land and sea. Garibaldi had nothing but a dauntless courage, a passionate love of his country, and absolute simplicity of character. With these for his whole equipment, he literally went forth conquering and to conquer, like the White Horse in the Revelation. He found when he reached man's estate the progress of the revolution, which was finally to transform Europe, still checked by the weariness of the great wars which closed at Waterloo. In England and in France Liberalism had made some headway, and effected some solid gains, but over the rest of the Continent there was still but little sign of the working of that new force the advent of which Goethe had seen and announced on the field of Valmy. As Lord Beaconsfield said at a still later period, in his gaudy style, the world was still ruled by monarchs and statesmen in somewhat ostentatious indifference to the tides of popular feeling. Garibaldi's appearance at Rome, in 1848, was part of the resumption of the great process which was finally to cover the Continent with constitutions, and bring the mediæval régime at last to a close. He was beaten there, but his defeat by the French was really a help to his cause. It was for the French the first step on the downward road which ended at Sedan and made Italy really free and independent; for an Italy created or permitted by a strong, victorious, and exultant France would have had at best but a precarious and trying existence. The final overthrow in France of the detestable reaction in Church and State to which the French Republic lent itself in 1849 was in reality necessary to establish Italian nationality on a sure and lasting foundation, and to this the fall of Rome did more than its retention by Garibaldi and Mazzini, and their subsequent political experimentation, would have done.

For Garibaldi's fame his flights and wanderings after the triumph of the French and Austrians did everything. They increased his hold on the popular imagination. His adventures in misfortune proved that he had the real stuff of a hero in him, which success in fight does not always do. They spread his glory beyond Italy, and satisfied the workingmen of every country that he was something more than an Italian—that he was the champion of all who were desolate and oppressed, no matter under what flag they were born, or in what tongue they spoke. He showed, too, that a modern workingman could display all the qualities which history had from time immemorial reserved for the conventional gentleman. Nobody ever denied that Garibaldi was a gentleman from head to foot. None of the mediæval chroniclers had anything to tell of their military heroes which something in his character or career would not parallel. Bayard, and Du Guesclin, and Sidney were not braver, or gentler, or more uncomplaining, or more unselfish, or readier to show, in the hours which try men's souls, both how to live and how to die. The result was that when in 1859 the supreme moment came, he was all ready for that most marvellous of his exploits, the overthrow of the Neapolitan monarchy and the annexation of the Two Sicilies to Italy. His subsequent career illustrated his restlessness, and his patriotism and humanity, and also, it must be added, his want of judgment, but added nothing to his fame. But his very errors served to endear him still more to his countrymen and to the people everywhere. He became the spoiled child, not only of the new Italian kingdom, but of the European democracy. Everything was forgiven to him in consideration of his past services. His follies even had an indescribable charm—the charm of heroism of the antique type, the simple type which Plutarch has painted, but the reproduction of which in our time the newspapers are making less and less possible, because its largest element was its unconsciousness, and the modern hero finds it difficult to be unconscious.

This age certainly will not look upon Garibaldi's like again. Indeed, the circumstances which produced him were peculiar, and have wholly passed away. He was the product of conditions which exist no longer, and was born to overcome enemies with whom our society will never have to contend again. The old king and the old priest are gone, and will never return. What will take their place as hindrances to human happiness, who can foresee? But that Italy should have produced such a champion to combat them as Garibaldi, was one of the innumerable proofs her soil has afforded of its inexhaustible fruitfulness. The Italian race has in every age of its history, and every stage of its greatness or its degradation, managed to produce great men, and just the kind of great men the epoch seemed to call for, and on this mysterious fertility no length or depth of political or social misfortune or decay seems to have had much effect. That a country which had lived so long under the worst type of princelet and prelate, should have brought forth at the right time the generation which achieved Italian unity, and should have contributed to the last tableau in the story a figure in all ways so resplendent and picturesque as the gallant old man who has just gone to his rest, is surely a marvellous evidence of the way in which, among races as well as individuals, blood tells.

THE PREVENTION OF CRIME BILL.

London, May 25.

It is long since England has witnessed any period into which so much of dramatic as well as political interest has been crowded as the first three weeks of this May. Even without the terrible tragedy of the Phœnix Park, there have been surprises, explanations, recriminations sufficient to fill a whole year of Parliamentary history. Each of the leaders has been playing his part with the same sort of passion, expressing himself with the same sort of concentrated force, which one finds in one of Shakspere's historical dramas; even the visible incidents have been many of them well suited to the stage. What the permanent effect on the strength and relations of parties will be does not yet appear; in the meantime it is sufficient to convey to you some impression of the phases through which public feeling has passed.

The crisis began with the release of the three suspect members, announced on the 2d of May, and the resignation of Mr. Forster, which he explained and justified on the 4th. The first effect of these two changes was to displease the Tory party, to gratify the more advanced section of the Liberal party, and to alarm the more conservative Liberals, who had trusted Mr. Forster, and doubted whether his disappearance from the Cabinet did not mean the relaxation of efforts to maintain order and enforce the law in Ireland. They were further disposed to this belief by the fact that the Government had announced their intention to move more toward a conciliatory policy, and by Mr. Gladstone's reference to certain assurances which had been brought to the Government's knowledge, assurances proceeding from Mr. Parnell and his friends, and declaring their intentions to exert themselves for the prevention of outrages and the restoration of tranquillity in Ireland. Mr. Gladstone, while expressly denying that there had been any compact between the Ministry and the Nationalist leaders, had dwelt on these assurances as an important element in the situation which had led the Government to adopt a sanguine view. Mr. Parnell and his friends hastened to disclaim any obligations on their part, with an earnestness which made some people think the

Government had been beguiled into a piece of foolish leniency, and still more regret the secession of Mr. Forster. Thus it happened that combinations were formed among the Liberals to force the Government to declare at once by what measures for the repression of Irish crime it proposed to replace the Coercion Act, which was shortly to expire. The Tories threatened an attack with the same object, and the position of the Government was felt to be dangerous. Its hitherto faithful majority seemed on the eve of dissolving, and the support which the Parnellites might have given on a division would have ill compensated for the defection of those Whig landowners who form so influential a contingent in the Liberal army. Probably it would have bent to the storm, and given to Parliament an outline of its repressive measure, even if that measure had not yet been brought in. But the very day after these perils had shown themselves, the face of matters was suddenly and completely changed by the murders of Lord F. Cavendish and Mr. Burke. Although the English people bore the shock with dignity and calmness, there was a universal feeling that something must at once be done in Ireland; that before either Parliamentary procedure was set right or the question of tenants' arrears dealt with, secret societies, such as that from which the Dublin crime had proceeded, must be struck at promptly and vigorously. Accordingly the Government immediately announced that they would first of all bring in their Prevention of Crime Bill, and next their Arrears Bill, letting everything else stand over in the meantime.

Even the Parnellite members, horrified by the Dublin assassinations, scarcely protested against this course, for it was plain that whether the Ministry liked it or not, English feeling left them no option. When their intention was proclaimed people breathed again, and though some Conservative papers continued to demand nothing less than martial law, the general tendency was to acquit the Irish nation as a whole, and rather to hope that the sorrow and anger manifested in Ireland might lead to a better feeling between the two countries. Thus, while the partisans of Mr. Forster insisted that the murders proved how correct his view of the state of Ireland was, many people besought the Government to persevere with conciliation, and seek to use for permanent good the present revulsion of Irish sentiment. Among these varying voices the Government brought in upon the 11th, the night of Lord F. Cavendish's funeral, their bill for repressing Irish crime, and on the 19th obtained the second reading of it. It is a very stringent and comprehensive measure, which not only provides for the trial of a series of grave offences by a commission of three judges instead of by a jury, but also empowers the Lord Lieutenant to suppress pernicious newspapers, forbid public meetings, and grant general search-warrants enabling the police to enter houses to look for arms, while it also extends the summary jurisdiction of the magistrates, and creates several offences which they are empowered to punish. Such a measure startled everybody. The Tories and moderate Liberals received it with pleasure as evidence that the Government realized the gravity of the situation, and were prepared to grapple boldly with it. The more extreme Irish Nationalists regarded it as a new declaration of war by the Government, as putting an end to the prospects of reconciliation which the liberation of the three members had opened up. They prepared to give it a resolute, though hopeless, opposition—resolute, because they are, of course, obliged to meet the wishes of the more violent among their Irish constituents; hopeless, because they saw that when the Ministry is supported by the Conservative Opposition, and has also a pretty strong sentiment from England generally at its back, their resistance can do little, even when backed up, as in this instance it is, by a section of the Liberal party. Several Liberals sharply criticised the bill; some voted against it, while others abstained from voting. Were the Irish Nationalists more moderate in their language, they would receive a good deal of support from the advanced Liberals; but they seem fated to repeat the policy of last year, when nearly all those Liberals who had begun by sympathizing with them ended by joining the Government against them. We are now just entering the discussion of the bill in Committee, a stage which seems, from the number of amendments proposed, likely to occupy a long time. Already the Whitsuntide vacation has been cut down to two or three days only, and it is beginning to be clear that little but Irish business will occupy the remainder of the session.

More interesting to most people than even this remarkable series of developments in the policy of the Ministry toward Ireland have been the personal questions that arose out of the release of the suspects and the contemporaneous retirement of Mr. Forster. Your readers will recollect that when the Prime Minister announced that release he stated that it was made on the sole responsibility of the Government, but largely, or mainly, in consequence of information they had received as to the feelings and intentions of Mr. Parnell and Mr. Dillon. When interrogated as to the nature of this information, he answered that it was for those gentlemen to make their own statements regarding it. Mr. Parnell, on the second or third occasion when this answer had been given, rose and read a letter he had addressed from Kilmainham Jail to Captain O'Shea, member for Clare, who had been in communication with the Government regarding the Irish situation. In this letter Mr. Parnell's views and intentions were set forth. It was shown by Mr. O'Shea to the Government, and had gone a long way toward determining them to release the three members. When it was read in the House of Commons Mr. Forster suddenly asked whether what had been read was the whole of the letter, and on Mr. Parnell's answering that he had read all that was in the copy Mr. O'Shea had given him, but that there might have been another paragraph, Mr. Forster asked, and the House, by its manifestations of curiosity, insisted, that the whole should be read. Mr. O'Shea declared he had no other copy, but Mr. Forster dramatically, and in the midst of great excitement, thrust a copy into his hand, which he then accordingly read aloud. It contained an additional sentence in which Mr. Parnell expressed himself prepared, in case the Government proposed certain measures for the relief of the Irish tenants and further amendment of the Land Act of last year, "to coöperate with the Liberal Government in promoting Liberal principles." These words were laid hold of by the Conservatives as indicating that a bargain had in fact been made by the Ministry with Mr. Parnell for securing the support of him and his followers; and an angry debate followed, the next day, in the course of which one member went so far as to talk of the "infamy" of the Government, while others declaimed upon the dangerous precedent set for the future by what they called the "Treaty of Kilmainham."

Mr. Forster had a difficult part to sustain, and cannot be said to have sustained it successfully. He had exposed not only Mr. Parnell, but his own former colleagues, to sharp Tory criticism, by bringing out the omitted sentence in Mr. Parnell's letter: he had subsequently read a memorandum giving an account (the accuracy of which Mr. O'Shea denied) of an important interview he had held with Mr. O'Shea, and in which Mr. Parnell was represented as having offered to procure the assistance in stopping outrages of a person whom Mr. Forster declared to be a notorious organizer of outrages. He had taken the attitude of a man who would be no party to any negotiations or bargains with the Land Leaguers or other agents of disorder, and had been vehemently applauded by the Conservatives for conduct which it pleased them to contrast with that of the Government. All this greatly annoyed the Ministerialists, the more advanced and outspoken of whom, in the press as well as in Parliament, accused the late Chief Secretary of vindictiveness toward Mr. Parnell and want of loyalty to his own party. He who calmly reviews the whole matter will probably think that these charges are too severe, and that Mr. Forster, although he has certainly injured his friends, did not intend to do so, but was thinking partly of vindicating himself, partly of damaging Mr. Parnell, whose whole policy and conduct he condemns. Perhaps his chief mistake has been in not sufficiently recollecting that there are times when it is better to be silent than even to show that one has done right. And such an impartial observer will also be likely to conclude that far too much has been made of the "Treaty of Kilmainham" and the communications (which Mr. Gladstone will not allow to be called negotiations) that preceded it. If Mr. Parnell and his friends were going to behave quietly in future, nothing more natural than that they should say so—nothing more proper than that the Government, which had no right to keep them in prison untried unless they were dangerous to the public tranquillity, should take their statement into consideration. But it may be thought unfortunate that Mr. Gladstone should have laid so much stress on these communications as the principal ground which the Ministry had for their change of policy. Even without any declaration from Mr. Parnell, there were reasons, ample reasons, why the Coercion Act, which had obviously failed, should be dropped, the suspects liberated, and other measures taken to check crime and violence in Ireland. And it might have saved some recrimination if the Government could have secured that any communications not regarded by them as confidential should be made public at once, instead of being left to be extracted by a process of interrogation.

The incident is one which will no doubt be largely used by the Conservatives for some time to come; but it does not seem, judging from the large majority obtained by the Liberals at the election for Northwest Yorkshire a few days ago, to have much affected the opinion of the country. If Ireland now begins to quiet down, and outrages diminish, the Government may recover its prestige, and last till the next dissolution of Parliament, or longer. But it has certainly had a serious shake. So many apparent changes of attitude—for they are no doubt more apparent than real—within three weeks have disturbed the confidence of the public and diffused a sense of insecurity. Members who have once thought of openly combining against the Government are apt to be less close in their allegiance for the future. Indeed, it may be doubted whether without the personal loyalty to Mr. Gladstone which the advanced Liberals have, and the enthusiasm for him which the large constituencies have, the position of the Government would not be now a weak one.

Y.

THE TOBACCO MONOPOLY REJECTED.

BERLIN, May 17, 1882.

ON Saturday last, May 13, the tobacco monopoly was, on its first reading, defeated by the Reichstag by such an overwhelming majority

that the Chancellor will not be able to resuscitate it. Some eloquent speeches were made by the Opposition, but they contributed nothing toward winning a single vote, as every member had made up his mind beforehand. Only two speakers openly declared themselves in favor of the monopoly, and even among Bismarck's friends several spoke against it, while others will not vote at all. Two incidents, however, deserve to be especially mentioned: First, the leader of the Ultramontane party, Mr. Windthorst, declared flatly against the monopoly; so that, if words do not mean the contrary of what they are designed to convey, there is no possible chance of a retreat for the Centre, which commands about 100 votes. The last effort which Mr. Windthorst made yesterday to put off a decision has badly failed, as the object he had in view—that of once more trading and bartering with the Government—was too soon discovered. Next, there was a very significant speech by Mr. Vollmer, a Social-Democratic representative. Not that his deductions were of greater value than those of several other members, but in their practical tendency and in their unequivocal inferences they created quite a sensation among the adherents and followers of the Government.

"Theoretically," the honorable member said, "we accept the socialistic character of the monopoly as a payment on account of our claims, and as an acknowledgment of our just demands; but our democratic convictions are far from being lulled to sleep by the proposal of this measure. Social-Democracy is like dry sand: it absorbs liquids and remains unsaturated. It roots in democracy, and socialism is only a means to an end. Filled with the desire not only of realizing perfect equality before the law but of extending it to private life, a great many thinking minds have fallen upon the attempt to apply violence and force in carrying out their aims. The idea, however, of reducing this brute force from a rough and sporadic efficiency to a self-working and methodical system, has led some Democrats toward socialism, in the logical development of which they cannot stop to have labor, capital, and other means of production monopolized by the Government or private individuals. If a trade is carried on by the Government, it is socialism; confiscation of large means of production is an essential injury to private property, and on that account, although only as a means to a definite end, will be welcomed by my socialistic brethren. If, however, an aristocratic end, as in the present case of the consolidation and strengthening of large real-estate and manufacturing interests, is to be reached by the monopoly, we had rather disown our socialism than our democracy. We reject the tobacco monopoly, although it bears a socialistic character; we do so because it is not a democratic measure. We need not conceal our motives, but openly lay them before the people. You [addressing the Conservatives] are better riders than we are, but in running the race for the poor man we are and always shall be ahead of you. You will never succeed in catching the poor people, as you are moving on an inclined plane; but be assured, gentlemen, that the movement will not halt before reaching your manors."

This is a really fine perspective. With a rather diabolical delight the Social-Democracy observes and follows the disintegration of the idea of private property. It has every reason to welcome the prospect that others are sowing what it will reap. With us it is the Government which sows the principle that for the promotion of higher interests it can appropriate to its use the working capital of a large business. When the profits come in, the perception will also ripen that the state can annex more or all trades for its benefit, and that especially the confiscation of real estate can as easily, if not much more easily, be carried out than that of personal property. If a widely-spread and comparatively small manufacture, with a highly developed home industry, like tobacco, can be turned over to the state, why then should the latter not hasten to seize the large manorial estates, the great factories, and to work or have them worked for its own benefit? That no adequate damages are paid for the numerous losses which the private business men must suffer when left to the mercy of the Government is a matter of infinite gratification to the Social-Democrat. It is he who steps in for the principle that all real values ought to belong to the state, to the community, to the people at large, and ought to be returned to them without any ceremony. The Conservatives listened more attentively than others to this socialistic apostrophe. From old Count Moltke down to the smaller fry, Kleist-Retzow, Windthorst, and others, it seemed as if a melancholy and fatal prospect opened before their eyes. What this man said, in fact, amounted to the same theory which Bismarck's organ, the *Provinzial-Correspondenz*, does not tire of preaching every day to the Liberal middle classes. I tremble for my country when I think that all these wild doctrines may one day become reality.

To return to the tobacco monopoly: the Liberals wanted to have it discussed for the second reading in the House; but, in spite of the opposition, a special committee was finally appointed by about 170 to 120. It consists of twenty-eight members, twenty-three of whom are against and five for the monopoly. The Reichstag having adjourned for the holidays till June 6, the Committee on Tobacco will in the meantime make its reports, and will have to find the reasons which induced the Reichstag to reject the monopoly. Others expect that in one of its first meetings it will reject the first article, which makes tobacco a state monopoly, and then without further debate will send back the bill to the House, where it will be discussed very cursorily. Thus the final doom of the monopoly is sealed. Bismarck cannot dare to defy its enemies, nor can he gain anything by dissolving the Reichstag, as its successor would be still more inimical to it. What is left to him? He can and probably will in the next session introduce a new bill, which, in fact, will be an imitation of the present American system, and which may yield him a revenue of some 10,000,000 to 15,000,000 of marks over the 42,000,000 which tobacco pays at present. Whatever he may do hereafter, the noble and patriotic city of Bremen is saved from utter ruin, and the Reichstag has maintained its honor by refusing to saddle the people with a measure directed against the interest and personal dignity of every working citizen. This defeat of Bismarck's policy is heavier than any previous one, for even the masses begin to think that he is greatly mistaken in his tariff measures and tax laws, and that in future they will do better not to trust him too implicitly.

Of all crimes which in our time pass unpunished in Russia, none are more shocking and provoking than the atrocities from which the Jews are suffering in the middle and southern parts of that empire. Under the pretext that the Czar wishes it, an infuriated mob, led by soldiers and officers, plunders the houses of rich and poor Jews, wantonly destroys their property, and massacres babies, women, and men. Whole cities are sacked, as, for instance, last Easter Monday, Balta, where about 5,000 people were first robbed and then driven into exile. These mediæval horrors defy all description. It is as if another St. Bartholomew had become the order of the day. Your wild Indians cannot make sadder havoc among the peaceful people of a newly-grown settlement than these Russian brutes do. Arson, murder, violence, and rape, mutilation and burning alive belong to the every-day occurrences in Russia; and, what is still worse, we cannot yet see an end of these atrocities, as Ignatieff is at the bottom of them all. Thousands of these poor exiled people have gone to the neighboring shores of Galicia and Rumania; hundreds of thousands will follow, and millions would go if they commanded the means to leave the country. It is an exodus the like of which the history of emigration has not yet seen. The Puritans, the French Huguenots, and the Palatines were a mere handful of men in proportion to the emigrating Jews. The United States, of course, have the greatest attraction for them, and the compassion of your people for the homeless wanderers will at no distant day be severely tested. In the large European cities committees are formed for the purpose of alleviating the misery of the Russian Jews. London, Paris, Berlin, Vienna, Frankfort, and Amsterdam march at the head of these benevolent associations, which are coöperating with New York. Their object is a double one: (1) to send over as many as deserve it and will be able to become farmers; (2) to buy land for them and pay the expenses of their first settlement. While the execution of the latter part of this programme is left to the New York committee, the European coöperators devote themselves chiefly to its first part. The collection of at least $10,000,000 is intended. London has taken the lead; in Paris one of the Rothschilds is at the head of the movement. Here some 200,000 marks were paid in at the first announcement. The Paris banker Hirsch, a native of Munich, has contributed 1,000,000 francs; a rich Jewish merchant in Odessa even 500,000 rubles. On the whole, it is evident that the rich Jews are fully aware of their duties toward their co-religionists, and on the other hand it is a rather gratifying fact that among all creeds there is no difference of opinion as to the necessity of contributing as largely as possible.

The practical experience of those financiers who are at the head of the movement enables them to do real good and to lessen the sufferings of the Jews in a lasting and most effective manner. The European committees will wisely refrain from meddling with the business of settling the emigrants in America, and confine themselves to indicating to the New York committee their views on this important question. Their only objection is to having Southern lands selected; they prefer the new Northwestern States and Territories, as, for instance, the lands along the Northern Pacific Railroad line, as best adapted for the settlement of people who come from a country whose climate corresponds to that of the Northwest. As good business men, they do not propose to present the emigrants with land and an inventory, but they advance the necessary funds with little or no interest. Thus they will be enabled to continue the business from year to year, and send out regular columns from the same regions. In my opinion, 1,000,000 of Jewish settlers may be counted upon for the next ten years, for it is not only the poor and helpless element which is taken care of by the several committees, but the well-to-do classes of Jews from other parts of Russia will follow them as soon as they can dispose of their property, and seek a home in the far West. May they be well received by the people of the United States, who can best appreciate suffering for conscience's sake! In the beginning some miserable and shabby individuals may slip in, but on the whole your country will win an industrious and thrifty population; and besides, it has elbow-room enough to add to its old stock of inhabitants a new and prosperous element. † † †

Correspondence.

MR. RICE ON RENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Whatever opinion may be formed regarding my article, "Has Land a Value?" there certainly can be no doubt about its avowed

object to furnish a theoretical defence of private property in land against the reasoning of Mr. Henry George. What connection there can be between it and a "Greenback-Labor" organ I am at loss to discover.

As for the criticism of your correspondent, passing over the senseless abuse as beneath notice, I shall only remark that by his quotation from my article and his comments thereon, he has demonstrated his inability to comprehend even in what the subject-matter of the discussion consists, or he never could have delivered himself of the following piece of wisdom: "What has been 'inseparably amalgamated' with the land thereafter affects landlord and tenant in precisely the same manner as if it had pertained to the land from the beginning of the world." He would have known that my article, which is a professed reply to Mr. Henry George's "Common Sense of Taxation," deals not at all with relation of landlord and tenant, but with relation of landlord with the state. Mr. George, relying on Ricardo, maintains that the money paid by the tenant is paid for the use of free gifts of nature, is therefore not justly earned by the landlord, and ought to be confiscated by means of taxation. I, on the other hand, contend that the money paid by the tenant is interest on the capital applied to, and amalgamated with, the land, and therefore as justly earned as any other money, and ought not to be confiscated.

Any one who possesses a modicum of intelligence must perceive that in this issue between the landlord and the tax-gatherer it is of vital importance to know whether rent is paid, as Ricardo asserts, for original qualities of the soil —the free gifts of nature—or, as I claim, for the capital expended on the land, though it be ever so inseparably amalgamated with it.

I hope that the case is now put plainly enough for even Mr. X.'s powers of comprehension.

Yours very respectfully,

ISAAC L. RICE.

NEW YORK, June 5, 1882.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A correspondent chides you, in yesterday's issue, for lending importance to Mr. Rice's nonsense on the "rent" question by noticing it in your columns. But the policy of "silent contempt" for ignorant or fallacious writing may easily be carried too far—not only (as you have pointed out) because such writings often manage to appear in prominent publications, but also for two other reasons which I ask your leave to mention.

In the first place, it is a great mistake to assume that the mass of readers who are not specialists are at all sure to be protected by their own discrimination against the confusing or misleading tendencies of plausibly-stated fallacies and confidently-asserted "facts." It is enough for many that a writer goes through the "motions" of "demonstrating" something, and a little flavor of surprise or paradox does but make the *pseudo* "correction" or discovery just so much the more attractively *piquant*. It is true, of course, as Frederick Harrison has somewhere said, that one who has positive, systematic work to do should resist the temptation to stop by the way to fight objectors; but while this is so, and while the main army of science ought to march on in direct pursuance of the general plan of the campaign, that skirmishing corps of sharpshooters, the journalistic critics, have quite as clearly a peculiar and most important service to perform in looking after the enemy's guerilla bands. This very article of Mr. Rice's, curiously enough, has been recommended to me by more than one sturdy and "successful" American as containing a brilliant and conclusive "refutation" of the theory that rent can *ever include* payment for anything but the labor actually invested in the improvement of the land. In the March *Princeton* (a review held by many to be the first in America, and which includes among its contributors such men as Professor Sumner, of Yale) the leading article was one by Dr. Sturtevant—a "D.D., LL.D."—elaborately maintaining that the only way to defend society from Henry George's revolutionary scheme is to "deny" the correctness of Ricardo's law of rent!

Secondly, it seems to me quite clear that such fallacious writings often furnish the very best sort of "texts" for the lay sermons of the proper kind of teachers, especially in view of the fact that for many minds the polemical form of composition is the most attractive, intelligible, and suggestive one in which it is possible to treat a serious subject seriously.

CHARLES FREDERIC ADAMS.

NEW YORK, June 2, 1882.

THE NATIONAL BANK EXTENSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your remarks on Hammond's amendment to the Bank Charter Extension Bill, which takes from the national banks the privilege of suing in the United States courts, unless where other banks could do so, you mistake entirely the bearing of the passage in the Constitution which defines how far the judicial power of the United States "shall extend." Under the precedents established by the Supreme Court in the case of the old Bank of the United States, it seems to be settled that any suit by or against a bank chartered by the United States may be considered "a case, in law or equity, arising under the Constitution, treaties, or laws of the United States." This seems odd, for in nine cases out of ten the questions arising in the course of the suit will be those of plain commercial law quite unmixed with any *casus fœderis;* and perhaps it was an accident that the doctrine ever grew up. However, it is now too well established to be shaken. But it by no means follows that every case to which the judicial power of the United States extends shall be tried, or even that it shall be triable, in those courts. Only in a very small class of cases does the Constitution itself confer jurisdiction on the courts. In all other cases the extent of the jurisdiction within the limits prescribed in the Constitution is left to the discretion of Congress, and has fluctuated at different times between very wide limits. Thus, the jurisdiction of the United States Circuit Courts, in cases arising between citizens of different States, or "where an alien is a party," has been always confined to those in which the sum or value of five hundred dollars at the least is involved; and, until lately, it was also required that one or the other party should be a citizen of the State within which the court was held. As there is no real ill-feeling anywhere against the national banks, and they are generally controlled and owned by citizens of the State in which they are located, the privilege which they heretofore possessed of choosing between the State and Federal tribunals was rather odious, and had no good ground to stand upon; and I do not wonder, therefore, that Hammond's amendment was adopted without division.

Whatever little prejudice against these banks was kept alive by the declamations of the Greenbackers and their allies will be put at rest now, when it becomes apparent that for twenty years at least they will be one of the fixed institutions of the country.

L. N. D.

LOUISVILLE, KY., May 28, 1882.

Notes.

THOMAS WHITTAKER will publish the 'Charles Dickens Birthday Book' prepared by the author's oldest daughter and illustrated by his youngest.

Roberts Bros., Boston, invite subscriptions to a reprint, without abridgment, in four volumes, of the *Dial*, plus an index, naming the contributors as far as possible, and an historical account of this periodical. The new matter will be from the hand of the Rev. Geo. Willis Cooke. The price of the reprint will be $15, but the index will also be sold separately for $1. 'Aschenbrödel' will complete the second series of the "No-Name Novels" published by this house.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will shortly publish a quarto "railroad" edition of 'Hood's Own Whims and Oddities,' with all the original illustrations; 'Social Equality: a Study in a Missing Science,' by W. H. Mallock; Leslie Stephen's 'Science of Ethics'; Edward Dicey's 'Victor Emanuel'; and 'The Political Conspiracies Preceding the Rebellion, with the true stories of Fort Sumter and Fort Pickens,' by Lieut.-Col. Thomas A. Anderson, U.S.A.

A. Williams & Co., Boston, have nearly ready 'Thaddeus Stevens, Commoner,' by E. B. Callender; and 'Sly Ballades on Harvard China,' *vers de société*, illustrated by Lambert Hollis.

Ginn & Heath, Boston, announce 'Elements of Physics,' by Alfred P. Gage; a classified 'Readers' Guide to English History,' by Prof. W. F. Allen, of the University of Wisconsin; and a 'Spanish Grammar,' for colleges, by Prof. Wm. I. Knapp, of Yale College.

The Providence Public Library's *Monthly Reference Lists* for May contains bibliographic references on "Darwin and his Scientific Influence," and on "Emerson's Philosophical Position."

The pretty little log-book, 'Across the Atlantic,' published by A. D. F. Randolph & Co., interleaves daily devotion with secular and nautical observations, and encourages the traveller to believe that at the most his voyage will not be protracted beyond the thirteenth day.

Mr. S. Russell Forbes's 'Rambles in Rome' (London and New York: T. Nelson & Sons) will be a rival of Murray's rather than of Baedeker's handbook, being intended as "an archæological and historical guide to the museums, galleries, villas, churches, and antiquities of Rome and the Campagna." The promise of the title-page is well carried out. The leading results of the excavations of recent years are given, and the addresses of resident artists down to the date of last March. The present work is on a larger scale than Mr. Forbes's earlier 'Rambles in Naples,' and it will be found of service to the leisurely tourist.

'Gabriel Conroy' is the latest volume of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s uniform and handsome reprint of Bret Harte's complete works.

Tibbits & Shaw, Providence, send us Mr. John Russell Bartlett's 'Letters of Roger Williams' (1632–1682), gathered from a considerable number of historical works into one quarto volume, and presented to the reader in a style that would do credit to any press in America. These letters abound in expressions of the noblest sentiments—justice for the Indians, the love of peace and of civil and religious liberty, the sacrifice of self-interest to the general good, and the hatred of every form of oppression. We are glad that even in a limited edition they are now made accessible to a larger public than the Narragansett Club, by and for which they were first published eight years ago. The publishers have been less than frank in removing from the book all traces of this previous issue—a proceed-

ing historically indefensible, and a concession to the popular prejudice in favor of the brand-new from which publishers and booksellers, as well as authors, suffer perpetually.

'Eve's Daughters; or, Common Sense for Maid, Wife, and Mother,' by Marion Harland (New York: J. R. Anderson & H. S. Allen) is a book of excellent principles and of much good intention, but the arguments are based upon extravagant estimates, for better or worse. Subjects which permit only the wisest and the most delicate treatment are so mixed up with the exaggerated and the declamatory, that a careful mother would be sorry to have it fall into the hands of her daughter.

'The Chemistry of Cooking and Cleaning,' by Ellen H. Richards (Boston: Estes & Lauriat), is a laudable attempt to enforce by scientific chemistry some facts long familiar to painstaking housewives. It bristles with chemical symbols, but this need not deter the reader, for the practical suggestions are simple enough for the comprehension of the uninitiated.

The May number of the *Magazine of American History* presents the first engraved portrait of the Chevalier La Salle ever made in this country. M. Gabriel Gravier, of Rouen, who furnishes the accompanying letterpress—a sketch of his hero's life—also furnished the photograph, from an original painting, which has been followed by the engraver. The face, in profile, is noble, and well calculated to stimulate the designer of the contemplated Texas monument to the explorer.

Col. H. Yule writes to the London *Athenæum*, in a sympathetic obituary notice of the late Dr. John Brown, author of 'Marjorie Fleming,' 'Rab and his Friends,' etc., that some seven years ago the sum of $30,000 was quietly raised for him on the initiative of his publisher, Mr. David Douglas—a kindred spirit, by the way.

The writings of Leonardo da Vinci—which fill about five thousand pages in the autograph manuscripts, but which have remained unknown owing to the difficulties of deciphering, and partly also to the fact that most of them have been hidden away—have of late been systematically investigated by Dr. Jean Paul Richter, who intends to publish the original texts accompanied by an English translation and by explanatory notes. This publication is to be issued in two volumes, toward the end of the year, and will contain Leonardo's writings on painting, sculpture, architecture; his observations on astronomy, geology, and geography; on anatomy; his humorous writings, philosophical maxims; his letters and miscellaneous notes, etc. The number of still existing original paintings by this great artist is supposed to be exceedingly small, but, fortunately, a very great number of drawings and sketches have come down to us. Of these the most valuable are preserved in the Royal Library at Windsor Castle. Dr. Richter's publication will be illustrated by 220 such original drawings in photo-engravings (Dujardin's process) and about 450 other facsimile reproductions. The subscription for the book has been started by the Royal Academy of Arts, London, with a grant of £100, and by the Crown Prince of Germany, and the list already contains the names of numerous connoisseurs and librarians of public institutions, etc. The price for subscribers is eight guineas (payable on the delivery of the whole work), but on the day of publication it will be raised to twelve guineas. Subscriptions are to be sent to the publishers, Messrs. Sampson Low & Co., 188 Fleet Street, London.

—The third annual report of the Executive Committee of the Archæological Institute of America shows the work of the past year to have been significant in point of achievement and rich in promise. At home, Mr. Bandelier, as heretofore, has been the chief explorer. Availing himself of the opportunity furnished by the Lorillard Expedition to Mexico and Central America, he interrupted his New Mexican researches in order to spend four months (March-June, 1881) at Cholula (near Puebla) in the former country. A synopsis of his report, which is now in press, gives two conclusions of Mr. Bandelier's: (1) as to the deity worshipped anciently at Cholula, Quetzal-chohuatl, that he was an historic character, of the Toltec race; (2) as to the so-called "pyramid," that it is "an artificially elevated, fortified pueblo," composed of ordinary material (adobe) from the neighborhood, and the work rather of many years than of a great multitude at one time. At Mitla, in Oaxaca, he subsequently made a study of the imposing ruins called "palaces," which he regards as "shelters at night and in bad weather," and refuges for the women and children in time of attack. The Assos excavations, on the other hand, have fully justified the moderate expense incurred in promoting them. Besides the determination of the plans of the various public buildings, some epigraphic discoveries of importance have been made, with sculptures that will be shared by casts with the Berlin Museum and the Louvre. The sum of $3,500 will still be needed to complete the work. With the third incident in the Institute's record—the founding of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, by concurrent action of the leading colleges, and the appointment of Prof. Goodwin to be director for the first year—our readers are already familiar.

—The specialty of "time" and timepieces for which the Yale College Observatory has distinguished itself seems to have led to the formation at New Haven of the Standard Time Company, of which Marshall Jewell is President, and Leonard Waldo, of the Observatory, Secretary. This commercial enterprise embraces the designing and construction of "time-balls, time-guns, flashing and other signals for Government, observatory, and railroad time services," the manufacture of complete systems, the regulation of them, etc. The Company have the sole agency for the Yale College Observatory Time Signals, and are the sole owners for America of the (English) Barraud & Lunds patents for the automatic setting of clocks by electricity. This conjunction of science and business meets an imperative public need, and will facilitate the ultimate adoption of an international reckoning of time. We understand that the Company will shortly apply the Lunds patents to a complete system of 161 synchronized clocks in the stations of the elevated railroads of this city—a public convenience which will be widely appreciated.

—Mark Twain's jay who dropped acorns into the chamber of a log-cabin, under the delusion that he was filling up a hole in the roof, has his match in the California woodpecker. This bird (sometimes called the *carpintero*, from his dexterity), as we learn from a paper by Mr. Robert E. C. Stearns, in the *American Naturalist* for May, has a habit of boring holes in the bark of trees and then filling them with acorns, whether for the sake of the nut itself or of the grub to be found in it, is uncertain. Sometimes these holes are made in the wood, sometimes the acorn is stuck in a crack between boards, or again stored in the cavity of the boxed ends of the projecting rafters of the eaves; and the woodpeckers "not infrequently drop acorns down chimneys, where of course the result of their labor is without any advantage." "The jays and squirrels," observes Mr. Stearns, "are quite likely benefited by the acorn-storing habit of this species of woodpecker; and I have been told that the jay sometimes assists the woodpecker by bringing acorns for the carpintero to deposit in the bark; and further, that sometimes the jays put pebbles in the acorn holes 'to fool the woodpeckers'; but these latter statements, though perhaps true, need confirmation."

—At the Cincinnati meeting of the American Forestry Association in April, two papers by Mr. Stearns were read, on the forest-tree culture in California, and on the growth of certain of the forest-trees of that State. He reviews the ten years since the first ardent planting of eucalyptuses and acacias began there, and in regard to the former species particularly has something interesting to relate. Three-fifths of the eucalyptuses set out are blue-gums (*E. globulus*); the rest being *E. viminalis*, or *marginata*, or *rostrata*. The first named is the most rapid of growth, but its wood is inferior in point of hardness. Mr. Stearns considers six millions a moderate estimate of the whole number of eucalyptuses planted in 1872-82, a large proportion of them for purposes of adornment in streets, yards, and suburban neighborhoods—so large that their monotony has become unpleasant, while their shade and roots destroy all humbler vegetation within reach, and the odor of the blue-gum is offensive to many. Their value for timber cannot yet be determined, nor perhaps for another decade; for fire-wood their profitableness seems proved. Of a plantation partly planted and partly sown in 1869, twenty acres were lately cleared to make room for an orchard, and yielded a net profit of $3,866 04 in eleven years. Prof. Hilgard, of the University of California, says of the wood that it "is no softer or more porous than redwood; probably as durable and resistant of insects or decay. It is better fuel than cottonwood, and it is good for inner cabinet-work if not for outside." The Central Pacific Railroad Company have experimented with the eucalyptus on a large scale, including some species not already mentioned; but the *E. rostrata* and *viminalis* appear to be the hardiest. In his second paper Mr. Stearns suggests "that if, upon a given date, numerous trees were felled, so that we could have transverse sections of all of the principal species, such trees being located at various points in the State" and selected with reference to similarity of environment, we might find a "close parallelism between rings of maximum thickness and seasons of maximum rainfall." In this way we might determine whether or not there are wet and dry cycles, having a record of 70 to 150 years in the case of pines, 500 to 700 in the case of redwoods, and 1,200 to 1,400 in the case of sequoias.

—The death of Professor Wm. B. Rogers in Boston, on May 30, removes not only one of the foremost of our scientific men, but perhaps the one who had in the highest degree the faculty of presenting the claims of science on popular interest and respect with force and lucidity. He had a remarkable gift of expression, and an unusually winning and persuasive manner, both of which were supported by a character of the utmost purity and simplicity. His health has been delicate for some years, but, nevertheless, death came to him in what he would doubtless have considered its most welcome shape. He was spared all decay of his faculties, and was engaged at the moment he was struck down in addressing the audience at the Commencement exercises at the Institute of Technology, of which he was for some time President, about his own work in it. He, consequently, may be said to have literally died in harness; and not only this, but died when telling the story of what was the latest and perhaps most interesting episode in a long and honored career. It is given to but

few to reach the goal under circumstances of so much dignity and pathos, and but very few have as strong claims as Professor Rogers had to such a reward.

—Travellers now and then fall into mistakes by not using their guide-books, and by drawing too freely upon their own consciousness in explanation of what they see. A well-known writer, in a recent number of *Harper's Magazine*, gives a very interesting account of Toledo. He tells us that the Musarabic mass celebrated in the Musarabic chapel of the cathedral is "a seeming mixture of Mohammedan ritual with Christian worship," established by a compromise for the benefit of the subjugated Moors (fancy either party entering into such a compromise!); that "in front of the altar-steps was placed a richly-draped chest, perhaps meant to represent the tomb of Mohammed in the Caaba, and around it stood lighted candles," etc. The guide-book would have informed him that the compromise—if it may be so called—was between the old Christians with the Gothic ritual, who when Toledo yielded to the Moors were by treaty allowed to keep up their worship in six churches, and the incoming ecclesiastical authorities after the reconquest, who came with the Gregorian service, and who, less tolerant than the Moors, ousted the old Christians from their six churches, giving them instead the single chapel, in which the ancient service is still maintained.

—A French collector, who can exhibit more than 20,000 ornamental letters derived from old books, contributes to the May number of *Le Livre* a portion of an essay (which we hope will not be all) on the ancient ornamentation of books. He devotes himself entirely to the class which he styles Gothic, and gives a large number of examples of alphabets in three sizes or ranges. Some of these are of great beauty and ingenuity. Paul Lacroix makes an equivocal acknowledgment of Champfleury's recent subacid attention to him in this magazine, and, by way of correction, prints part of his inedited memoirs, in which he records his relations with Balzac. The story of the latter's ambitious enterprise as printer, type-founder, and publisher, and complete though unmerited failure, is told anew and bears repetition, for a singular episode it was. In the news department of this issue we read of the discovery of the existence and death of a daughter of Alfred de Musset's, a young girl who died in 1875 at Saint-Maurice in Saintonge, at the age of twenty-one. A miniature of her not much younger has been found and is described. Her tomb bears the name of Norma Tessum-Ouda, and several of her books contained dedications signed by her father, and addressing her as daughter and Norma. "Tessum" is Musset reversed; but Ouda, read backward or forward, is as yet unexplained. *Le Livre* reports the annual meeting of the Franklin Society, whose object is to found public libraries in France. It has raised more than $20,000 for military libraries (*bibliothèques de caserne* and *des hôpitaux*), and twice that sum has been expended in supplying popular or school libraries with nearly 100,000 volumes. These figures are not so large as we are accustomed to deal with. Mr. Bouton is the American publisher of *Le Livre*.

—We have received from Athens a pamphlet entitled "The Value of the Artillery of Greece" (Περὶ τῆς Ἀξίας τοῦ Πυροβολικοῦ τῆς Ἑλλάδος). It appears that during the recent excitement over the question of the Greek boundary, the Government made large purchases of cannon from the Krupp foundry at Essen. These purchases were made the occasion of a furious attack upon the Government by one Stephanos Xenos, who lauded to the skies the Armstrong guns while pouring contempt and abuse upon the Krupp cannon, and in fact upon everything of German manufacture. This roused the indignation of Dr. Michael Deffner, whose name has been recently mentioned in these columns as the author of a valuable work, 'Grammar of the Tsakonian Dialect,' and whose character and career well entitle him to the notice of scholars. He was a pupil of Georg Curtius, and turned his attention early in his university course to the modern Greek language. His studies completed, he went to Greece and established himself as a privat-docent at the University of Athens, where he has now become, we believe, an assistant professor. The pamphlet to which we have referred gives a detailed account of the establishment of Friedrich Krupp, and, by the testimony adduced as to the excellence of the Krupp guns, justifies the wisdom of the Greek Government in preferring them to others. At the same time, the writer takes the opportunity to make some pointed and needed observations upon the license of Greek pamphlet writers, and the injury which they do to the cause of stable government by their violent and seldom disinterested attacks. He expresses the hope that "no one will suspect that I serve party ends. For, although I am a Greek citizen, I abstain from all factious meddling with politics: first, because I lack the leisure for this, and, secondly, because I am perfectly aware that only on condition of strict abstinence from such things can a naturalized citizen retain a position under the Government!" Thus Dr. Deffner seems to be an example of that discreet and intelligent interest of the scholar in politics which is as much needed in Greece as in the United States.

—Not the least of the attractions offered to the large number of American tourists who are going to Europe this summer will be the performances of Wagner's new music-drama, "Parsifal," at Bayreuth, throughout the month of August. The tickets for the first two nights have already all been disposed of to members of the Society of Patrons, but for the other nights it will be possible to secure admission in any of the large German cities where arrangements for the sale of tickets have been made. At the first festival, in 1876, the admission price was a considerable item of expense—being seventy-five dollars for the four nights. This year the price of a ticket will be only seven dollars, or thirty marks, and as the worthy citizens of Bayreuth were during the last festival thoroughly aroused to a sense of their duties, there is reason to believe that this summer they will be able to provide a bed and a meal for every tourist who persists in the belief that man cannot live on music alone. There will doubtless again be that large assemblage of prominent musicians, artists, and authors which alone would have repaid a visit to Bayreuth in 1876; and that the performances will be models of perfection in every detail is a foregone conclusion, as in every department only the best of its kind has been secured. Wagner is original not only as musician and poet, but as scenic artist as well; and some of the scenic effects are said by those who have seen the sketches to be of marvellous beauty and ingenuity. The orchestra and the chorus, which is a prominent feature in "Parsifal," will be those of the Royal Opera of Munich, and as no other musicians and singers are so thoroughly familiar with all of Wagner's works as they, a better choice could not have been made. The list of soloists includes such names as Materna, Brandt, Malten, Vogel, Winkelmann, Jäger, Gudehus, Scaria, Siehr, Reichmann, etc., and the fact that each of the leading parts will be sung alternately by several artists will give an opportunity for interesting comparisons and study.

—Many are still troubled by the question why these performances should take place at a small town like Bayreuth, instead of in one of the German capitals, any one of which would, after the triumphant success of the "Nibelung" Tetralogy, be only too glad to accept its author's latest work. The principal reason is that nowhere else could Wagner so completely secure that accuracy and conscientious observance of all the peculiarities of his style which, as he himself says, alone can justify his deviation from the traditional practice of operatic composers. The initiated know that in any royal or stadt-theatre the manager would inevitably have some "suggestions" to offer in regard to the management of this or that detail, the selection of vocalists, etc.; and Wagner does not want to be hampered in his movements. Besides, the Bayreuth theatre is the only one in existence built in such a manner that the perspective and balance between the scenic, dramatic, and musical elements of his dramas can be perfectly preserved. At Bayreuth he is absolute monarch, and the devotion of all the singers to his principles assures him that not a single gesture will be misplaced, nor a single note misconstrued. It is Wagner's aim to make the Bayreuth theatre a sort of dramatic high school, where stage vocalists may assemble every year and learn the peculiarities of the new dramatic style by attending to his directions and observing each other. In a recent letter to Hans von Wolzogen he says that he should dread the labor of preparing a "model performance" of one of his earlier operas, because so many errors abound in the work of even their best interpreters at the present day. In "Parsifal," however, none of these errors will have to be eradicated, and visitors to the festival may therefore expect Wagner pure and undefiled. If newspaper reports may be trusted, Wagner considers "Parsifal" his best work, and, as the last work of most composers is their best, this seems quite probable. The dramatic text, which was published a few years ago, abounds in poetic passages of striking beauty, and is eminently adapted for musical treatment. The piano score, arranged by Joseph Rubinstein, has also just appeared, and a careful preliminary study of the leading motives in it will enable those who can attend only one of the performances at Bayreuth to derive much additional enjoyment from it.

JOHN STUART MILL.—II.

John Stuart Mill: A Criticism, with Personal Recollections, by Alexander Bain, LL.D. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Henry Holt & Co.

"STERLING," writes Mill, "told me how he and others had looked upon me (from hearsay information) as a 'made' or manufactured man, having had a certain impress of opinion stamped on me which I could only reproduce." This popular notion of Mill was not more than half true. It is, however, a sign of Mill's want of self-knowledge that he should not, when reviewing his own moral and mental development, have perceived that this current idea contained, in spite of its inaccuracy, a half-truth of the highest importance. James Mill threw the whole strength of a very strong will, and all the resources of a very acute intellect, into the effort to make his son the model of a thinker after James Mill's own heart. That, as far as his father's efforts could achieve the result, John Mill was intellectually and morally a "manufactured" man, warranted to reproduce, to ex-

plain and defend all the articles of the Benthamite creed, is a fact of which we have the best evidence. When John was not more than six years old, James Mill, whose health was shaken, wrote thus to Bentham:

"I am not going to die, notwithstanding your zeal to come in for a legacy. However, if I were to die any time before this poor boy is a man, one of the things which would pinch me most sorely would be the being obliged to leave his mind *unmade to the degree of excellence to which I hope to make it.* But another thing is that the only prospect which would lessen that pain would be the leaving him in your hands. I therefore take your offer quite seriously, and stipulate merely that it shall be made *as good as possible*, and then we may perhaps leave him *a successor worthy of both of us.*"

The words we have underlined give the secret of James Mill's ambition. He was a hard man; he was no sentimentalist, yet he had his romance. The dream of his life was to provide his son with a mind made "to the degree of excellence to which I hope to make it," and thus leave behind him a successor worthy of the prophets of Utilitarianism. This was James Mill's dream, and John Mill has recorded the infinite labor, talent, and energy expended by his father on bringing the dream to fulfilment. Circumstances lent themselves to the accomplishment of the dreamer's ends. John Mill exhibited just that combination of docility with talent which is rarely to be found in the disciples of energetic teachers. His teachableness and essential modesty were probably concealed from the mass of the world under the habits of logical combativeness fostered by his father's training; but friendly observers soon perceived that the boy was willing to learn and easy to teach. "Upon all occasions," writes Lady Bentham, "his gentleness under reproof and thankfulness for correction are remarkable; and as it is by reason, supported by examples, we point out to him that we endeavor to convince him—not by command that we induce him to do so and so—we trust that you will have satisfaction from that part of his education we are giving him to fit him for commerce with the world at large." A letter from John Mill to his father, written at the same date, notes "the great kindness of Sir Samuel Bentham's family in constantly, without ill humor, explaining to him the defects in his way of conducting himself in society," and contains the comment, "I ought to be very thankful." A boy of fifteen so ready to take reproof was material easily to be moulded by a person of unconquerable resolution, and the following passage from the correspondence between father and son affords painful proof of the dominion which the man had obtained over the youth: "I wish I had nothing else to tell you, but I must inform you that I have lost my watch. It must have been lost while I was out of doors, but it is impossible it should have been stolen from my pocket. It must, therefore, be my own fault. The loss itself (though I am conscious that I must remain without a watch till I can buy one for myself) is to me not great—much less than my carelessness deserves. It must, however, vex you, and deservedly, from the bad sign which it affords of me."

A pupil may be docile and yet not worth the trouble of teaching. An educator has failed in his object if his labors produce not a follower, but an imitator. James Mill had the rare good fortune to find in his son a disciple endowed with a will far less strong, but with an intellect not less remarkable than his teacher's. Hence the elder Mill realized, or all but realized, his day-dream: he lived to see his son's mind clearly "made" to the hoped-for "degree of excellence." He might fairly hope, at his own death, that he left behind him a successor not unworthy either of himself or of Bentham. Nor had he any reason to fear that the essential doctrines of the Benthamite school would ever be obliterated from his pupil's mind. There seems, indeed, to have been a good deal of divergence in sentiment between the father and son. John's admiration for Carlyle, his reverence for Coleridge, and his unbounded admiration for De Tocqueville, were not very congenial to the narrow dogmas of the old Utilitarian democrat. Still, on the whole, James Mill had good reason to be satisfied with his work: John Mill's mind was "made"; it had been cast in the Benthamite mould, and that mould it retained to the end. The teaching of his youth was to John Mill "the truth." His own views might, and did, expand and alter; but he could no more get rid of the essentials of his faith than a born and bred Calvinist like Carlyle could in reality shake off the feelings of Calvinism. The sentiment of a faith is a far stronger thing than its mere doctrines, and Mill never really cast off the sentiment of Benthamism.

His final adherence to the school in which he was trained was allied with that singular habit of overestimating the merits of his friends and teachers of which every page in his 'Autobiography' bears traces. That he should have thought "my father" to be one of those thinkers who could without being made ridiculous be compared for influence with Bentham or with Voltaire, is curious; but it is not so curious as that he should write of Mrs. Taylor as one "whose sensitive as well as her mental qualities would, with her gifts of feeling and imagination, have fitted her to be a consummate artist, as her fiery and tender soul and vigorous eloquence would certainly have made her a great orator, and her profound knowledge of human nature and discernment and sagacity in practical life would, in the times when such a *carrière* was open to women, have made her eminent among the rulers of mankind." A man who could calmly believe and write that a lady whom he admired and loved combined gifts and qualities which have never before been possessed in union by any human being, might with comparative reasonableness hold that James Mill was, "by his writings and his personal influence, a great centre of light to his generation"; and the pupil and son who so thought of his teacher and father was certain to remain true in the long run to lessons recommended to him by philosophic and parental authority.

When we ask why Mill clung tenaciously to the dogmas of Benthamism, we can hardly avoid answering that he was, with all his rare gifts and thirst for truth, a man "made or manufactured" in the Benthamite school, bound almost by the laws of his intellect to the creed in which he was trained. A singular passage of Mill's 'Autobiography' records that Carlyle at first hailed him as a "new mystic." "He soon found out," however, "that I was not another mystic, and when, for the sake of my own integrity, I wrote him a distinct profession of all those of my opinions which I knew he most disliked, he replied that the chief difference between us was that I 'was as yet consciously nothing of a mystic.'" Mill obviously recalls Carlyle's remark as an instance of mistaken criticism; yet, in fact, Carlyle displayed with regard to Mill that insight into individual character which is the marked trait of all his historical writing. There was something in Mill which, whether you call it mysticism or not, was of a totally different cast from his honestly-professed opinions. Between 1830 and 1840 he appeared, at least to others if not to himself, to be rapidly drifting away from the creed in which he was brought up. "Something led us," writes Caroline Fox, in reporting an interview with Carlyle, "to John Mill. 'Ah, poor fellow! he has had to get himself out of Benthamism, and all the emotions and sufferings he has endured have helped him to thoughts that never entered Bentham's head. However, he is still too fond of demonstrating everything. If John Mill were to get up to heaven, he would hardly be content till he had made out how it all was.'" Friends and acquaintances like Carlyle and Sterling, who themselves shared to the full the reaction against the philosophy of the eighteenth century, underrated the tenacity with which Mill adhered, both from intellectual conviction and from the force of early association, to the mode of thought in which he had been trained. But Mill's own writings bear indirect testimony to the fact that at one period he deviated further than perhaps he himself perceived from his inherited creed. All his intimate friends (and this with a man of Mill's intense susceptibility to personal influence means much) were persons who had felt the sway of Coleridge. Such men as Maurice, Sterling, Carlyle were not likely to keep alive Mill's early Benthamism. His reverence for his father was, as Mill himself admits, mingled with a great want of sympathy with his father's views of life and of men. It no doubt is true that Mill "never wavered in the conviction that happiness is the test of all rules of conduct and the end of life." To have done so would have been to commit deliberate apostasy from the true Utilitarian faith. But when you combine this conviction with the further dogma, that the only chance of happiness "is to treat not happiness, but some end external to it, as the purpose of life," and have resolved to "let your self-consciousness, your scrutiny, your self-interrogation exhaust themselves on that," you have taken a step which, as far as the conduct of life goes, a good deal diminishes the practical importance of speculative Utilitarianism.

But Mill went a good deal further than is necessarily implied in the rule, that happiness, like health, must be sought for by forgetting the ultimate object of your pursuit. We now possess in Caroline Fox's 'Journals' a picture, or rather a faint sketch, of John Mill as he appeared to sympathetic and religious friends in the prime of his manhood. We now see that Mill, when between thirty and forty, was a very different person from the Utilitarian propagandist who in early youth went forth prepared to fight the battles of Utilitarianism with all the fervor of fanatical conviction, and was also a very different person from the thinker who between sixty and seventy looked back over his own life and attempted with perfect honesty, though with very imperfect self-knowledge, to give its story a kind of philosophic coherence which an existence influenced at every turn by circumstances, associations, and personal sympathies had never in reality possessed. Of Mill's sincerity no one who knows an honest man when he sees him can doubt; and Mill, when among the Quakers at Falmouth, used the language rather of religion than of philosophy. This passage from Caroline Fox's 'Journals' is worth a hundred pages of retrospective autobiography. She is writing of a conversation in which "Sterling was the chief speaker and Mill would occasionally throw in an idea." The only defect of the report is that the writer does not always distinguish with perfect clearness between the words of Sterling and those of Mill.

"There is also," she writes, "a guide to the path you should take in the intellectual and active world. Carlyle says: 'Try and you will find it.' Mill says: 'Avoid all that you prove by experience or intuition to be wrong, and you are safe; especially avoid the servile imitation of any other, be true to yourselves, find out your individuality, and live and act in the circle around it. Follow with earnestness the path into which it impels you, taking Reason for your safety-lamp and perpetually warring with In-

clination; then you will attain to that freedom which results only from obedience to right and reason, and that happiness which proves to be such, on retrospection. Every one has a part to perform whilst stationed here, and he must strive with enthusiasm to perform it. Every advance brings its own particular snares, either exciting to ambition or display, but in the darkest passages of human existence a Polar Star may be discovered, if earnestly sought after, which will guide the wanderer into the effulgence of light and truth. What there is in us that appears evil is, if thoroughly examined, either disproportioned or misdirected good, for our Maker has stamped his own image on everything that lives.'"

Side by side with this passage read Mill's letters to Robert Barclay Fox. They are in substance perhaps a little disappointing, but they show how much more near than might be supposed from the 'Autobiography' Mill at one time came to sharing the interests of religious Christians. He reads, for example, with some admiration the notes of a Welsh sermon—"a really admirable specimen of popular eloquence of a rude kind"; he criticises the view of the atonement propounded by the preacher in terms which might have been used by Maurice, say, or Kingsley:

"I know not how dangerous may be the ground on which I am treading, or how far the view of the Atonement which is taken by this poor preacher may be recognized by your society or by yourself; but surely a more Christianlike interpretation of that mystery is that which, believing that divine wisdom punishes the sinner for the sinner's sake, and not from an inherent necessity, more heathen than the heathen Nemesis, holds, as Coleridge did, that the sufferings of the Redeemer were (in accordance with the eternal laws on which this system of things is built) an indispensable means of bringing about that change in the hearts of sinners the want of which is the real and sole hindrance to the universal salvation of mankind."

Something, no doubt, must be allowed for the legitimate desire of a sympathetic nature to be in harmony with beloved friends. But we should be very unjust to Mill if we supposed him to have used, when in intercourse with Caroline Fox and her brother, language which he could employ only in a very non-natural sense. The fair explanation of the relation between him and his Quaker hosts is, that at one period of his life Mill's sympathies, if not his convictions, were enlisted in favor if not of Christian beliefs, yet assuredly of Christian aspirations. It is, indeed, pretty clear that during the years when he was in communication with his Falmouth friends, he was under the influence of something like repulsion from the associations of his early life. He was careful to explain to guests at his house that no one need fear to criticise Bentham in his presence. He expressed at least once something like regret at the discipline of his boyhood. "His father used to make him study ecclesiastical history before he was ten. This method of early application he would not recommend to others; in most cases it would not answer, and, where it does, the buoyancy of youth is entirely superseded by the maturity of manhood, and action is very likely to be merged in reflection. 'I never was a boy,' he said, 'never played at cricket: it is better to let nature have her own way.'"

Here we have the secret of one-half of Mill's speculative career. Nature was not allowed to have her own way, and nature, after her wont, avenged herself by all but driving John Mill into revolt against his father's teaching. Yet, oddly enough, the influence of James Mill in the long run triumphed; and so strange are the turns of character and of circumstances, that James Mill's victory was, it may well be suspected, in great measure due to the unconscious aid of the very person who first shook his dominion over his son. The facts we already know of John Mill's life make one fact absolutely clear: the immense authority of his father yielded to the unbounded influence of Mrs. Taylor. As John Mill's devotion to her increased, his faith in his father declined. The natural result of this change of allegiance would, one might expect, be a complete alienation from James Mill's moral and political views. This result, however, did not follow. On the contrary, Mill's connection and marriage with Mrs. Taylor drew him off from the associates whose beliefs were fundamentally opposed to the dogmas in which he had been educated; and the lady who admittedly shared and influenced all Mill's later speculations aided and fostered that return toward early beliefs which is as natural and as usual as the return to first loves. This, at least, is the interpretation which, in the light of our further knowledge, a critic must place on more than one passage in the 'Autobiography.'

"In this third period," writes Mill, ". . . of my mental progress, which now went hand in hand with hers, my opinions gained equally in breadth and depth. . . . I had now completely turned back from what there had been of excess in my reaction against Benthamism. I had, at the height of that reaction, certainly become much more indulgent to the common opinions of society and the world, and more willing to be content with seconding the superficial improvement which had begun to take place in those common opinions than became one whose convictions, on so many points, differed fundamentally from them."

It is hardly necessary to trace further the extent to which the circumstances of Mill's life, and especially the authority of individuals whom he revered or loved, told on the formation of his speculative opinions. When once this is clearly perceived it is comparatively easy to understand how it is that theories expressed with all the clearness which can be given to philosophical exposition, and defended with all the acuteness of the most thoroughly trained logician of his age, exhibit, nevertheless, under an external appearance of perfect consistency, something very like a want of essential coherence. As, in short, you compare Mill's career with his system, the one explains the other. If Mill's system loses something of the impressiveness derived from unbroken intellectual consistency, he himself gains a good deal in human interest. "Dined at the Mills'," writes Caroline Fox: "a biennial jubilee; John Mill in glorious spirits, too happy to enter much into deep things. He alluded to the indescribable change and growth he experienced when he made the discovery that what was right for others might not be right for him. Talked of life not being all fun, though there is a great deal of fun in it." Those who like to know what a great man really was may learn more from these few lines than from the whole elaborate "criticism" of Prof. Bain.

THOMAS À KEMPIS.

Thomas à Kempis and the Brothers of Common Life. By the Rev. S. Kettlewell. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1882.

To the great majority of persons the name of Thomas à Kempis is familiar only as the author of the most remarkable religious book yet produced by any Christian writer. The 'Imitation of Christ' has, in its countless editions in all the principal tongues of Christendom, brought comfort and solace to thousands to whom its authorship was of no more consequence than that of the Bible itself. It is probably owing to this very fact, that the book contains really the whole man, that so few attempts have been made to present in greater detail the incidents of his life. And, indeed, a struggle with the two ample volumes before us leaves one with a deep sense of having spent many unprofitable hours.

The life of À Kempis may be said to have passed almost without events. It was the very purpose of the order of Brothers to which he belonged to avoid mingling actively with the people of the world, while avoiding at the same time those errors of ascetic fanaticism which had weakened and degraded the older monastic orders. À Kempis threw himself with the ardor of a faithful, devoted nature into the fulfilment of this purpose. It would, therefore, have been of interest if a biographer could have traced for us clearly and sharply the lines of his mental and moral development until it found expression in his book. Whoever seeks such enlightenment from the pages of Mr. Kettlewell will, we fear, be disappointed. The first gift of the true biographer—the power of setting forth individual character in strong relief against the background of the age in which he lived—is wanting in his case. There is evident throughout a desire to be edifying which has, we venture to say, doubled the size of the book and contributed nothing to our knowledge of the man or of his surroundings. Nothing is allowed to pass without a homily from the author, disturbing always the thread of narration and dimming the very impression it aims to deepen.

Perhaps some explanation of the disjointed character of the whole work may be found in the last paragraph of the preface, where the author speaks of his work as "filling up many vacant hours while disengaged from other duties." Apparently, the product of these vacant hours, distributed, as he says, over many years, has never been subjected to thorough revision, or else the bulk of his work was a matter of no account to the author. So far as we can judge, each chapter was finished once for all, and laid aside until, in composing new ones, much that had been once said was repeated. For instance, in speaking of Gerard Groot(e), the founder of the Brothers of Common Life, this name is endlessly defined as meaning Gerard the Great, and this in spite of the fact that Gerard's father is spoken of as Werner Groote.

The greater part of the first volume is occupied by the sketches of the earlier members of the Brotherhood of Common Life, written by Thomas himself—dreary eulogies in the manner of the 'Acta Sanctorum,' filled with miraculous stories which our author gravely discusses, and with endless pious exhortations, which lead him on to similar effort. The ideal of Gerard Groot is evidently his ideal also. He regrets, and does not conceal his regret, that the good old times of the pure monastic life are gone. It would do him good to see the English Church encouraging such devotion to lives of contemplation. Yet he does not hesitate to express his preference for these brethren over the then existing regular orders, and touches somewhat lightly on the fact that within a very few years the Brotherhood suffered the usual fate of such institutions and became a mere feeder to an order of Canons Regular which had been developed out of itself. In this order Thomas also took the vows in due season, and remained during his life at the monastery of St. Agnes, near Zwolle, and not far from his birthplace, Kempen. Here his life was one of almost unbroken quiet, devoted to spiritual contemplation, to the composition of religious treatises, and to the instruction of youth. Our author justly emphasizes the purely spiritual character of all Thomas's work, as distinguished from the dogmatic tone of much of the theological writing of the day. With him the life was everything, the faith so much a part of the life that it must be presumed as the only foundation and condition of right living.

Mr. Kettlewell's lack of systematic arrangement in his subject is well illustrated by his treatment of the whole question of the 'Imita-

tion.' Though he claims to have settled in another work the controversy as to the authorship, he might well have spared some portions of his too ample space at least to recapitulate the main points of so interesting a discussion; but the reader seeks in vain for any comprehensive account of the evidence for authenticity. Here and there, scattered through the whole book, are, however, brief hints of detached bits of proof, which simply confuse without explaining.

In the second volume we have chapters on the general condition of the Church in Europe, which give a fairly correct impression of the great movement of events, though, as we have suggested, the author's historical sense is none of the keenest. But most interesting and suggestive is the attempt to connect the name of Thomas à Kempis with the outbreak of the Reformation. The connecting link is here a man universally recognized as the immediate forerunner of Luther, John Wessel of Gröningen, and now shown with some certainty to have been greatly influenced by personal contact with À Kempis. Such connections of persons and events, however, are somewhat too attractive to be altogether safe subjects for speculation. In a sense we may regard every upright and pure mind during the Middle Ages as prefiguring in itself the ideas which the leaders of the Reformation strove to realize. In John Wessel we find distinctly proclaimed the primary doctrines of Luther, only advanced with less assurance and under less favorable circumstances. À Kempis, on the other hand, was too much a moralist and too little a dogmatist ever to set himself in opposition to dominant systems.

We cannot refuse to the author the praise of diligence and enthusiasm. He has visited the most important scenes of the activity of his hero, and attempts to give picturesqueness to his account by describing them at considerable length. The portraits of Thomas receive due attention; but here, again, we seek in vain for comprehensive statements as to genuineness and accuracy. Much of this indefiniteness of impression comes from a careless profusion of words—at least, carelessness is the charitable word for the multitude of verbal sins which meet one's eye on every page. A few examples, taken at random, will illustrate: "The civil power in a country have liberties which the ecclesiastical authority have no just right, morally or religiously, to interfere with." "The Bishop of 'Matiskonensis'" !—although a note explains this person to be the Bishop of Macon. "The Duke of Savoy, called Felix V.," without a suggestion that this was his name *as Pope*. "I preach the Gospel with a plainness, that it might be comprehended by the humblest understanding." Luther is said to have written an introduction to the works of Wessel in 1552, six years after Luther's own death. The enormous number of such slips in a work purporting to represent the labor of a life cannot but shake our confidence in the method of its author. The book concludes with what Mr. Kettlewell might call "an account of the history of" his expedition to Zwolle, and of the edifying sensations produced by the sight of the skull and some small bones of the good man whose name has given to the little village its only title to celebrity.

HEINE ON GERMANY.

Religion and Philosophy in Germany. By Heinrich Heine. Translated by John Snodgrass. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1882.

To English readers Heine has hitherto been chiefly known as a great lyric poet. His songs have become familiar through numerous translations, and through their union with the music of the greatest German composers. One need not be able to understand, but only to read, German to discover that, though others may have excelled him in variety of topic and depth of sentiment, no poet of this century has written such smooth, graceful, and musical verse as he. What Heine says of Goethe's songs applies equally well to his own: "They have a coquettish charm that is indescribable; the harmonious verses entwine themselves about the heart like a tenderly beloved one; the word embraces while the thought kisses you." But Heine's prose is hardly inferior in interest to his poetry. His short, crisp sentences, suggestive antitheses, vivid imagery, and refreshing clearness and directness, suggest the imaginative poet on every page. Johannes Scherr claims him as the greatest satirist the world has seen since Aristophanes, Cervantes, Rabelais, and Swift; and he certainly is the most subtle and genuine wit Germany has ever produced.

Nevertheless, one of those works in which his wit, irony, and critical acumen are most conspicuously displayed has had to wait almost half a century for an English translator—probably as retribution for the malicious and caustic remarks he was in the habit of making about England and the English, whom he did not greatly admire. The short treatise on 'Religion and Philosophy in Germany' originally appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* in 1834, and in the following year at Hamburg in a German version. The admirable English translation now before us was made from the German, because the translator believes that it was originally written in that language. The reason given for this belief is that although Heine had a good command of the French language, it was his custom to secure the assistance of some prominent French author in preparing a French version of his German works, whence it is probable that he wrote the present work too in his mother tongue. The different readings in the various German and French editions, whenever of importance, are given in an appendix or in footnotes. That the first German edition was greatly mutilated by the censor is not to be wondered at in a country where even at the present day a week seldom passes in which some journalist of repute is not sent to prison for having vaguely questioned the absolute perfection and infallibility of Bismarck or Kaiser Wilhelm. As Heine states in a preface, the passages omitted chiefly related to political matters, his religious heterodoxy having been apparently found less objectionable than his political. The consequence was that the aspect of the book was considerably changed, as in place of having a "patriotic democratic tendency," it now "recalled scholastic theological polemics." Heine believed that the German MS. had been destroyed in the great Hamburg conflagration of 1842; but it was found again, and the book as now printed correctly reflects the original views and language of its author. In the preface to which we have just referred, Heine ostensibly retracts the anti-religious sentiments expressed in the body of the book. It has been said of him that he would have suffered the direst consequences rather than suppress a witticism that pricked his tongue; and the present case shows how far he was ready to carry a frivolous joke.

Heine's object in writing this book was to give French readers a clear idea of the general drift of German thought from Luther to Hegel, and thus indirectly to correct some of the numerous wrong notions set afloat among them by Madame de Staël's work on Germany. It is not an erudite, systematic treatise on German philosophy and religion, adapted to the wants of college students; but it gives a picturesque bird's-eye view of its subject, and abounds in brilliant *aperçus* and incisive criticisms that are often more suggestive and edifying than whole chapters of dry and barren historical facts. It has been briefly dismissed by some critics as mere "pyrotechnics of wit," or as a book whose heroes are chiefly used as "pegs whereon the writer may hang his jests," somewhat like the manner in which Italian opera composers utilize their librettos to show off their melodies; but this is hardly a just verdict. Wit and sarcasm permeate the whole book, it is true, but the wit always "clings to the thought" and grows out of the subject; and no subject so readily yields itself to sarcastic treatment as German metaphysics. Call it a comic history of German philosophy if you like, but remember that in writing a history of German speculation it is often *difficile satiram non scribere*.

In noting Heine's estimate of the different German philosophers, nothing will be so apt to surprise the reader as to find that he calls Hegel the greatest German philosopher since Leibnitz, and places him even above Kant. The reason for this strange judgment probably lies in the fact that he personally attended Hegel's lectures in Berlin, and there caught the fever from the large number of deluded students who imagined in their enthusiasm that where there was so much metaphysical smoke there must also be much hidden light. His admiration for Hegel, however, does not prevent him from quoting the story of Hegel's deathbed observation: "Only one man has understood me; . . . and even he did not understand me." Heine evidently did not study Hegel with sufficient care to discover, what Trendelenburg and Ueberweg have pointed out, that the proposition on which Hegel's whole card-house is built (the identity of *Sein* and *Nichts*) is one of the most absurd instances of logical sophistry on record. The pages devoted to Fichte are very amusing reading. He compares his philosophy—which requires the Ego to observe its own operations during the act of thinking—to the monkey who seated itself on the hearth before a copper kettle cooking its own tail, because it was of the opinion that "the true art of cooking consists not merely in the objective act of cooking, but also in the subjective consciousness of the process of cooking." Although Heine recognizes the immense negative value of Kant's philosophy in so far as it destroyed philosophical dogmatism and brought the sacraments to a dying God, he cannot forgive him for having by his 'Critique of Practical Reason' neutralized, or at least weakened, the effect of his 'Critique of Pure Reason.' He either wrote the latter work on the principle of the student who smashed all the lamps in the street so as to get an opportunity to deliver a forcible lecture on the absolute necessity of lamps, or else he wrote the 'Critique of Practical Reason' out of consideration for his poor old servant, Lampe, who looked with consternation on the slaughter of the "ontological, cosmological, and physico-theological bodyguards," and who could never be happy without a God and a belief in immortality. Heine claims that Kant did not destroy the "ontological proof," which is beyond question the weakest of all. He does not explain the "how so," but the wherefore lies in his statement that it is equally valid for deism and for pantheism; and Heine was a pantheist. Goethe himself did not express greater admiration for Spinoza than Heine; and Heine, after characterizing pantheism in admirable language, takes great care to point out that it is not to be identified with atheism. He did not live long enough to read Schopenhauer's caustic remark that Spinoza's method of identifying nature with God was very much like

the proceeding of the monarch who wished to equalize all his subjects without hurting the feelings of the aristocracy, and accordingly arranged the difficulty by conferring the title of nobility on the whole populace.

Pantheism is one of the "leading-motives" that run through the whole book; but *the* leading-motive, which permeates not only this work, but much of Heine's poetry and other writings, is that the essence of Christianity lies in one idea —the annihilation of the life of the senses. "You demand simple modes of dress, austere morals, and unspiced pleasures; we, on the contrary, desire nectar and ambrosia, purple mantles, costly perfumes, luxury and splendor, dances of laughing nymphs, music and comedies." Catholicism, although it looked upon the flesh as being of the devil, allowed the enjoyment of sensuous delights, provided they were regarded as forbidden fruit and atoned for by confession and contributions to the Church funds. Protestantism was a reaction against this inconsistency, and, like all reactions, it went to the opposite extreme. Next to his poetic genius, it is his championship of the healthy life of the senses that establishes Heine's claims to our admiration; and if in his personal conduct he was advocating, this does not impair the value and beauty of such a work as this fragmentary treatise on 'Religion and Philosophy in Germany.' In conclusion, we cannot refrain from calling especial attention to the passages on Luther and Lessing, both of which are such perfect specimens of suggestive criticism and elegant style that every student of literature ought to know them by heart. Nothing certainly could be better than the following:

"Lessing was the living criticism of his time, and his whole life was a polemic. . . . As he himself avowed, conflict was necessary to his mental development. He resembled the legendary Norman who inherited the talents, the skill, and the vigor of the enemies slain by him in combat. . . . Yea, he struck off many a skull out of pure wantonness, and then was malicious enough to pick it up again and to show the public that it was quite empty. . . . By his polemic many a name has been snatched from well-merited oblivion. He has enveloped with the most spiritual irony, with the most delicious humor, not a few paltry scribblers, who are preserved for all future time in Lessing's works, like insects imbedded in a piece of amber. In the act of putting his adversaries to death he has bestowed on them immortality."

Bentley. By R. C. Jebb. [English Men of Letters.] Harpers. 1882.

Richard Bentley has a well-deserved place on the list of eminent Englishmen. The field of his labor lies indeed apart from the interest and the knowledge of most people, yet it is one in which intellectual ability can be trained and exercised as really and as thoroughly as in almost any other. If the power to grasp and retain in mind a vast number of facts, to select and combine those needed for a purpose, however widely scattered they may be, to penetrate the meaning of incidental statements and draw sound inferences from them, to weigh testimony and detect error with marvellous intuition—if the power to do these things attests intellectual ability, Bentley certainly possessed a high degree of it. Repeated testimony has been given by the leaders of scholarship in Holland and Germany to his being in their view the greatest man in classical learning that England has yet produced, and that, too, in spite of his having left so little finished work behind him. It is hardly possible to pursue critical study of classical antiquity far in any line without coming upon traces of his influence. If you study Homer, you are met at once by the digamma, which Bentley discovered for the modern world. If you study the history of the Greek drama, you find reference to Bentley's suggestions and combinations in the Phalaris essay. If you study Terence, you find Bentley quoted as the first to get hold of the key to his metre. If you study Kallimachos, you find Bentley's name among the restorers of his text. And so it is in Horace and Manilius and Plautus, and in Aristophanes and Nikander, and in varying degrees as to many other authors. Much of his wealth of matter lies scattered about in odd places, in contributions to other people's books, or in marginal notes on what he was reading. His own books have to be studied rather than read, because he is continually running off from his subject to correct an error in some other ancient author or to bring together items of tradition and set them in their true form and relation so as to establish some neglected fact. An excellent illustration is given by Professor Jebb (p. 124) from the letter to Mill. This indiscriminate pouring forth of learning seems to have been due partly to his own mental character, partly to the need of the time. He saw, as is well said by Jebb (p. 216), "that the very foundations on which they (his predecessors in scholarship) built—the classical books themselves—must be rendered sound, if the edifice was to be upheld or completed."

There have been three or four accounts of Bentley's life published, but this of Mr. Jebb's is not only the most complete and satisfactory for its size, but in every way an excellent piece of work. He is evidently in sympathy with his subject, and has thoroughly studied it. It is a lively subject, too, for Bentley was by no means a mere solitary student, the only events in whose life are a new book or a new theory. He had his literary quarrels, chief among which was the great Phalaris controversy, involving apparently the scholarly reputation of the two universities, calling out squibs and pamphlets from the literary men and wits of the day, known to modern readers by a chapter in D'Israeli's 'Quarrels of Authors' and by a brilliant passage in Macaulay's essay on Sir William Temple. Then came his long struggle as Master of Trinity with the Senior Fellows, which went on in one form or another for twenty-eight years, came before the courts and the Privy Council, and was variously influenced by the changes in the fortunes of political parties. This is not a pleasant part of Bentley's life. It shows him in a worse light than any other part of his history, and we heartily wish we could omit the traits it reveals from our conception of the great man. But it certainly does add variety and excitement to his story. The great triumph of Bentley's career, that by which he will be longest and most widely known, is his Phalaris dissertation. The wit, the overwhelming learning, the absolute mastery of the subject, make this a work of permanent value and interest even to modern scholars, and justify Porson's phrase, "the immortal dissertation." It seems as if it must have utterly crushed the other side, and yet, as Mr. Jebb clearly shows, there was not critical learning enough in England for a hundred years to make it generally recognized on which side the victory lay.

Studies of Modern Mind and Character at Several European Epochs. By John Wilson. London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1881. 8vo, pp. 444.

Mr. Wilson's volume of 'Studies' consists of fourteen essays upon different subjects of modern history and literature, most of which have already appeared in periodicals—chiefly the *Quarterly Review.* We have articles upon Guicciardini, Bruno, and Galileo, Swift, Junius, and Voltaire; then follows a series upon recent French history, followed by an article entitled "Bismarck, Prussia, and Pan-Teutonism."

Of the earlier group, that upon Galileo is perhaps the most interesting, or at least timely. The process of Galileo has received so much light of late years from the new evidence that has been discovered in the Archives of the Vatican that we hoped to find here—what the English public would be very glad to have—a fair and complete summing up of the case as it now stands, after the labors of Martin, Berti, Gebler, etc. Unfortunately Mr. Wilson's object was a different one—to couple Galileo with Bruno, and compare their scientific attitude and the treatment they respectively received; there is not room, therefore, for a complete presentation of Galileo's case. It takes for granted more previous knowledge on the subject than most readers possess. Enough of detail is given, however, to support the conclusion at which, we believe, most well-informed persons have arrived. Galileo was not put to the torture, as has been sometimes asserted, nor was he subjected to any severe physical punishment; he was nevertheless threatened with the torture. Neither, if we understand aright, was he, in 1633, when summoned before the Inquisition, put upon trial for his opinions, but *for contumacy,* for publishing in 1632 opinions which in 1616 he had been forbidden to teach, and had promised not to teach. Mr. Wilson says (p. 65):

"What Rome did to Galileo is now before the world in its minutest circumstances. Let her have full credit for what, by special grace and favor, she left undone. An infirm old man of seventy, stricken with grievous maladies, whose labors and discoveries had done honor to Italy in every realm of Europe, was neither burned at the stake, nor thrown into the dungeons of the Holy Office, nor stretched upon the rack."

So, too, Rome did not, perhaps, formally condemn his scientific opinions; she did, nevertheless, what she could to crush them.

More than half the volume is made up of the eight articles upon the French revolutions, empires, and wars, including one upon the land question in France, in which an opinion is expressed unfavorable to the existing system. These articles present a tolerably complete sketch of the history of France during the last hundred years, and, being based upon fresh and authentic information, can be read with great profit. With regard to the causes of the "Terror"—really, perhaps, the most vital question in dealing with the French Revolution—he presents the view elaborated so fully by M. Taine in his last volumes, that the government of the Jacobins was a usurpation by a small minority: "that there was in Paris, as well as in the departments, an enormous preponderance of force, as well as of opinion, ready to array itself against the Jacobin populace-tyranny. But that force was without organization and without leaders" (p. 245). At an earlier stage he shows that the Revolution could have been easily held in hand by a competent executive: "As Dumont says, the one thing needful in 1789 was a King of firm and decided character" (p. 227). Back of it all, however, were causes at work, not merely in France itself, but in Europe, in the "joint policy of perfidy and violence in Eastern Europe" pursued by Frederic the Great and Catherine of Russia. "Anarchy in Europe—international anarchy produced by the lawless will of her rulers—preceded anarchy in France, and rendered Europe defenceless against French invasion" (p. 275). There is no more conspicuous example in history of the punishment that crimes bring upon themselves than the connection pointed out by Von Sybel between the second partition of Poland in 1792 and the successes of the French Revolution in the same year. While the allies were jealously

watching each other and their destined prey, they presented but a half-hearted resistance to the enthusiastic legions of France. The whole of this article, "Through Anarchy to Cæsarism," is forcible and just.

Extracts from the Writings of W. M. Thackeray, chiefly Philosophical and Reflective. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1882.

THIS volume differs from most collections of extracts in the fact that it can be read through without weariness—a strong proof of the indestructible virtue of Thackeray's style. The extracts are really minute essays on the topics about which Thackeray was fond of moralizing by the way—men, women, marriage, hypocrisy, humbug, love, friendship, old age and youth, the way of the world, *vanitas vanitatum*—subjects which preachers, poets, and moralists have from the beginning of the world discussed, and which in modern times have in great measure fallen into the hands of novelists.

When Thackeray first came before the world, as the author of 'Vanity Fair,' the impression he made upon the English public was more that of a cynical moralist than of a master of fiction. Subsequently, it became gradually apparent to the dull, honest Anglo-Saxon mind that his philosophy, cynical though it might be, was not Mephistophelian; that he seriously admired and respected the cardinal virtues, though he did not believe that they were very common in the world, nor so invariably united with a high degree of intelligence as some students of human nature like to believe. When it was once admitted that he was not simply sneering at all good and manly things, it was but a step to exalt him into the position of a great preacher, who told the world the truth about itself, but chiefly because he so loved whatever was pure and lovely and of good report that he was forced to lift up his voice against the humbug and hypocrisy and shams with which he found it obscured and disfigured. As time went on, he got to take this view of himself, and to preach more and more and play the cynic less and less; and it must be confessed that in this process his style lost most of its freshness and pungency.

In looking over these extracts, one is most struck by the fact that there was really no novelty in his philosophy of life at all, and that the real reason why it attracted so much attention at the outset, and caused so much dispute, was the perfection of Thackeray's style, the delicacy of his humor, his power as a story-teller, and his lifelike development of character—in other words, his purely literary merits. It was these that made a view of life that was in fact very old seem to have the force of startling novelty. His cynicism, too, was a sort of surprise to the novel-reading public, because it came in the midst of an age of sentimental admiration of human nature, and sharply recalled the world to one of the great central facts of existence—that hypocrisy and deceit play an important part in it. The generation to which Thackeray belonged was determined at all hazards to make out that human life was a blessing and human history a tale of progress. To him, on the contrary, whatever might be the truth about human progress, human life was essentially unhappy, its hopes and ambitions delusive, its joys ephemeral, its sorrows lasting, and its meaning—except in the light of a supernatural revelation—like a tale told to an idiot, full of sound and fury, signifying nothing. This view of life may be all wrong, and it was believed to be all wrong by most of the readers of 'Vanity Fair' when it came out. At that time a taste for Thackeray was a sort of test of the disposition of a reader. To enjoy 'Vanity Fair'—or, at any rate, to enjoy it to the point of sympathy and admiration—was supposed to be an indication of a worldly, cynical spirit. Most people who wept over Nancy Sikes or the sufferings of Smike, looked upon the unhappiness of life as something which had its root in inequality of condition, or misfortune, or poverty, and looked forward to a time, not so far off either, when it would disappear like a disease the cure for which has at length been discovered, and leave nothing but kindness, love, and undiluted bliss in the world. Thackeray, as we have said, was no believer in this optimism. All lovers of him will find this volume worth looking over, as it presents his "philosophy" in a concise form.

Autobiography of the Rev. Luther Lee, D.D. Phillips & Hunt.

THIS is the story of a Methodist preacher, now an octogenarian, who won distinction by his efforts to redeem the Church he loved from the defilement of slavery. His account of the early fall of that Church into the embrace of the slave power, and of its long and desperate subserviency thereto; of the efforts of the bishops and others in authority to overawe and silence every manifestation of anti-slavery sentiment; and of the proscription and persecution visited upon those who sought to redeem their beloved Zion from blood-guiltiness, is fitted to astonish the present generation. Dr. Lee was among those who were driven by these persecutions to secede from the Church of their first love, and to organize another under the name of the "Wesleyan Connection." This secession failed to disintegrate the old Church in the Northern States only because it speedily brought the leaders, in part at least, to their senses. The iron rule of the bishops was relaxed, the preachers were no longer forbidden to discuss the subject, and in 1844 the General Conference actually called a bishop to account for being a slaveholder. The Southern secession followed, but a large portion of slave territory was still left within the jurisdiction of the Northern Church, where slavery was tolerated exactly as before, until the system was destroyed by the Civil War. After the Church had been thus purified of slavery, less by any action of its own than by the wage of battle, Dr. Lee and others of the Wesleyan body once more united with it.

That Dr. Lee's account of the struggle is substantially accurate there is no room for doubt. If he sometimes oversteps the bounds of modesty in what he says of his own part in the controversy, his narrative is yet of considerable historic value, showing as it does how much was done for the support of slavery by one of the largest of American churches. But while his familiarity with Methodist history saves him from falling into any serious errors on that subject, he is less fortunate in his attempt to give an account of the division of 1839 among the Abolitionists of Massachusetts. He was in the State but a short time, and his associations there were not favorable to a just apprehension of the matters in controversy. When he says that Garrison, Phillips, and others of their school "vehemently opposed all political action against slavery," he falls into an error at once so grave and so absurd that we can only attribute it to the forgetfulness of age. As to the importance and necessity of political action for the abolition of slavery, there was never any division of sentiment among Abolitionists in Massachusetts or elsewhere. The mooted question concerned only the form of such action. Mr. Garrison and his friends believed it unwise, in the then state of the cause, for Abolitionists to organize a political party. They thought the inevitable tendency of such a measure would be to cripple the work of moral agitation, to relieve the churches of their distress by drawing the movement almost exclusively into a political channel, and thus to postpone the crisis in which genuine political action might be expected to give effect to the moral sentiment of the country against slavery. Again, Dr. Lee falls into a palpable anachronism when he says that Garrison, Phillips, and others, in 1839, "declared it a sin to vote under the pro-slavery Constitution of the United States." It was not until five years after this that the anti-slavery societies led by Garrison arrived at this conclusion. We do not so much wonder at these mistakes of Dr. Lee when we observe that he makes "Josiah" Quincy chairman of a meeting of reformers in the Chardon Street Chapel in Boston. We notice also an error of the types, which makes Dr. Lee deliver a speech before the American Anti-Slavery Society, in 1832, a year and a half before that Society was organized.

P. Ovidii Nasonis Ibis: ex novis codicibus edidit, scholia vetera, commentarium cum prolegomenis, appendice, indice, addidit R. Ellis, Coll. Trin. ap. Oxon. Socius. Oxford: Clarendon Press. 1881.

IT may be in bad taste to admire Ovid too much. Men have been found to call him a poor poet. It was so in Bentley's time, it is so to-day. He has not the pulsing life of Catullus, the tenderness, the idyllic sweetness of Tibullus, the intimate touch of Propertius. He has a fatal facility in poetry that reminds one of Cicero in prose. One resents so much aptness. Ovid's art is so thorough that some critics would call it a knack, and by these he is accounted an artist as a *chef* is counted an artist. To them his skill is not so much that of the painter's deft finger as that of the juggler's nimble wrist. He is too much in love with his own cleverness—an old charge. He rings the changes on the same theme; he takes with both hands, and not only from the Greeks. They were fair game then as the French are fair game now for dramatists, and Germans fair game for scholars. But he borrows from his Roman brethren, and those who delight in the silent criticism of parallel columns can get some satisfaction out of Ovid, especially as his enemies say that he does not improve on what he borrows. He is too fond of conceits, of points; and he mars his best passages by quibbling comparisons. He has little depth of feeling; he is as frivolous as his verse is light. His tripping hexameters, his well-cadenced pentameters symbolize the airy man of the world. And yet, in the face of every possible objection and criticism, it may be confidently maintained that Ovid had genius enough for half a dozen poets; that he borrowed not because he was poor, but because he was rich; and that he had a great deal of Roman sap in him. There was no fight in Propertius: Ovid would and did fight on occasion, and one has not far to seek in his poems in order to find manly, ringing verses. If he seems to pule in his later poems, we should remember the misery of his lot, the contrast to him between Tomi and Rome. Ovid must have been a thoroughly companionable man, whereas Catullus, though charming, was dangerous, and Propertius was moody and sullen. We find fault with Cicero, with Ovid, with Voltaire, and we end by coming back to them.

Apart from the rest of Ovid's poems stands the "Ibis"—apart, as he himself says, both in its bitterness and in its obscurity; so far apart that the Ovidian authorship has been questioned. Ovid had passed fifty before he wrote a harsh line against any one. Fifty is an age at which the wine of life, as the Greek

said, is apt to turn to vinegar; and yet how few men can lay claim to so long a course of good-nature! When the poet was exiled, his own familiar friend lifted up his heel against him, gave tongue against him in public places, and tortured the loving wife to whom Ovid's thoughts turned constantly from his dreary exile. Up to that time, the poet says, his muse had harmed no one but himself. Now even his good-nature was turned to gall, and he learned to curse. That he had to get a master to teach him how to curse might be considered a proof of the native sweetness of his temper; but, unfortunately, the Romans always had to look for Greek models, even if they looked for them to surpass them. Ovid's model was the "Ibis" of Callimachus. Callimachus, a clever and pragmatic pedant-poet, was incensed with Apollonius, afterward called the Rhodian, for daring to contravene his canons of criticism, and especially that famous canon, "A big book is a big bore"; and, in order to punish his adversary, poured out on his head a vial of wrath into which he had distilled a whole herbary of curses gathered from the most secret recesses of Greek mythology. The title itself is a puzzle, as the ibis was highly reverenced among the Egyptians, although the popular ornithology of the period told unsavory tales about "Father John," as he is now affectionately called by the dwellers in those parts. The object of this poem—which belonged to the class of *Diræ*—was twofold: it was to blast by its malignity, and to abash by its learning, so that Apollonius would be hurt as much by what he did not understand as by what he did.

The "Ibis" of Callimachus was a short poem, Mr. Ellis thinks, and Ovid enlarged it by numerous additions borrowed from other writings of the same Callimachus and from the stock which he used in the "Metamorphoses." After the introduction, which is very vigorous and has more directness than is Ovid's wont, the mythological cursing begins, and we are introduced to a chamber of horrors and a Newgate calendar carefully made up from the dismal endings and wicked deeds of heroes and heroines. The page bristles with proper names. Even when the stories to which the poet alludes are sufficiently well known, the characters are often given in their genealogical relations, and the most familiar myths are thrown into the form of riddles. It is a catechism without any answer. Everybody knows Orestes, the Danaides, Ino, Æsculapius, and Ulysses. Is everybody so ready with the father of Tisamenus, the daughters-in-law of Ægyptus, the maternal aunt of Bacchus, the great-grandson of Saturn, and the son-in-law of Icarius? But most of the allusions do not lie on the surface, and some are so recondite that they have baffled the keen scent of all the scholars who have tried to track them out, from the days of Salvaing, that marvellous student who, in his twentieth year, mastered some of the worst problems of the "Ibis," down to Mr. Ellis, who has brought to his task better scholia, better MSS., besides vast erudition and rare acumen, proved in far higher and wider regions of classical literature.

Mr. Ellis has solved some of the hitherto insoluble puzzles, and his commentary is a treasure-house of learning. Few can read the original without some degree of mortification, and it is for this reason that Niebuhr recommends the study of it "to any scholar who wishes to ascertain whether he is thoroughly conversant with poetical mythology and ancient history." All will find in Mr. Ellis's notes a store of rare and curious learning worthy of the massive erudition of an earlier day. Of course detailed criticism of an edition of so peculiar a poem would be out of place here, but praise and all praise is sometimes dispraise: and it must be said that Mr. Ellis is occasionally too completely at the mercy of his own erudition and acumen, and that he bewilders his readers by the variety of his suggestions. Strange to say, Mr. Ellis, with all his learning, seems to have fallen into the popular error of confounding the Homeric and the Vergilian tradition of Hector's end. This only shows how overmastering the influence of Vergil is. Preller, in his 'Greek Mythology,' with his Homer presumably open before him, makes precisely the same mistake. Ovid says (v. 333, 334): "Vel qui, quæ fuerat tutatus mœnia sæpe, corpore lustravit non diuturna suo"; and yet Mr. Ellis refers to Homer (Il. 24, 16. 755), in which Hector's body is dragged, not round Troy, but round the tomb of Patroclus. Vergil followed a different tradition, which seems to have been present to Sophocles (Ajax, 1029), and is referred to in Curtius, 4, 6. Salvaing makes no allusion to the Homeric passage.

In the "Prolegomena" Mr. Ellis has discussed with ample learning the occasion of the "Ibis" of Ovid, although he has not reached a definite conclusion as to the person at whom all this malediction is aimed. He has discussed the "Ibis" of Callimachus, the meaning of the title, and the character of the bird; the sources of Ovid's poem, the arrangement of the fables, the special allusions to Egypt—which, by the way, he has hardly made out satisfactorily; the extent to which the "Ibis" was read in after times, the MSS., and the scholia. There are several excursus, and there is an index of words, due to the loving care of Mr. Ellis's sister. There is no compromise about the book. It is intended for scholars, and will be prized by scholars as a classical edition of one of the most curious monuments of antique literature.

Le Château de Versailles: Histoire et description. By L. Dussieux. 2 vols. 8vo, xi.–512, 472 pp. Versailles: Bernard; New York: J. W. Bouton. 1881.

THE Tower of London, the story of which the late Hepworth Dixon told rhetorically in a series of volumes, is the only building erected in the last thousand years which in historic importance and personal interest can vie with the Château of Versailles, the story of which M. Dussieux is now the first to tell fully and satisfactorily. The Tower of London is the older building of the two, and has had more of a drum-and-trumpet history. But high treason is now a thing of the past; for nearly two centuries the Tower has been slowly passing into the domain of romance; and we are inclined to doubt whether that veracious traveller, Mr. Martin Chuzzlewit, would now meet any one in these United States who believes that the Queen of England habitually resides in the Tower of London in preference to Buckingham Palace, Balmoral, or Osborne. The Château of Versailles, on the contrary, has kept its place in the very centre of power in France, with only occasional intermissions, for nearly two hundred and fifty years. It is only yesterday that the Government of the French Republic moved from Versailles to Paris; only ninety-odd years since the Third Estate met in the Jeu de Paume at Versailles. It is a little over a century ago since the simply-clad Benjamin Franklin moved amid the gaudy throng of courtiers, and won over to the support of the American cause the ally by whose aid was made possible the success we have been celebrating at Yorktown. And during the century which preceded Franklin's appearance in France, the Château was the most important building in existence, for in it centred the life of French royalty for three reigns, ending with Louis XVI.'s departure for Paris.

It may even be asserted that the Château of Versailles had a greater influence on the Revolution than the Bastille itself. The prison was little more than the symbol of arbitrary power, and comparatively few ever felt the weight of its chains, while the palace, with its prodigal profusion, was the cause of a great part of the public misery. One starts at reading of the vast sums squandered on the women who ruled the rulers of France. From the figures given by M. Dussieux it seems that Louis XIV. alone spent about $100,000,000 on Versailles, not counting the fortunes expended on Clagny (for Madame de Montespan) and on Marly (to which no one came without the permission of Madame de Maintenon). Nor does this sum include the unpaid labor of the thousands of peasants who were forced to work in *corvées*, and who died by hundreds from disease caused by the unhealthy nature of the soil.

It was on May 6, 1682, that Louis XIV. definitively took up his residence at Versailles, and it was in 1689 that La Bruyère wrote his famous description of the poor peasants, and it was in 1698 that Vauban declared it certain that the enormous taxes were unbearable, and that the roads in the country and the streets of the towns were full of beggars driven from their homes by hunger and nakedness. On the same page (i., 178) that M. Dussieux cites these facts he gives us a glimpse of the richness and extravagance of the King and court at the wedding of the Duke of Burgundy in 1697, which recalls a dream of the Arabian Nights in the profusion of its gold and velvet and precious stones. Louis XIV. died, and Madame de *Maintenant*, as the witlings nicknamed her, soon followed, and Louis XV. sat on the throne of his fathers. In time came Madame de Pompadour, and after a little the house in the Parc-aux-Cerfs. Just what Madame de Pompadour cost it is impossible to say exactly, although we know she received in nineteen years not less than $24,000,000 directly. In less than five years Madame Dubarry received more than $8,000,000. The recurrence of these names of favorites calls forth the remark that the history of Versailles is really a history of woman's influence on royalty in France. It was to Versailles that Louis XIII. invited Mlle. de Lafayette, an invitation declined because the young lady saw the pitfalls before her and escaped her royal lover by taking the veil. It was at Versailles that Louis XIV. gave to Mlle. de la Vallière the splendid fêtes at which Molière produced his "Princesse d'Élide," the first three acts of "Tartufe," and the "Impromptu de Versailles." It was there that Madame de Maintenon succeeded to her friend Madame de Montespan. It was there that the Duchess of Châteauroux and her sisters ruled the fickle heart of Louis XV.; and it was there that Madame de Pompadour and Madame Dubarry brought the monarchy to still greater shame and degradation. It was at Versailles that Louis XVI. led a decent life, amusing himself with locksmithing, while the Comte d'Artois was learning to dance on the tight-rope (ii., 354), and while Marie Antoinette, with her wonted imprudence, was referring to herself as Venus and to her husband and King as Vulcan. It was at Versailles that Marie Antoinette revolted against the elaborate ceremonial of monotonous etiquette and earned the deadly hatred of the nobility—a hatred which found vent in innuendo, scandal, and slander, and which the lower orders only imitated from their betters when they rose against the "Austrian woman" and her husband.

This hurried glance along the history which M. Dussieux has told in detail must suffice at least to suggest the interest of the narrative and

the exceeding richness of the materials he has had at his command. In reality, M. Dussieux's book is closely akin to what we Americans know as a local history; and his method is a model. In his first part, devoted to the Château itself, we have an account of its foundation and of its gradual elaboration, the description of every important room, including a sketch of the chief events which may have happened in it, with ample quotations from the original authorities, memoirs, letters, etc. This first part is, indeed, the main body of the book, filling the whole of the first volume and a third of the second. In a second and a third part are considered the dependencies and the parks and gardens; and in a fourth are described the royal houses, Marly, Clagny, and the Trianons. Then, in a short concluding part, is given a brief account of the town which had grown up by the side of the Château. There are ten engravings of the Château at different times, and of the chief objects of interest; noticeable is a double-page etching of the *Théâtre des petits-appartements*, with Madame de Pompadour on its stage. There are twenty-two plans. M. Dussieux, who is an honorary professor at the military school of St. Cyr, understands the necessity of accuracy, and at his hands the history of Versailles appears for the first time freed from legend and error, and founded securely on actual investigation. In conjunction with the late M. Soulié, kindly remembered by all students of Molière, M. Dussieux had edited the 'Journal' of Dangeau (1684–1720) and the 'Memoirs' of the Duke de Luynes (1735–1758), from which he has derived much of the information in the present work. A history of the royal Château was a task which M. Soulié had hoped to accomplish, and for which his minute historical knowledge, his keen critical sense, and his wide acquaintance with the Château (of the museum of which he was keeper) admirably qualified him; but if anything could reconcile us to the loss of M. Soulié's work, it would be the execution of his project as satisfactorily and as fully as by M. Dussieux.

Treatise on the Game of Twenty Questions. Henry Holt & Co. 1882.

LOVERS of this interesting game will gladly read the aptly-bound little book which so brightly discusses and so clearly explains it. They will enjoy this reminder of the keen questionings, subtle evasions, and wonderful clairvoyance which Twenty Questions can evoke from any quick-witted circle. The rules given are clear and explicit, and well adapted to preserve harmony among players of a game which often severely tries the temper even of good-natured people. The suggestions as to improvements in methods of playing and in regard to different varieties of the game are good, though we see the author makes no mention of the kind in which one person (not being captain of the party) for a time does all the questioning and guessing. One objection to the game, played so formally as the rules here given demand, is, that such exactitude diminishes fun and frolic. Still, without it, the cry of unfairness is often raised. The specimen games are pretty fair illustrations, though they do not make apparent the brilliancy of the game. The book will be widely acceptable.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Across the Atlantic. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
American College Song-Book. Chicago: Orville Brewer & Co.
Avenarius, F. Deutsche Lyrik der Gegenwart, seit 1850. B. Westermann & Co.
Blake, Mary E. Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.
California as It Is. By Seventy Leading Editors and Authors of the Golden State. San Francisco *Call* Co. 50 cents.
Chester, Henrietta M. Russia, Past and Present. Adapted from the German. With maps and illustrations. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1 50.
Corning, Dr. J. L. Carotid Compression and Brain Rest. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 40 cents.
Coursen, Charlotte, H., and Crosby, Edith R. From Daybreak to Twilight. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Loomis, L. C. The Index Guide to Travel and Art-Study in Europe. Charles Scribner's Sons. $3 50.
Mac-Ghniomhartha Fhinn. The Youthful Exploits of Fionn. New York Society for the Preservation of the Irish Language.
Masson, G. Dictionary of the French Language. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Milman, Bishop. Mitslav; or, The Conversion of Pomerania. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1 15.
Mills, C. D. B. Pebbles, Pearls, and Gems of the Orient. Boston: George H. Ellis.
Osgood's Pocket Guide to Europe. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Pollock, W. H. Songs and Rhymes: English and French. London: Remington & Co.
Raimund, G. From Hand to Hand: a Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 50.
Rolfe, W. J. Shakespeare's Tragedy of Timon of Athens. Harper & Bros.
Sand, George. Correspondance. 1812–1876. F. W. Christern.
Sheldon, H. N. The Law of Subrogation. Boston: Soule & Bugbee.
Skeat, W. W. An Etymological Dictionary of the English Language. Macmillan & Co. $2 50.
Skeat, W. W. A Concise Etymological Dictionary of the English Language. Harper & Bros.
Spurgeon, C. H. The Treasury of David. Vol. II. Funk & Wagnalls. $2.
Trollope, A. Marion Fay. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Tucker-Macchetta, Blanche R. The Home-Life of Henry W. Longfellow. G. W. Carleton & Co.
Weeks, L. H. Among the Azores. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1 50.
Zola, E. Pot-Bouille. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.

HENRY HOLT & Co.

HAVE READY:

America and France.

The Influence of the United States on France in the XVIIIth Century. By Lewis Rosenthal. $2 50.

SERJEANT BALLANTINE'S

Some Experiences of a Barrister's Life.

Large 12mo, with portrait, $2 50.

The Revolt of Man.

16mo (Leisure-Hour Series), $1.

READY SATURDAY:

Life of Wm. Penn.

By R. J. Burdette (of the Burlington *Hawkeye*). 16mo (Lives of American Worthies Series), $1 25.

Yesterday.

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WM. H. BALDWIN, Cashier.

YOUNGSTOWN, O., May 16, 1882.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 15, 1882.

The Week.

THE Tariff Commission has been made up of five representatives of special interests (the woollen-manufacturers, the iron-masters, the wool-growers, the rice-growers, and the sugar-planters), two persons classed as "strong protectionists," one person classed as a "moderate protectionist," and one (Mr. John S. Phelps, of Missouri) whose tariff predilections are not known, but who is supposed to have been placed on the Commission because he was a Democrat, and who is at all events superannuated and has, since his appointment, resigned. The *Tribune's* Washington correspondent says very frankly that "the work of the Commission is not to decide whether or not there shall be a protective tariff, but to make a protective tariff." This statement of the intent of the Commission is undoubtedly true, as far as it goes, but it is incomplete. We have a protective tariff now. The purpose of the Commission, therefore, must be to make another and different protective tariff. This can be done only by making a redistribution of the duties so as to take away from some interests a portion of the favors given to them, and to bestow the same upon others. They can hardly expect to increase the aggregate burden of the tariff: the country is in no mood for that; but they may divide the spoils differently. We cannot say that we are disappointed by the make-up of the Commission. Having looked upon the movement from the beginning as an effort to stave off needed amendments of the tariff, the separate and successive steps taken to carry out this intention are not, in our view, matters of any great moment.

The Senate on Monday and Tuesday made an attempt to grapple with the Japanese indemnity question, and, in the effort to be "just honest enough," made a sad exhibition of itself. The money originally received from Japan, $785,000, belongs either to the United States or to Japan, and of course the interest belongs to the owner of the principal. The Senate voted, however, that the principal only ought to be returned. The only reason advanced for treating the matter in this way was the statement of Messrs. Plumb and Ingalls that a "lobby" has been at work for years in the interest of the Japanese Government. This lobby has been got up, it seems, by the Japanese Minister, who has "descended from the diplomatic office he occupies," and is hard at work "influencing legislation." They evidently think that he is spending a good deal of money, for he is described as not only lobbying the Senate and getting up elaborate legal briefs, but as furnishing the entire press of the country with editorials. On the whole, they make him out the most accomplished corruptionist that has ever appeared at Washington. He has got the newspapers of both parties not merely to favor his scheme for taking money out of the Treasury, but to insist that it would be a breach of national faith not to do it. The strangest part of the matter is that a considerable number of votes should be influenced by such stuff as this.

Mr. Wilson, in the course of his opening for the defence in the Star-route trials, resorted to an argument in defence of his clients of a somewhat novel character. He urged that in the far West the returns from the overland mail service had always been small in proportion to the outlay. This service was first established at the time of the California gold fever in 1849, "over the alkali deserts," over "sage-brush plains, where no living thing larger than a jack-rabbit could be met with in hundreds of miles," over "enormous mountains," too; and its maintenance cost $600,000, while the returns from postage were only $27,000. Not satisfied with this, the Government pushed out another route through the Southwest, passing through "many miles of morass," over "scorching prairies," where the thermometer went "far above a hundred," down through "the desolate Staked Plains of Texas"; and this route cost $600,000 a year, and only brought in $2,000. "Now," said Mr. Wilson, "has any complaint ever been made against the operation of these routes because of their cost? Not a voice was ever raised against them." The difference between the two cases, however, is that in the Star-routes the cost was not occasioned by the alkali deserts, the sage-brush plains, the enormous mountains, the miles of morass, or the scorching prairies, but by the Second Assistant Postmaster-General and his friends taking the money and putting it into their own pockets. This constitutes an important distinction between the two cases, as the jury will no doubt, on reflection, perceive.

The Republican State Convention in Ohio, which met, deliberated, and adjourned on Wednesday, had the difficult task to perform of harnessing two horses together that wanted to go in two opposite directions. The principal point was how to keep the temperance vote and the German vote at the same time. The platform presents a model of plausibility intended not to offend anybody, and for that very reason calculated not to satisfy anybody. It provides that, "by specific taxation, the traffic in intoxicating liquors should be made to bear its share of the public burdens," and that the Constitution, which, according to the recent decision of the Supreme Court on the Pond law, stands in the way, should be amended accordingly. This has a fair sound to the uninitiated, but it is very questionable whether it will satisfy the opponents of strict sumptuary laws in Ohio, who have learned to suspect the contents of the wooden horse of Troy, while on the other hand it will be scarcely satisfactory to the strict sort of temperance people. Thus this platform may fail in winning back the disaffected German vote, and succeed in driving away the advocates of prohibition. The whole muddle is the upshot of one of those ill-advised attempts to save people from perdition by extreme legislation—attempts which, as experience teaches, will always fail the more surely the more extreme that legislation is, while moderate measures might be quite effective.

It has been determined upon by Mr. Cameron, according to recent advices, that his State Convention, recalled to nominate a candidate for "Congressman-at-large," is to select Mr. Wanamaker, the great clothing merchant of Philadelphia. There is said to be a good deal of reluctance on the part of "the boys" to nominate that gentleman, but as Mr. Cameron has selected him, they will, of course, have to obey orders. The reasons why Mr. Cameron made that selection are very curious. Mr. Wanamaker is not known as much of a statesman: he has not even taken any part in politics. But, in Mr. Cameron's opinion, he is the man for the hour (1) because he is a prominent Presbyterian and great Sunday-school patron, and may therefore be expected to draw a large religious vote, and (2) because he is, as a clothing merchant, a very large advertiser in the newspapers, and it is thought no paper in Philadelphia will dare to oppose him for fear of losing his patronage. With his peculiar views of human nature, Mr. Cameron evidently thinks that he is putting the fidelity of the Independents to their cause to a very severe test by a nomination of such many-sided strength.

The announcement that the collection of "assessments" is this year to be carried into the Navy-yards, and that even the laborers are to be levied on, shows that the spoilsmen are steadily growing more audacious in their ventures. The Navy-yards have long been—in fact, have always been—great sources of corruption; but hitherto, we believe, as far as the laborers were concerned, a vote has been considered a fair equivalent for employment. They have not hitherto been compelled to pay cash for their places besides voting. Any collection of assessments is the sale of Government offices for money, but the manual laborers have not until now been expected to purchase theirs. This sort of traffic has been common enough in past ages in every country. In France, under the old régime, a large number of Government places were vendible, and in England commissions in the Army remained negotiable commodities down to our own day. But we believe no Government but our own, and no party but the Republican party, has until now forced the laborer and mechanic to pay out of his scanty earnings for the privilege of doing public work. Even the Turkish Pashas have not reached this point, so far as we know, though some of them are ready for anything with a profit in it. Of course, assessed laborers cannot be good workmen. They would be more than human if they rendered faithful service in employment which they have purchased. The connection of the assessment system in general with the cost and inefficiency of Navy-yard work must be close, and will hereafter be closer, though we may not be able to say exactly how much of

the waste, and extravagance, and failure of our navy-building and navy-maintaining is due to it.

The bill making retirement at the age of sixty-four compulsory in the Army passed the Senate on Tuesday. All efforts to except Generals Sherman and Sheridan from its operation were unsuccessful, owing to the fear felt by many that if exceptions were once begun they would be greatly multiplied. It cannot be said that there is any great hardship in the rule. No man of sixty-four can be greatly wronged by being relieved from active work, with a pension, six years before the period which is for all practical purposes the term of human life. There is hardly any man who by the age of sixty-four has not begun to feel the weight of years, and the cases are rare indeed in which an officer who has begun to feel the weight of years is fit for active service in the field, and as a rule every officer in the Army ought to be fit for active service in the field. As a rule, too, the elderly soldiers have got the worst of it, other things being equal, in campaigns against young opponents. The success of the Germans under old generals in the wars of 1866 and 1870 is an exception, but it must be remembered that the real work of these two campaigns was done by General Moltke years before. The greatest achievement of his career was the organization and perfection of the Prussian General Staff, probably the most complete and effective weapon of war ever devised. The campaigns against Austria and France were by it planned long before the war broke out, and the Army put into a state of perfect readiness. The blows which followed, too, were delivered in close accordance with the programme, and they fell with such force and regularity that they had almost the air of being struck by the hammer of Fate. The result was that the enemy was destroyed with literally unprecedented speed. The Austrian capital was at the mercy of the Prussians, and peace concluded, in six weeks. The French Emperor and his Army had been bagged and his capital reduced to extremities in nine months. So that there was in neither contest the prolonged wear and tear of the sudden and unforeseen, which are most trying to elderly nerves. That Moltke and Steinmetz and Vogel von Falkenstein could have stood the vicissitudes of a protracted struggle like our Civil War, is not likely.

Our military policy is a very simple one. We do not need a large army, but we do need a considerable body of trained officers, ready to take the command of a large army whenever we see fit to raise one, knowing well that the emergency which calls for one is, if it ever occur, pretty sure to be sudden. It should, therefore, be our object to encourage officers to enter the service and remain long enough to learn its business thoroughly, and then to leave it, so as to have a steady stream passing through the process of training. Whatever in our system of promotion or retirement affords this encouragement is desirable; whatever diminishes it, pernicious. And it must not be forgotten that in creating a military organization it is the probable effect on the imaginations of the young we have mainly to bear in mind. The period of retirement, for instance, should be fixed so as not to make the young men think promotion likely to be slow, and not to make middle-aged men think themselves likely to be hardly dealt with. It is these two classes whose views should settle the matter. As a general rule a man of sixty-five, who prances about, and fancies he can sit a horse as well as ever, and is as good in a campaign as any one, is a foolish old fellow whose powers of mind as well as of body are failing. Some of the most shocking disasters in the history of war have been caused by this class of officers. The memorable panic of the British cavalry at Chillianwallah was largely caused by the presence in command of an aged brigadier who had to be lifted into his saddle, and the earlier and still more frightful disaster of Cabul, in 1841, was directly due to the age and infirmity of Elphinstone, the general in command.

The gold-export movement during the week was not important, and late in the week the foreign demand for American railroad securities was renewed, having undoubtedly been stimulated by the favorable condition and prospects of the crops, and by the fact that Mr. Vanderbilt spoke to his friends more encouragingly about his railroads than he has done of late, and because of the belief that he has been buying back the shares in them which he sold. The New York banks, mainly in consequence of the excessive disbursements of the Treasury for the redemption of called bonds, gained in reserve, and now hold upward of $5,000,000 more lawful money than the reserve law requires. In the foreign trade of the country the imports are decreasing, but there is no increase in merchandise exports. Domestic trade continues very dull. There has been no extension of the labor troubles; on the contrary, in some places the strikers have returned to work. At the Stock Exchange prices declined early in the week, but later advanced to the highest figures. Railroad earnings show surprising gains; the tonnage is larger than a year ago, and the rates are higher than since the outbreak of the late railroad war.

The circulation on Friday on the Stock Exchange of rumors affecting the solvency of some half dozen prominent houses—rumors which could not be traced to any responsible source, and which were falsified by the fact that the houses in question continued to transact business as usual—was evidently a part of a "bear campaign," and is by no means unprecedented in the history of Wall Street. If a party is "short" of a particular stock, and has exhausted all other means of depressing its price, the last resort is to spread a story that some firm known to be "long" of the same stock is about to fail, and to have this story telegraphed privately to all parts of the country. To those who believe the story (and many will believe it if somebody else has actually failed within a day or two), the inference will be that a large amount of this stock will come on the market suddenly, with the effect of depressing the price. Bona-fide holders will thus be alarmed and impelled to sell before the expected break comes, and their selling will produce the break desired and intended by the malignants who invented the slander. This is an old story. The practice of crying down the credit and standing of respectable and solvent firms has been in vogue so long, and has yielded such handsome returns to fresh relays of rascals, that we must not indulge in the hope of seeing a stop put to it at an early day. But the Stock Exchange ought to expel from its membership any person who can be shown, upon good evidence, to have set on foot false rumors respecting the credit and solvency of a fellow-member; this as an additional penalty to that imposed by the law of the State for the same offence.

The English friends of marriage with a deceased wife's sister have just been defeated, by a very small majority of four, however, in a vote of 360, in an attempt to carry their bill through the House of Lords. As the royal family seems to have come over to them, the Prince of Wales and the Dukes of Edinburgh and Albany voting in the minority, their triumph cannot be far distant. There never has been a more curious or characteristic agitation in England than that on this question. The number of men who wish to marry their deceased wives' sisters never seems to have been great: in fact, they were only a handful all told; but their attempts to get their wishes legalized have been met by an opposition of almost passionate bitterness. The contradictions produced in the utilitarian argument against them have been very remarkable. It has been maintained, often by the same writer, that the cases were so few that it would be absurd to change the law on account of them; and also, that they were so numerous and desperate that if legislation were provided for their benefit it would lead to an awful amount of crime, including wife-murder and incest. The *Saturday Review* has for many years had an annual article on men who wish to marry their deceased wives' sisters, in which they are painted in the blackest colors, as an extraordinary mixture of imbecility and lawlessness, and as capable of overthrowing both throne and altar, if necessary, to gratify their desires. The supporters of the change are, however, after all more powerful and persistent than the opponents of it, because their interest in the question is keener. They have, in short, the advantage over the latter which the high-tariff men have over the freetraders. A man who wishes to marry his wife's sister is, as an agitator on this subject, worth two dozen men who think he ought not to marry her.

Mr. Henry George has made a convert of Michael Davitt, the Irish suspect, to his plan of having the state own all the land of the country and let it out to the occupiers, and he proposes to have it adopted in Ireland under the auspices of an Irish Parliament, the landlords to be bought out for about $750,000,000. The worst effect of this will be its unsettling effect on the Irish tenants, who are now in a transition state and need all pos-

sible assistance in settling down. That the scheme will receive much real acceptance from the farmers is very unlikely, because they see peasant proprietorship already within their reach; and that any body of Celtic peasant proprietors will ever consent to surrender their land to the state or anybody else, is something which the experience of France justifies us in disbelieving. If the Irish tenants ever get the fee simple of their farms, the danger is that even the purchase money advanced by the state will not be repaid, although a fixed amount. That a scheme for saddling them with a variable state rent would be accepted is most unlikely. But that the Davitt plan might furnish something to clamor for, as a stepping-stone to proprietorship free of all charges whatever, is not very unlikely, and if he perseveres with it, he may greatly embarrass Parnell. The more such theories are produced by the Irish leaders, however, the more remote the period at which capital will seek the country for any species of investment.

As Mr. Gladstone rather pooh-poohed the disinclination of the Irish judges to serve without juries under the Repression Bill, and, in fact, intimated that he had not heard of it, they have held another meeting, at which they have drawn up a protest, which, to make assurance sure, they have sent to Mr. Gladstone's house, reiterating their objections. One of them, Baron Fitzgerald, will, it is said, resign, in case this feature of the bill is not modified. The truth is, that as the bill is an English measure, and as no Irishman of note, whether lay or professional, has been consulted about it—not even the judges on whom it is proposed to lay this most serious and unprecedented burden—it ought to provide a special tribunal made up of Englishmen or Irishmen who approve of it. Inasmuch as it constitutes a startling departure from the existing usages of English jurisprudence, it is essentially a law which nobody who disbelieves in it ought to be called on to execute, and, least of all, the judges, because the only thing they have to rely on for the preservation of their moral authority is the popular belief in their political impartiality. If their resistance should lead to greater consideration for Irish opinion in the concoction of Irish legislation, it will do great good. One of the singular but very instructive incidents of Mr. Forster's official career as Chief Secretary was that, although he was exercising enormous powers and had but little knowledge of the country, he never consulted an Irish member, not even one of the moderate Liberals.

The *Tribune* cites, as an illustration of the prophetic powers of its London correspondent, his prediction that Mr. Dillon's late "heart-breaking speech," as Mr. Gladstone called it in the House of Commons, would find its "echo in the report of an Irish rifle behind a hedge." Accordingly, says the editor, "the same issue of the *Tribune* which contained the prediction chronicled its fulfilment" in the murder of Mr. Bourke. Unfortunately, it is not so easy as this would make it appear, to become a first-class Irish prophet. The practice of murdering landlords as a remedy for agrarian wrongs began in Ireland between 1750 and 1760. It was the first sign of life the conquered population gave after the triumph of William of Orange and the enactment of the Penal Laws. It has continued steadily ever since, and has been promoted by various organizations, beginning with the "White Boys," and coming down to the "Moonshiners." During all that period there has been no year in which some agrarian murders were not committed; there were some years in which more were committed than in any one of the last three. In order to repress them fifty coercion acts of various degrees of severity have been passed. In all debates on Irish matters in the House of Commons since 1800, these outrages have been used to taunt and silence all, whether English or Irish, members who urged the redress of Irish grievances. In many cases they have been used, as in Dillon's case, to make orators who denounced force as "no remedy" responsible for the murders which followed the delivery of their speeches. In fact, one of the favorite modes of evading the radical treatment of the Irish problem has been to accuse them of instigating by their language an excitable and lawless population to deeds of violence. That the *Tribune* correspondent should know nothing of the history of the Irish question is not surprising, because it is not an inviting branch of literature; but the rule that "you mustn't prophesy unless you know" is peculiarly applicable to his case.

The notion which the Tory papers in England are industriously preaching, too, that the Land League teachings have caused the violence of the past three years, is equally absurd. The violence began in its present form 130 years ago. The causes of it were described by Dean Swift in his fiercest rhetoric. They were described forty years later by Arthur Young, and since the beginning of the century have been described by hundreds of travellers, publicists, and economists, English and foreign, and by three English Commissions. These all tell the same story. Roughly speaking, peasants shoot landlords to keep down rents. In some cases, as in Tipperary, for instance, which was forty years ago literally a "dark and bloody ground," they shot so successfully that the rents have been moderate and the county very peaceable ever since. To state these things in this way has, of course, the air, from one point of view, of palliating or instigating crime. And yet stated they must be, before the remedy can be applied. But the question on whom the greater bloodguiltiness rests—those who have for a century permitted this fountain of woe to flow, or those who have from time to time passionately and indiscreetly called attention to it—is one which few moralists will have much difficulty in answering.

The retirement of General Ignatieff as Minister of the Interior might be taken as a symptom of reformatory intentions on the part of the Russian Czar. In diplomacy Ignatieff was currently called "the father of lies." In politics he was one of the chief pillars of old Russian absolutism, and in administration he was looked upon as the very embodiment of arbitrary and corrupt methods. His withdrawal from an important post in the Ministry would, therefore, under any circumstances, be a *sine qua non* of a liberal and enlightened policy. But the appointment of Count Tolstoi as his successor is not calculated to encourage great hopes in that respect. He was Minister of Public Instruction once, and as such he showed himself more of the kind of Ignatieff than of General Melikoff, the reform Minister, who, when in power, deemed it necessary to use his whole influence to bring about the removal of Tolstoi from the place he then held.

The Turkish Commissioner has arrived in Egypt, the Sultan's efforts to have the conference given up before he went having failed. The Powers refuse to give up the conference, and the Commissioner is to do the best he can in the meantime. He is said to have instructions to restore the authority of the Khedive, and has received Arabi Bey coldly, but the populace in Cairo have evidently been led to believe that his mission is to oust foreigners from control in Egypt, and revive the Mussulman supremacy. The Commissioner probably has instructions to do everything to satisfy the Powers, but it will be done in such a way as to make the people regard it as an assertion of the Sultan's authority for which the Powers are grateful.

The situation in Egypt has been so long "strained," as the diplomatists say, that the wonder is that the outbreak at Alexandria, reported on Monday, did not come sooner. The population of course know nothing about the negotiations between the Powers, and the reasons of state which make France and England reluctant to take active steps to restore order. They only know what they see, and what they see is that Arabi Bey and his men are masters of Egypt and do not care a straw what the infidels think or say, and that the Khedive has no authority. If France and England had made up their mind to leave Egypt to the Egyptians, the prolongation of this state of things would make but little difference. But nothing can be further from their thoughts. They are determined, each for different reasons, that the Egyptians shall not have Egypt, and it was, therefore, incumbent on them to let the Egyptians know in some unmistakable way at the outset that Arabi Bey's performances were simple tomfoolery, and that if he did not soon desist, he would be summarily dealt with. He has been allowed to go on, however, so long that the populace in Alexandria and Cairo have begun to feel that the foreigners are there on sufferance; and this being the case, a row in a café was all that was necessary to bring on an *émeute* such as has occurred. The worst of it is that order and security will be now much harder to restore than before. Moreover, the attack on the Italian Consul brings Italy into the field, with a claim to meddle which she did not before possess. The Italians will now hardly be content if their Ministry does not make a show of Italian troops to the Egyptians, and there is nothing which France would like less.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 7, to TUESDAY, June 13, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

ON Wednesday afternoon the President sent to the Senate his nominations for the Commission authorized by Congress to inquire into the tariff and suggest legislation. The names are as follows: William A. Wheeler, of New York, chairman; John L. Hayes, of Massachusetts; Henry W. Oliver, jr., of Pennsylvania; Austin M. Garland, of Illinois; Jacob Ambler, of Ohio; John S. Phelps, of Missouri; Robert P. Porter, of the District of Columbia; John W. H. Underwood, of Georgia; and Duncan F. Kenner, of Louisiana. The Commission is largely made up of representatives of the leading interests which profit by a high protective tariff. Mr. Phelps and Mr. Wheeler have declined to serve.

The Japanese Indemnity Bill was passed by the Senate on Tuesday by a vote of 35 to 13. The bill, as it came from the House, provided for the repayment to Japan of $785,000 unjustly taken from her, with interest, but the Senate struck out the interest, and voted to return only the principal.

On Monday the House of Representatives agreed to the Senate amendment to the Army Bill, fixing the age for compulsory retirement of Army officers at sixty-four.

The House Committee on Civil-Service Reform has directed a favorable report to be made to the House of Representatives on Mr. Kasson's bill, which charges the Court of Claims with the preliminary consideration of cases of contested elections.

The Foreign Affairs Committee has reported to the House a joint resolution authorizing the President to call an international conference to fix a common prime meridian for the regulation of time throughout the world.

The Ohio Republican State Convention met on Wednesday and nominated Charles Townsend for Secretary of State; John H. Doyle for Judge of the Supreme Court; and Charles Flickinger for Member of the Board of Public Works. The platform adopted laments the death of President Garfield; approves President Arthur's course; condemns the outrages upon the Jews in Russia, and calls for a continuance of the efforts of the Government to ameliorate their condition; endorses and affirms the principle of protection to American industry; demands that, "by specific taxation, the traffic in intoxicating liquors shall be made to bear its share of the public burden," and that the Constitution of the State shall be changed so as to give the people practical control of the liquor traffic, "to the end that the evils resulting therefrom may be effectually provided against." This last clause is the most important in the platform, for upon the way in which the liquor question was treated depended the German vote in the State. The action of the Convention in coming out decidedly in favor of specific taxation of the liquor traffic will, it is conceded, lose a large portion of the Germans to the Republicans.

The Independent-Liberal State Convention of North Carolina met on Wednesday. Sixty of the ninety-five counties are said to have been represented by men who have heretofore acted and voted with the Democratic party. The platform invites "all persons, without regard to past political affiliations," to join the party; denounces the present system of county government in the State; demands a free ballot and a fair count; denounces all sumptuary laws or class legislation in general, and the Prohibition Act in particular, and calls for its repeal; calls for a liberal system of public instruction, both by the State and National Governments, and to that end urges the "application of all the funds arising from the tax on distilled spirits by the general Government to the common schools of the State."

Two Democratic election officers of Halifax County, North Carolina, were convicted of fraud at Raleigh, on Thursday. They will both be sent to the Penitentiary. This is looked upon as a great victory for a "free vote and a fair count" in that State, and it is thought that the precedent will do much toward securing a fair vote and an honest count in the November elections.

The Alabama Democratic State Convention met on Thursday at Montgomery and nominated E. A. O'Neal for Governor by acclamation. He is a native of the State, a lawyer by profession, and was a Brigadier-General in the Confederate Army. The platform demands a strict construction of the Federal Constitution; denounces centralization; invites immigration and capital to the State, and pledges them "full and perfect protection"; says that "public education should be fostered and encouraged by the State as far as the means of the State will allow"; calls for the protection and preservation of the purity of the ballot-box, and condemns any attempt to interfere with the free and full exercise of the elective franchise.

The Iowa Greenback State Convention met on Thursday and elected General Weaver chairman. The Committee on Resolutions reported in opposition to the national banks and in favor of the general Government issuing legal-tender notes; in opposition to refunding the interest-bearing debt of the country; in favor of the unlimited coinage of gold and silver; in opposition to railway and telegraph monopolies; and in favor of a revision of the tariff in the interests of American labor.

The Maine Republican State Convention was held at Portland on Tuesday. Frederick Robie was nominated for Governor. Senator Hale presided at the Convention, and Senator Frye made an address which created great enthusiasm. The platform calls for an honest count of votes, maintenance of free schools, protective tariff, hard money, and opposes the reduction of the internal-revenue tax on liquors.

The Utah Constitutional Convention assembled on Wednesday and adopted a memorial to Congress, urging the admission of the State, and appointed a committee of seven to go to Washington immediately and personally urge the admission of Utah into the sisterhood of States.

The election in Oregon resulted in a victory for the Republicans. George, the Republican candidate for Congress, was elected by a majority of over 3,500, which is the largest majority ever given to any candidate. The Republicans control the Legislature by a certain majority of ten.

The Legislature of Rhode Island reëlected Senator Henry B. Anthony on Tuesday.

News has been received from Patrick and Franklin Counties, Virginia, that the people of those counties have been threatened with a famine, owing to the failure of the corn crop. The counties are remote from railway communication, in a mountainous country, and it is difficult to ship provisions to them. There were said, on Tuesday, to be hundreds, if not thousands, especially in Patrick County, who were without food, and had no idea where their next meal was to come from. Many persons, both white and colored, had not tasted food, except such vegetables as they could gather in the fields, for two days.

Major E. A. Burke, State Treasurer of Louisiana, and Mr. C. H. Parker, editor of the New Orleans *Picayune*, fought a duel in New Orleans on Wednesday, in which Mr. Burke was severely wounded in the thigh. The cause of the duel was an article which appeared in the *Picayune* reflecting on Mr. Burke.

A committee of workmen from the Cincinnati iron mills met the proprietors of the mills on Saturday, and made an agreement to go to work on Monday on the terms of the contract of last October, the contract, however, to be amended by striking out the word "forever." The prices at present will be the same as those when they stopped work, and will remain so until the scale is fixed at Pittsburgh, when that will be the Cincinnati scale. All the iron mills in the Cincinnati region began work on Monday. The situation in Pittsburgh remains unchanged. The members of the Amalgamated Association are preparing for a great labor demonstration on the 17th of June. There will be a procession which will be one of the largest that ever marched in Pittsburgh. Delegations from various States will participate, and it is expected that there will be from 20,000 to 25,000 men in line.

While 150 Poles and Bohemians were returning from work in the mills at Cleveland, Ohio, under protection of a guard of policemen, they were attacked by a mob of strikers who were finally driven off by the police, but not until they had inflicted serious injuries upon some of the Bohemians.

Commissioner McFarland says that a larger amount of public lands will have been disposed of during the year ending June 30, 1882, than during any preceding year since the establishment of the General Land Office.

The opening arguments of counsel in the Star-route cases ended on Thursday, and the prosecution began to put in its testimony.

Mr. Reed has applied to Associate Justice Bradley, of the Supreme Court, for a writ of habeas corpus in the Guiteau case, upon the ground that the Criminal Court of the District of Columbia had no jurisdiction. Justice Bradley has the papers under consideration, and his decision is looked for in a day or two. This is Guiteau's last chance.

A reunion of officers of the Union and Confederate Armies upon the battle-field of Gettysburg for the purpose of locating the positions of the various commands began on Wednesday.

The American Medical Association, which has been in session at St. Paul, Minnesota, refused on Wednesday to admit the delegates from the New York State Medical Society, on the ground that there were in the code of ethics of the New York Society "provisions essentially differing from and in conflict with" the code of ethics of the American Asociation.

Chief-Justice Bradford L. Prince, of New Mexico, and Judge Porter, of Arizona, have tendered their resignations to the President.

The Spanish-American Claims Commission has adjourned until July 8. All business before the Commission will remain at a standstill until the Governments of Spain and the United States come to a final understanding on the general question of citizenship and the right of the Spanish Government to go behind the naturalization certificates in a number of cases pending before the Commission.

The Italian residents of Cincinnati, Richmond, Chicago, Washington, San Francisco, and other cities held meetings on Sunday in memory of Garibaldi.

The Ladies' Land League, of Cleveland, held a large meeting on Sunday, notwithstanding Bishop Gilmour's threat that he would excommunicate those ladies who would not renounce all relations with the League. President Rowland delivered an address in which he congratulated the members on their gallant stand, and said: "To-day we have the sympathy of the whole world, and expressions of admiration and esteem, telling us to persevere in the good work, come pouring in from the press and from every Land League in the Union."

Lieutenant Danenhower has received information by mail from Irkutsk to the effect that letters from Engineer Melville, giving particulars of the finding of the bodies of Lieutenant De Long and his men, have reached there from the Lena Delta. In a memorandum found on De Long's body, and bearing the date October 18, it was stated that four of the party were dead, and that Mr. Collins was dying.

FOREIGN.

Dervish Pasha and the rest of the Turkish Commission arrived in Alexandria on Wednesday, the 7th. They were enthusiastically received by the native troops. Arabi Bey has been continuing the work of recruiting and quickening the mobilization of the reserves. On Thursday, Dervish Pasha arrived at Cairo and held a reception, at which Arabi Bey and other leaders of the military party are said to have been coldly received. He declared he was resolved to restore order, and that, if necessary to that end, he would himself assume the Ministry of War. On Saturday he received the Ulemas and addressed them in firm language. Four of the Ulemas rose from their seats and declared that if Europe had not annexed Egypt it was due to Arabi Bey and the military party, adding that before the pending questions were settled the English and French fleets must leave Alexandria. Dervish Pasha, on hearing this, "bounded to his feet," and exclaimed that he came as the representative of the Sultan, and not to listen to their advice, and ordered them to quit the room. It is believed in diplomatic circles in Egypt that Dervish Pasha, while offering general amnesty, will go even further than the Franco-British ultimatum against the leaders of the movement. On Saturday the Austrian, German, Italian, and Russian Ambassadors made collectively a communication to the Porte supporting the proposed conference on Egyptian affairs. The Porte in replying to this communication reiterated its arguments against the conference.

The troubles in Egypt came to a crisis on Sunday. Serious riots broke out in Alexandria between the natives and the Europeans, in the course of which sixty-seven Europeans were killed, and the English and Greek Consuls and the Italian Vice-Consul were severely wounded. The immediate cause of the disturbance, which continued about five hours, was said to have been the stabbing of an Arab by a Maltese. A mob of natives then collected and sacked the shops of Europeans, and killed and wounded the Europeans whom they met in the streets. Egyptian soldiers were called out, but they looked on for some time without interfering in the work of demolition and bloodshed. The Rue des Sœurs, inhabited chiefly by Europeans, was completely wrecked. The Europeans fired from the windows, killing many Arabs. The British Consul was dragged from his carriage and severely beaten. The fighting, except the deliberate attacks upon the Consuls, seems to have been chiefly confined to the Arabs and Levantines. On Monday, a meeting of the foreign Consuls was held with the Khedive, Dervish Pasha, and Arabi Bey, and a solemn agreement was entered into that the Khedive should undertake to maintain order, and that Arabi Bey should strictly obey the Khedive's commands. A proclamation was to be issued informing the populace of this agreement. The correspondent of the London *Times* at Cairo telegraphs that in view of the critical condition of affairs, Dervish Pasha, the Turkish Commissioner, has agreed to accept joint responsibility with Arabi Pasha for the preservation of order.

The correspondent of the London *Daily News* at Alexandria telegraphed on Tuesday that the position of the Europeans there was a terrible one, and that any small force which the fleet could land would only excite the Arabs to a general massacre. Papers have been distributed among the populace exciting them, and summoning them to be ready at any moment. The Italian Consul has issued notice to all Italians to quit the country; and notwithstanding a proclamation by the other Consuls exhorting them to remain tranquil, and expressing confidence that the Army will be able to maintain order, Europeans are leaving Alexandria as fast as possible.

A despatch from London to the New York *Tribune* on Thursday said that Irish correspondents describe the temper of the population as sour and sullen, and as showing settled disaffection, and the anticipation of a good harvest as being the only favorable element in the situation. On Thursday Walter M. Bourke, a Galway landlord, was shot dead while riding with an escort, a soldier, who was also killed. Mr. Bourke had had several disputes with his tenants, and recently left London to carry out evictions. The news of this murder created a profound sensation in the House of Commons. Mr. Parnell and other Irish members expressed regret at the assassination. When the news reached London Mr. Bourke's brother went into the lobby of the House of Commons and accused Mr. Parnell and Mr. Biggar of being the cause of it. The Dublin *Gazette* on Friday contained a proclamation offering a reward of £2,000 for information leading to the arrest and conviction of the murderers, and £1,000 for private information leading to the same result. This murder was followed by other outrages in different parts of Ireland.

The Irish Bishops have issued an address, promising the support of the clergy to the people in peacefully agitating for their rights, but condemning as the worst enemies to the country men who recommend illegal courses, particularly those who belong to secret societies. The address condemns refusing to pay just debts, preventing payment by others, injuring neighbors in person or property, forcibly resisting the law and forming secret societies and obeying the orders thereof, as unlawful and utterly subversive of social order, and impresses upon the people that what is morally wrong cannot be politically right. The address is signed by Cardinal McCabe, Archbishop McGettigan, Primate of All Ireland, Archbishop Croke, and twenty-two others.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday the discussion of the Repression Bill was resumed. Mr. Russell, Liberal member for Dundalk, offered an amendment defining intimidation as "threats or acts of violence to persons or property, or incitement thereto." Mr. Dillon defended boycotting, and Sir William Harcourt said the Government was willing to accept any amendment consistent with the putting down of boycotting. On Thursday Mr. Russell's amendment was rejected by a vote of 247 to 36. An amendment offered by Mr. Parnell defining intimidation, and limiting it to certain definite acts, was also rejected. On Friday more amendments to the paragraph of the bill defining intimidation were rejected. On Monday, clause four of the bill, defining and dealing with intimidation, was adopted. Clause five, concerning riots and other offences, was then taken up. Sub-section A of this clause was adopted. In the debate on this clause on Tuesday, various amendments proposed by Irish members were rejected, but Mr. Gladstone agreed that reëntry into an evicted holding should not be punishable unless it was effected by force, and that of two magistrates exercising summary jurisdiction one must be a lawyer. Sir William Harcourt promised that the new summary jurisdiction, so far as it applied to assaults on bailiffs, etc., should be exercised only in proclaimed districts. The fifth clause was then adopted by a vote of 176 to 34.

The Home Rule members of Parliament, at a meeting on Monday night, decided not to offer any systematic obstruction to the Repression Bill.

The Irish judges have held a meeting, and passed resolutions protesting against the provision of the Repression Bill for the holding of trials by a commission of three judges without juries. In the event of the bill passing, with its obnoxious provisions, Baron Fitzgerald will resign. It is generally understood that when the bill passes, Mr. William Johnson, the present Attorney-General for Ireland, will be raised to the bench.

The London *Daily News*, commenting on Secretary Frelinghuysen's despatch of May 8 on the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, says that commercial as well as political considerations are decisive against the position which Mr. Frelinghuysen has chosen to assume. The *Standard* says that "the answer to all this rhetoric [*i. e.*, of the despatch] is that the treaty has been made and ought to be kept."

The bill permitting marriage with a deceased wife's sister was defeated in the House of Lords, on Monday, on a motion ordering it to a second reading. The Prince of Wales, the Duke of Edinburgh, the Duke of Albany, and nearly all the members of the Government voted with the minority, but the bulk of the Conservatives and all the Bishops voted with the majority.

On Tuesday, the 13th, the French Chamber of Deputies passed to its second reading the bill establishing the divorce law. The Budget Committee rejected the grant for the maintenance of an embassy at the Vatican.

The family of Garibaldi decided to abandon the cremation of his body, "owing to practical difficulties in the way of its accomplishment," and on Thursday he was buried in the cemetery at Caprera. A storm of wind and rain raged the whole time. The coffin was borne by some of the survivors of the thousand of Marsala, and was followed by the Duke of Genoa, Signor Zanardelli, General Ferrero, representatives of both Chambers, and delegates of three hundred various associations. Speeches were delivered at the grave by the Vice-President of the Senate, the President of the Chamber of Deputies, the two Cabinet Ministers present, and Signor Crispi.

A great demonstration in memory of Garibaldi took place in Rome on Sunday. There was an immense procession, in which the bust of Garibaldi was borne on a car drawn by six white horses. An enormous crowd filled the streets and houses along the line of the procession. The buildings along the entire route were draped in mourning.

The Empress of Russia was safely delivered of a daughter on Tuesday. She will be named Olga.

An imperial decree has been published at St. Petersburg announcing that General Ignatieff, at his own request, has been relieved of the post of Minister of the Interior, on the ground of ill health, and has been appointed President of the Academy and Member of the Senate. He retains his membership of the Council of the Empire and his adjutancy. Count Tolstoi, who was formerly President of the Academy, has been appointed Minister of the Interior. The retirement of General Ignatieff caused much satisfaction in Berlin and Vienna, and Russian funds rose on the London Stock Exchange on the receipt of the news. His successor represents the orthodox Russians, but has not General Ignatieff's extreme antipathy to Germany.

A despatch from St. Petersburg says that the appointment of Jews as chief surgeons in the Russian Army has been forbidden except on receipt of express instructions from the Commander-in-Chief.

The lower House of the Hungarian Diet has debated a petition of the authorities of Szathmar requesting that steps be taken to stop the immigration to that place of the Jews from Russia, and has approved a motion of the committee on the subject, that the Government adopt such police and sanitary measures with regard to the Jews as the circumstances may require.

Prince Bismarck made a speech in the Reichstag on Monday in support of the Tobacco Bill. He said the tobacco monopoly was an evil, but reform in taxation could not be effected without it. The bill for the remission of taxation, as proposed by the Government, would be reintroduced in the Reichstag and in the Prussian Diet, and if it was rejected he should, he said, appeal to the constituencies. He added that if he remained in office he did so only to keep his oath to the Emperor, and concluded by expressing the hope that party policy would give way before the feeling of nationality.

REFORMERS WHO DO NOT WISH TO REFORM.

ALTHOUGH the usual answer made to the civil-service reformers is that the civil service is well enough as it is, and could hardly be improved except through improvements in human nature, the attempts to tinker it by those who "have no faith in the theories of the reformers" are incessant. Bills intended to take the place of the bills of "the doctrinaires" are introduced nearly every session, but they usually give very little space to reform of any kind, and a good deal to a more equitable distribution of the patronage. In truth, to most Congressmen the one crying evil of the present system, and the only one which needs to be seriously dealt with, is the difficulty they have in getting what they consider their legitimate share of the offices. In trying to remedy this they are always willing to put in just enough mention of examinations, and qualifications, and morality, and efficiency, to give the mixture a reform color, just as old topers in the cars like the contents of their flasks to have a deep brown hue so as to pass for cold tea.

One of these interesting bills is now before the House of Representatives, the father being Mr. Curtin, and it has been referred to the Committee on Reform in the Civil Service. In the opening of it there is a very stirring roll of the reform drum, well calculated to collect a large and excited audience. The candidates for admission to the clerical force are to be not less than eighteen or more than fifty years old, are to be of good moral character and habits, and are not to be admitted without "the preliminary examination now required by Section 169 of the Revised Statutes." This examination, however, was provided for in 1853, and is conducted by the heads of departments through some of their subordinates, and unfortunately has never been anything but a farce. We believe there is no case on record of its preventing "the right man" from getting the place. In fact, it is the examinations conducted under this statute which furnish Dr. Newman and the Stalwarts with the materials for that standing joke of theirs against the examinations of the civil-service reformers, about the candidates being asked the distance of the moon, and the names of the Shepherd Kings of Upper Egypt, and the best manner of cooking a shad. There is probably no piece of modern legislation which has furnished materials for more quiet mirth.

Throughout Mr. Curtin's bill, in fact, both admission to the service and promotion are carefully kept within the control of the heads of the departments, who are never directed to do anything which has a reform look, but are always told that they "may" do it. Moreover, the principle of "rotation" is carefully looked after by limiting the terms of "permanent appointments" to three years. Two years would, for the purposes of most Congressmen, be one-third better, because it would enable them to give one-third more workers a turn at the public crib; and to many men the supreme test of goodness in a civil service is the frequency with which access to the crib comes round. The most imposing feature in the bill is, however, the provision made for the examination of "professionals" and "experts" for the various departments. This is to be conducted in writing by a "board," and it looks as if it would be worth something, and so it may be; but then the head of the department is not to be bound by it. He may set its conclusions aside, or give the place to any one of the candidates he pleases, or he may order another examination.

The gist, or backbone, or kernel of the bill is to be found in the section on "apportionment and nomination," in which, in Congressional eyes, the whole civil-service question lies, as in a nutshell. Most Congressmen, no matter how much they may seem to be listening to a civil-service reformer about qualifications, and tests, and competitive examinations, and efficiency, and merit, are in reality thinking about "apportionment and nomination." To them these are the milk in the cocoanut, the dewdrop on the lotus, as the Buddhists say, the Alpha and Omega, the beginning and the ending of all civil-service reform. Accordingly, Mr. Curtin proposes that all appointments in the Executive Departments "shall be made *pro rata* among Congressional districts, based on the apportionment under the tenth census, and on the appropriations for the fiscal year 1882–3, beginning with the States in alphabetical order," etc., etc. The nominations are then to be given to the Senators and Representatives of each State, each Senator keeping one-eighth of them. We have here given only the merest outline of the scheme. It is highly complex, and indeed we do not think it will be possible to give each Congressman his fair share without a liberal use of the calculus and the services of the Naval Observatory. To the outsider it is diverting as another of the attempts to postpone the evil day when no Congressman will be able to rely on patronage to give him weight or importance in the eyes of his constituents. The reason why so many cling to it is the fact that it furnishes a pedestal which raises some members a little above the plane along which their personal merits carry them.

MR. BLAINE'S METHOD AND MR. FRELINGHUYSEN'S.

MR. BLAINE is evidently still very sensitive about the unfortunate result of his various diplomatic enterprises, which is not surprising. His friends in the press accordingly every now and then try to give him a little rehabilitating filip. One of these appeared in the *Tribune* of Friday, in the shape of arguments of Mr. Blaine's against the continuance of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, placed in parallel columns beside Mr. Frelinghuysen's arguments on the same subject, by way of showing that Mr. Frelinghuysen has not improved on Mr. Blaine. But this unfortunately does not help the latter. Nobody ever said that he was wrong in attacking the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, or that his arguments against its continuance in the despatch of November had no force. Nor is it to Mr. Frelinghuysen's discredit that, as the *Tribune* shows, he has used some of them. The reasons for abrogating a treaty are always few in number, and easily discovered by all intelligent men who have considered the subject. In order to give a true comparative view of the Blaine and Frelinghuysen modes of conducting a diplomatic controversy, we must not simply compare two despatches written on the same subject, but compare *all* the despatches written by each on the same subject.

Under this rule Mr. Blaine cuts a somewhat grotesque figure in the Panama controversy, for he began his attack on the Clayton-Bulwer treaty not by the despatch of November last, but by the despatch of June last, in which he resorted to the very singular device of making no mention of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty at all. He wished to warn England and all other European powers from meddling with the projected canal across the isthmus. As far as England was concerned, the unabrogated Clayton-Bulwer treaty stood directly in his way, and he accordingly attacked it by ignoring it—a childlike expedient, to which neither Mr. Frelinghuysen nor any other diplomatist is likely to resort. This despatch of June 24 discusses with much solemnity the treaty of 1846, made between the United States and the republic of New Granada, and directs Mr. Lowell to call Lord Granville's attention to it as constituting an insurmountable obstacle to British interference with Central American concerns, and as alone governing American action with regard to the neutrality of the canal. The originality of this consists in the fact that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, which admitted Great Britain to participation in the neutrality guarantee, was made four years later than the treaty with New Granada, and the only hope of the success of Mr. Blaine's mode of abrogating it lay, therefore, in the chance that the British Foreign Office had forgotten its existence. Unfortunately some record of it seems to have been kept in London, so that Lord Granville was able to overthrow Mr. Blaine's maiden effort as a diplomatist by producing it. We cannot recall in diplomatic history any discomfiture of a middle-aged man so complete as this was, and it was made all the more complete by the fact that Mr. Blaine's despatch was couched in very menacing terms, and, in fact, intimated pretty distinctly that any want of respect on the part of Great Britain for the treaty with New Granada would put her peaceful relations with this country in serious peril.

It was only five months later, after Lord Granville, in a dry and slightly ironical manner, had called attention to the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, that Mr. Blaine took it up, and began the controversy which Mr. Frelinghuysen is now carrying on, with many improvements in tone, and temper, and English. It no doubt strikes Mr. Blaine's admirers as rather remarkable that he should use some of Mr. Blaine's arguments, but they must observe he does not use them all. He overlooks, for instance, the New Granada treaty, which was Mr. Blaine's *cheval de bataille*, and which nobody but an unusually unscrupulous person would meddle with. It would not enrich Mr. Frelinghuysen if he stole it, and would make Mr. Blaine poor indeed if he lost it, for it was his only original contribution to the controversy.

DOCTOR AND PATIENT.

THE action of the American Medical Convention at St. Paul, in excluding the New York delegates, seems to have been, from a professional point of view, unavoidable. The New York State Medical Society had, at its meeting in February last, passed a vote permitting practitioners of the "regular" school to hold consultations with homœopathists. This vote was in conflict with the rules of the American Society, which had nothing to do but to punish the New York branch for its violation of them

The action of the Association will probably lead to a new discussion of the matter in the New York society, its action in February being regarded by its members as by no means conclusive. The view taken of the matter by the physicians who support the "code of ethics," as stated by one of them in an interview last Friday, is that "no possible good could result from consultations in which there could by no possibility be an agreement"; and that "so long as they (the homœopaths) insist on the dogma that like cures like, we cannot but regard them as irregular, and no member of the regular profession can with dignity recognize them."

Now, if it could be proved in any way that it was true that "no good" could come of any such consultations, the position of the regular practitioners would not be worth disputing about. But it can only be true if homœopathic practice can be shown to be pure quackery. If homœopaths are mere quacks, who practise upon the credulity of the public, like astrologers or "weather prophets," then the regular physicians are performing a public service by discrediting them in every way that they can, and it is not merely undignified, but dishonest to consult with them. But the homœopaths are not in this position at all. They constitute an important and growing branch of the medical profession. They have obtained legal recognition for their chartered institutions, and they have plenty of them. There are some 8,000 homœopathic physicians in the United States, and a dozen homœopathic colleges, turning out a couple of hundred new physicians every year. There are, of course, no statistics to show how many families or individuals are dependent upon this body for medical advice and care, but the number embraces a very considerable proportion of the population, whom it would be appalling and absurd, too, to think of as given over entirely to the care of quacks and cheats.

The fact is, that medical science is not in a condition which entitles any one to say that the profession of a particular dogma like that of the homœopaths makes him an impostor. What little is known about the effect of drugs upon the human body is the result of experiment, and the homœopath deduces his "dogma" from experience, just as the regular practitioner does his belief that there is nothing in it. As to which is right and which is wrong, the layman is usually profoundly ignorant, and it must be remembered that the layman's experience of medicine usually inclines him to be very sceptical on the subject. Every one sees so many mistakes continually made both in diagnosis and treatment that he cannot but recognize the fact that mere "regularity" of dogmatic opinion with regard to disease or the *materia medica* is very far from insuring success, and that in nine cases out of ten what makes a man a good doctor is not only science but natural aptitude and individual experience.

We have the medical profession thus divided into two bodies, both of which believe equally in the importance of professional training, and the possibility of treating disease according to rules derived from experience; both of which possess a high degree of skill, training, and education. They differ as to a dogma of the truth of which laymen have hardly any means of judging. Few laymen who go for advice to a doctor who maintains the truth of this dogma, do so because they care anything about the dogma; they do so simply because they think him a good doctor, and find that he brings them and their wives and children through their various ailments with success. Frequently, however, they find that even a good doctor's skill is baffled, and then very likely they would like to call in another good doctor, of what is to them simply a rival "school." But now they find themselves confronted with a strict rule that the two cannot consult, because one of them believes that diseases should be treated by drugs whose effects, tested on the body in health, are similar to the symptoms present in disease. The layman wants to call them in because they belong to different schools, and he wants to have the benefit of the difference; but for this very reason he cannot get them.

The physicians ought, in any future discussion of the question, to take into account, more than they are usually willing to do, the layman's view of the subject. To him the rule forbidding the regular practitioner to consult with a homœopath, simply means that he is cut off by a dispute which he cares little about from getting all the available experience and advice within reach on what may be a matter of life and death. He does not regard, and can never be brought to regard, a highly-educated and trained physician as a "quack" merely because of a difference between him and his rival round the corner on a recondite matter like that which divides homœopaths from allopaths, and, therefore, he looks upon the rule as a mere piece of superstition. The enormous growth of the homœopathic body in the last fifty years shows that the rule does not prevent what the regulars regard as medical error from spreading, and if the rule does not prevent this, would its abrogation be attended by any very dreadful consequences? If a regular physician sees that "no good" can result from a consultation because no agreement is possible, he will no doubt always withdraw of himself; and so will a homœopath. If either thinks his "dignity" compromised by the meeting, he will not come to it. Will it do any harm to humor the layman a little in the matter?

THE FRENCH JUDICIARY.

THE French Assembly has taken the somewhat startling step of voting, by a considerable majority, and in the teeth of the opposition of the Ministry, to make the judiciary elective. The vote has naturally caused a good deal of surprise, and doubtless, also, a good deal of alarm, though it is not quite as serious as it looks, for it does not appear to contemplate anything more than the election of the judges by some sort of electoral body created *ad hoc*. If we may judge by the recommendations of the Committee on Judicial Reform, which recently made its report, we may, in the absence of fuller news than that of the telegraph, conclude that the majority does not propose to select judges by universal suffrage, but simply to have "them elected for a fixed term by a special electoral body (*corps électoral spécial*), chosen under conditions to be hereafter determined." The question of "judicial reform" has, almost ever since the Republic fairly came into power, been one of the burning questions of French politics, owing to the highly partisan character of the bench, which differs considerably in its organization and composition both from that of England and the United States. Its greatest peculiarity in Anglo-Saxon eyes is that it is composed not of successful advocates, as in England, and to some extent here, but of professional judges —that is, of men who never practise at the bar at all, but begin by appointment as judges of a low grade, and look for success through promotion to the upper courts. In England the judges are chosen by two processes, not unlike that by which bishops are chosen in the Catholic Church by the priests, who vote for three candidates as "dignus, dignior, dignissimus," respectively, one of whom the Pope appoints. The British Minister, in like manner, appoints the judge, but he is compelled by usage, which has the force of law, to make his choice from among a small body of men, who have previously been sifted out from the mass of the bar by receiving from the public a large professional practice. In other words, the judge is always a successful barrister before he becomes judge, so that the question whether he shall ever be a candidate for the bench is determined by the litigants of the various courts.

In this country we started with a rule of the same kind. In the earlier days of the Republic it was generally the successful lawyers who were made judges, and the judicial salaries were made sufficiently high to tempt them. In the Federal service, and in those States in which judges are still appointed, this rule is yet as closely adhered to as the modern lowness of judicial salaries will permit. The places are offered to as good lawyers as can be got to accept them at the rate of payment. In the States in which election has been substituted for appointment, politics has had in a greater or less degree the effect of making the judicial office a part of the spoils, and treating it as the reward of party service, discarding large practice or long experience as a qualification for it. Nevertheless, the Anglo-Saxon tradition that a judge ought to have previously been a successful advocate is still strong all over the country, and disregard of it is still reprobated by public opinion.

In France, however, there is no such feeling or tradition. A judge may begin judg-

ing when he is twenty-five, without ever having found anybody willing to take him as a legal adviser, and he makes his way up in the scale by the favor of the Government pure and simple. There is no other mode of testing his merits. In 1789 the National Assembly, in the first moments of reforming enthusiasm, made the judges elective by the people, and that they should be elected by the people is still one of the Republican traditions. But it has, ever since the overthrow of the first Republic, been treated by Conservatives as one of the dangerous schemes of the Reds. All true French Conservatives hold to an irremovable, appointed, and promoted judiciary as one of the anchors of the state. It is not wonderful that, after eighty years, such a system should have produced a bench which regards itself not as a branch of the Government, separate and apart from the Executive, but as a part of the Administration, and charged with the defence of the existing régime in one field, as the Army is in another. Nor is it surprising that the French bench should be even now, or until very lately, intensely monarchical. The Republic in France has never lasted very long. It has always been the product of insurrection, too, and its existence has been marked by great disorders, and in fact it may be said that ever since the Dixhuit Brumaire, Republican and criminal have been to French judges synonymous terms.

When the present Republicans came into power, therefore, they found the judiciary bitterly hostile. Few judges, if any, believed in the permanence of the Republican régime, and there was something shocking to them in the presence in high office of a parcel of political adventurers, many of whom they had had to try under the Empire, and all of whom they had longed to try. Accordingly, the last ten years have been full of judicial scandals, caused either by the alleged partiality of Bonapartist or Legitimist judges, in Government prosecutions as well as private suits, or by the indiscreet language of judges with regard to the Government or the Ministers of the day. Besides this there have been large numbers of judges who were not indiscreet on the bench, but who off the bench made no secret of their contempt for the Republic, and their belief in its evanescence. This has been very provoking to the Republicans, and all the more so because the remedy was not easy. Anti-Republican military men were readily disciplined, and so were disaffected civil servants. But the judges could not be got at, because they were irremovable. The only way of punishing them was by refusing promotion, and, in the lower grades, sending them to disagreeable districts.

After prolonged agitation, the majority in the Chamber of Deputies has taken the bull by the horns by adopting the report and bill of the Committee on Judicial Reform, which reduces considerably the number of courts and judges—thereby rectifying an undoubted abuse of the monarchical régime, abolishes the permanence of tenure, and recommends election by some other body than the Government. In fact, if the permanence was abolished, it seemed impossible to leave the appointment to the Government, with unlimited liberty of choice. The substitute proposed seems to be, as we have said, election by some sort of electoral college created for the purpose, or, in other words, election by two degrees. But that this would long stave off popular election pure and simple, or would in the meantime protect the independence of the judges against popular passion, is very unlikely. The French are fully as intolerant as Americans of two degrees of election, and will manage just as readily to get rid of one of them in fact if not in form. Of the gravity of the change there can be no doubt, especially as it has been resolved on by the majority in defiance of the Ministry. It will dishearten greatly the large body of moderate Republicans who have feared all along that the Republic would perish through its inability to satisfy both the Democratic leanings and the national pride of the French people. Granting all that is said of the desire of the French to see their institutions thoroughly democratized, it remains true that they will never be content with a Government which does not supply an efficient army and perfect security for property. But, say the Conservatives, the army cannot be efficient, French character remaining what it is, if its organization be as democratic as the Radicals insist on making it, and property cannot be secure with removable and elected judges; and with a bad army and bad judiciary France will cut such a contemptible figure in foreign affairs that the people will be mortified beyond endurance, and get rid of the Republic by way of relief.

THE OPENING OF THE ST. GOTHARD TUNNEL.

MILAN, May 22, 1882.

ITALY, Germany, Switzerland, and we may say all Europe, have participated with thorough satisfaction in the ceremonies attendant on the opening of the St. Gothard Tunnel; but, as is usually the case, the promoter, the initiator, of that great international work has been almost entirely forgotten in his birthplace, Milan, as in his beloved Lugano, where he spent the last twenty years of his life in study and poverty, dying there in 1869. Carlo Cattaneo, the greatest philosopher and political economist of modern Italy, the guide and inspirer of the Five Days of Milan in 1848, when the unarmed citizens defeated and drove out from their city the entire Austrian Army under Radetsky, as early as 1859 insisted on the tunnel through the St. Gothard, in the interests of Italy and Switzerland alike. We have even now before us his letter to the Genoese, showing to them "that, the new current of commerce coming from Suez, it behooved them to prepare to take advantage thereof." After passing in review the various projects for the Splügen and other passes, he continued:

"St. Gothard is not only a predestined railroad, it is a map of railroads which unite and open out for themselves a common centre; it is the military centre of Switzerland, the fortress of liberty. The safety of those Alps is our safety; the pre-Alpine line from Brescia, from Bergamo, from Lecco acquires fresh and practical value from the union of the plains of Erba with Como. The two cities of Como and of Lecco gain other advantages; the railroad from Varese must be extended to the Lake of Como, the railroad from the Lake of Garda be led up to Orta. All the industries of the higher valleys connected, commerce will be doubled by the completion of the Simplon and Mont Cenis railroads. Fortunate Genoa, which in this heritage of nature has the lion's share, such is the free interval from Constance to Basle, with almost the entire valley of the Po and of the Rhine, together with the long list of industrial cities, Zürich, Strassburg, Mannheim, Frankfort, Coblentz, Cologne, Elberfeld, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Liége, Brussels, Antwerp, Ostend. The natural port of the Valley of the Rhine on the Mediterranean is Genoa. Genoa and Hamburg will be the two ports on which the Swiss will think when they think of their own homes."

Cattaneo then went on to show how the line of the St. Gothard offered to Genoa the shortest line of communication, surpassing in this respect, for the special commerce of Italy, the Lukmanier, the Simplon, the Cenis, or the Brenner, and, as regards foreign commerce, uniting Genoa with the above-mentioned cities by a much shorter line than they could be with Marseilles: how, in a word, as soon as the St. Gothard railroad should be completed, Genoa could take into her own hands the commerce of the German Rhine with the East in the place of Marseilles. His counsels, eagerly listened to by the Genoese, were enthusiastically accepted by the Swiss, but it was not until April, 1869, that a regular project was presented to the Swiss Federal Council, to the Italian Government, and to the Confederation of Northern Germany for the perforation of the St. Gothard.

The St. Gothard, until the present century, had been one of the least frequented passes, although the hospital of the monks of St. Gothard was founded in 1331. In 1816, however, a regular post between five Swiss cantons and Milan was established, yet up to 1820 the path was only practicable for horses and pedestrians, and until lately the journey from Lucerne to Turin occupied twenty-five hours and a-half, whereas the same journey henceforward will occupy but eight hours. The convention for the construction of this railroad was signed by Italy and Switzerland in 1869, and in 1870 the North German Confederation adhered to the Convention. Engineer Gelpke and the geometrician Koppe were the chief designers. At first seven companies sent in their estimates—one Swiss, one Franco-Swiss, one Italian, one German, two English, one American. Finally L. Favre, of Geneva, and the Italian Society of Public Works in Turin, headed by Grattoni, the constructor of the tunnel through Mont Cenis, were the only competitors, and to Favre the contract was assigned, his offer being considered the most advantageous. Meanwhile, the administration of the St. Gothard railway had arranged for the commencement of the excavations of the grand tunnel, begun in June, 1872. For the perforation the waters of the Reuss were utilized on the northern slope, those of Val Tremola on the southern. In 1879, Favre, who directed all the works in person, died suddenly of apoplexy in the tunnel as he was explaining the operations to some foreign visitors; nor was he the only victim, 179 workmen having lost their lives by accidents or suffocation, while hundreds of others have contracted maladies which sooner or later will bring them to the grave. One special form of anæmia, caused, it is said, by the insect *Anchylostomum duodenale*, has proved and is proving most fatal; indeed, a special hospital and convalescent home is being constructed for the survivors. The work, which was never interrupted, day or night, occupied nine years and three months—3,330 days in all. The first estimates of the sum total to be expended amounted to 227 millions of francs, of which Italy agreed to pay 55 millions, while various municipalities and provinces made up another 15 millions; Germany and Switzerland contributed 63 millions, the remainder of the sum being made up by shares, of which a vast number are held by Italians, so that in fact Italy has contributed far more than half of the

sum total, the province and city of Milan alone furnishing two millions and a half.

The gallery of the St. Gothard runs in a straight line from the village of Göschenen to Albinengo, a village to the west of Airolo. The tunnel to be excavated along this line was 14,912 metres long, 2,700 metres longer than the gallery of Mont Cenis. In order to join it with the railroad which comes toward Airolo in an east-to-west direction, another gallery of 150 metres was excavated. The altitude at the entrance of the tunnel at Göschenen is 1,109 metres above the sea level; in the centre 50 metres higher, at Airolo 40 metres higher. The geological formation differs essentially from that of the Cottian Alps. The bore of the gallery, after some 2,000 metres of granite or granite-gneiss, entered into crystalline schist, intersected with veins of serpentine, a mass, in short, of the hardest rock, which at first threatened to baffle the perforating machines. The hydraulic works were also extremely tedious, owing to the difficulty of obtaining a sufficiently strong body of water from the Reuss, while, on the Airolo side, during the winter, avalanches often obstructed the bed of the Tremola, rendering it necessary to excavate a bed under the snow. Signor Favre, in order to overcome the difficulty with the Reuss, constructed an enormous reservoir and a canal, while to baffle the avalanches he caused the water to be conducted by means of a wooden canal into the bed of a minor torrent, the Chiesso, less subject to avalanches. Other difficulties were encountered and overcome by his indomitable will, so that at his death it may be said that only the mechanical portion of the work remained. This was completed really in December, 1881, but the inauguration was delayed until yesterday, owing to various circumstances.

It was hoped that the King of Italy would have been present, but neither he nor the Prime Minister was able to attend; instead of them, the Foreign Minister, Mancini, the Minister of Public Works, Baccarini, and the very unpopular Minister of the Navy, Acton, were the sole representatives of the Italian Government. The inaugural train conveying them, the Presidents of the Chamber and the Senate, and the German Ambassador, together with the syndics of Genoa, Turin, and Milan, and about four hundred invited guests, left Milan yesterday morning. I cannot say that any particular interest was manifested at the Italian stations, and it is presumable that the indifference is owing to the all-absorbing *cavalieri* (silkworms), which do literally absorb the thoughts, hands, time, and sentiment of every man, woman, and child in the country throughout Northern Italy at this season of the year. At Chiasso, however, that once so dreaded frontier town in the bad old days, when ten to one the incomer from free Switzerland was repulsed by the suspicious Austrian sentinel, a number of maidens, all dressed in white, presented the chief guests with beautiful bouquets of flowers, and at Lugano, that asylum of Italian exiles, where Mazzini spent great part of his time in planning expeditions, printing clandestine papers, receiving and despatching conspirators, and where, as we have said, Cattaneo lived and died, a modest but substantial breakfast was prepared, while the enthusiasm at the successive stations, Claro, Osogna, Biasca, Giornico, Faido, up to Airolo, the unfeigned delight and the cordial welcome afforded by the inhabitants, and the joyous cries of "Viva l'Italia!" from the children of the communal schools, formed a pleasing contrast with the cold reception which all remarked on the Italian side. From Lugano to Bellinzona there are eight galleries, the longest of which, that of the Ceneri, is two kilometres in length, and we shot through in three minutes and a half. From Bellinzona to Airolo there were thirteen other galleries; finally, a few yards beyond the station of Airolo, you enter the tunnel, and whatever may have been one's former experience, I doubt if any of the persons whirled through those 15,000 metres—darkness above, below, around, the air hot and damp—arrived at the other end after twenty minutes' flight without a feeling of intense satisfaction that they were through, and well through, without the slightest accident. Perhaps the predominant feeling of suffocation was owing to the weather; certainly, as far as comfort goes, the old days of coaching and diligences have left enviable memories. Between Göschenen and Brunnen there are twenty-seven other galleries. Often the railroad runs level with the post-road, and you see the old vehicles rumbling along as though the tunnel were nothing to them. The view of the roaring, seething Reuss and of the Lake of the Four Cantons was, despite the gloom of the day, magnificent. The courtesy of the officials along the *Gotthardbahn* was especially remarked by the Italians, as forming a noteworthy contrast with their own rude, domineering railway officials, and it was hoped by more than one that their superior, Baccarini, himself by no means noted for courtesy, would take and teach a lesson to his subalterns.

I pass over the speeches, which have probably done service on every similar occasion. The speakers, like the press, omitted any mention of Cattaneo, which incensed not a few of his disciples present. At Lucerne the reception equalled, if it did not surpass, that of Lugano. All the guests—the Italians on one steamer, the Germans on another—crossed the lake up to Brunnen, where, after a short journey on the ordinary railway, special trains, consisting of two carriages each, took us up 1,800 metres to the summit of the Rigi, whose mountain sides are literally furrowed with rails and sown with villas. The octogenarian Tecchio, one of the oldest Italian Liberals, now President of the Senate, was the first to arrive, and was loudly applauded by his countrymen. A breakfast was prepared for 500 persons at the grand hotel Rigikulm, whence the view is beautiful beyond words—here snow-mantled winter, there spring merging into summer. At Lucerne, on our return, there was considerable confusion. The German Ministers Bittern, Von Boetticher, and Hatzfeldt were lost in the common herd, but took it most good-temperedly, and the dinner at the Schweizerhof, a fine hotel on the lake, passed off pleasantly enough until Baccarini tired out the guests with a long and pompous speech. That of the Syndic of Milan was, on the contrary, short and sweet: he made a pleasant reference to the numbers of Swiss resident in Milan, to their industry and law-abidingness, which are, in fact, noteworthy, and trusted that the colossal work brought to such a successful termination would augment and cement the friendship between the two countries. Of this there can be little doubt, provided no political annexation schemes be again set on foot by Italian statesmen. Well do we remember, when it was proposed to annex the Italian Tessin to Piedmont, how Cattaneo, with incisive phrase, made answer: "Why kill a nightingale to add an ounce of fat to a goose?" The absence of Frenchmen from among the guests was remarkable, but Americans and Englishmen were largely represented, all expressing their satisfaction at the successful termination of the enterprise and the cordial harmony that prevailed throughout the inaugural festival.

It remains now to be seen whether Genoa will have sufficient skill and enterprise to profit by this enormous boon. It will not suffice that she is the nearest port to the great commercial cities of Germany and Switzerland. She must render her port and harbor safe and commodious as is Marseilles, her ship dues as low, her porters less insolent and exorbitant in their charges, or else the great French seaport will continue to outrival her as heretofore.

THE CORRESPONDENCE OF GEORGE SAND.—II.

PARIS, May 24, 1882.

I MUST return to the correspondence of Madame Sand, and I take it up where I left it, in the year 1833. The more I read this correspondence, the more I think that nature made a mistake when she gave to Madame Sand the feminine sex. She was in reality a man: all the attributes of her character are virile, and none are feminine. She was brave, hard-working, domineering; she was a good father rather than a good mother to her children; she was with everybody what the French call a good *camarade;* she cared really for nothing except independence—she hated any kind of restraint. To M. Rollinat, at Châteauroux: "Socially, I am free and more happy. My position is externally calm, independent, advantageous. But in order to reach it, you don't know what terrible storms I have gone through. To tell you, I should have to spend many evenings in the walks of Nohant, under the stars, in this great silence we both like so much." This was the time when she had just written 'Lélia,' the most eloquent and also the most morbid of her books—a work which in parts seems almost insane, full of what might be called sentimental depravity, the apotheosis of passion unbridled, unchained, sovereign of man and things. She spoke the truth when she wrote to Madame ——: "I have studied nothing; I know nothing—not even my own language. My brain has so little exactitude in it that I have never been able to learn the smallest rule of arithmetic. . . . I have only sensations, and no will. For what, for whom should I have a will? Besides two or three persons, the universe does not exist for me. You see that I am good for nothing."

At the end of 1833, she started for Italy. She admired the valley of the Rhone, but found the cities of Lyons, Avignon, and Marseilles "stupid." She was in Venice in March, 1834.

"Venice," she says, "is the finest thing in the world. All this Moorish architecture, in white marble in the midst of limpid water and under a magnificent sky; this people, so gay, so thoughtless, so full of song, so spirited; these gondolas; these churches and galleries of pictures; all the women pretty or elegant; the sea; a moonlight such as you see nowhere else; serenades under the windows; cafes full of Turks and Armenians; great and fine theatres, where Pasta and Donzelli sing; magnificent palaces; . . . what more can you want?"

She wrote and worked in this beautiful Venice. "I bless my grandmother, who gave me this habit of work. The habit has become a faculty, and the faculty a need. I have come to this: I can work, without being ill, thirteen hours in succession; but, on the average, seven or eight hours a day. My work gives me a good deal of money and takes much of my time, which otherwise I should employ in having the spleen, as my bilious temperament would produce it. . . . I regret that my money difficulties always force me to draw something out of my brain without giving me time to place something new in it. I wish I had a whole year of solitude and of complete liberty, so as to fill my head with all the foreign masterpieces which I know imperfectly." But she had no time for reading; after having blackened paper for hours, she ran to the Piazza San Marco, took coffee and smoked cigarettes, and tried her Italian with some Italian friends.

Life is still cheap in Venice; it was then even

cheaper, and she was able to economize. She sent her manuscripts to Buloz, the editor of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and lived like a student. She was not alone; Alfred de Musset was with her. He left her, to return to Paris, at the beginning of April. He had been very ill.

"He is still very delicate for undertaking this long journey. I am not without uneasiness on this point; but it was worse for him to remain than to leave, and every day spent in waiting for a return of his health retarded instead of accelerating it. He is gone at last, under the care of a very good and devoted servant. The doctor [Dr. Pagello] answers for his lungs, if he will take care of them; but I am not very tranquil. We have left each other for a few months, perhaps for ever."

It was for ever. The sad story has been told in 'Elle et Lui,' in 'Lui et Elle.' Musset and Madame Sand were not in reality made for each other. They were both irrational, unconscious slaves of their sensations, and fond of new sensations. If they had any sentiment of duty, it was to hate duty. One was the most sensitive of poets, the other the most insatiable searcher after new sensations, new ideas, new figures. They met for a moment, and fled away from each other almost with a sentiment of repulsion; to them love was almost less than a caprice. Madame Sand could only be faithful as a friend; she really despised those who fell in love with her—she looked upon them as inferior beings. We find in a letter from Venice some explanations on the subject of the relations of Madame Sand with Gustave Planche, who was for a long time the great critic of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. She says that Planche never took the trouble to play with her the part of a lover. "Our affection was quiet and fraternal. . . . The friendship of Planche, the memory of his devotion, of his inexhaustible kindness to me, will always remain in my life and in my heart."

After leaving Alfred de Musset at Vicenza, Madame Sand made a little excursion on foot in the Alps, along the valley of the Brenta. She returned to Venice with seven centimes in her pocket. If she had not been so poor, she would have gone into the Tyrol. In her journeys in Italy she did not spend more than five francs a day, but she always travelled on foot or on a donkey. She was still in Venice in the midsummer of 1834, working "like a horse," to pay the expenses of her Italian journey. She sent articles to the *Revue* which are full of beautiful descriptions of Italian life and scenery. Buloz only sent her money by driblets; it was a sort of principle with him to give as little as possible at a time to his great writers—he looked upon necessity as the great inspirer of the muses. In August, 1834, she returned to Paris; she had taken with her her Italian doctor Pagello, whom she thus describes: "Pagello is a brave and worthy man, of your sort, good and devoted as you are [this she writes to the faithful Boucoiran]. I owe to him my life and Alfred's. Pagello intends to stay a few months in Paris." She herself made a visit to Nohant, in order to see her daughter Solange. She invited Pagello to make a visit to Nohant, with the permission of M. Dudevant. I cannot discover from the correspondence whether this visit was made or not. Madame Sand must have been very fond of writing letters, since, with all her enormous work, she found time to write pages in this style:

"I have never had for you [M. François Rollinat, of Châteauroux] either any moral love [what does she mean by that?] or physical love; but, from the day when I first knew you, I felt one of those rare, profound, and invincible sympathies which nothing can alter. I have not found you superior to me by nature; otherwise, I should have conceived for you the sort of enthusiasm which leads to love; but I have found you my equal—*mio compare*, as they say in Venice. You were better than myself, as you were younger, as you had lived less in the storm, as God had placed you at once in a finer and straighter way. But you had come out of his hand with the same sum of virtues and of defects, of greatness and misery, as myself."

Really, when Madame Sand wrote such letters, she must have been preparing herself for a novel.

All the letters of this period show a sort of exaltation, and at the same time of discouragement. Madame Sand was out of equilibrium, struggling hard, exciting herself, so to speak, one hour, and the next hour falling back on a natural *fonds* of *bonhomie* and of simplicity. She was simple by nature and complex by effort; good by nature, misanthropic and bitter by the result of her life. "Society," she writes to Madame d'Agoult, who wrote under the name of Daniel Stern, "is bad and cruel. Our passions are neither good nor bad." She had no system of philosophy, no religion, no politics; she was constantly feeling her way in every direction. When she writes to her son, whom she really loved, she is careful what she says. Here is a letter to him:

"Work; be strong, be proud, be independent. . . . We resemble each other in our souls as well as in our faces. I can see now what your intellectual life is to be. I fear profound pain for you, and hope also for very pure joys. Keep in yourself the treasure of goodness. Learn how to give without hesitation, to lose without regret; learn how to harbor in your heart the happiness of those whom you love in place of the happiness which you will not have yourself! Keep the hope of an after life, of a place where the mothers will find again their sons. Love all the creatures of God; forgive all those who are disgraced; resist the unjust; devote yourself to those who are great by their virtues. Love me! I will teach you many things if we live together. If we have not that happiness (the greatest that I can imagine, and the only one which makes me desire a long life), you will pray God for me; and from the darkness of death, if something remains of me, your mother will watch over you."

This volume would be worth reading and keeping were it only for a letter like this!

Monsieur Dudevant was certainly not worthy of his wife. He drank habitually, and when drunk he sometimes became violent. After a scene which had nearly become tragical, Madame Sand resolved to make a formal suit of separation. There was no divorce then, as there is none now, in France; but under some circumstances a *séparation de corps* can be pronounced by the judge. On both sides there was an abundance of reasons. Madame Sand had from time to time returned to Nohant, but practically she had assumed a complete liberty. She was the richer of the two—Nohant belonged to her; she offered to give her husband a pension, and she undertook to pay for the maintenance and education of her children herself.

We find her at the end of this first volume in correspondence with the famous Franz Liszt. She was always attracted by all the extraordinary men; and it did not take long to make her intimate with them. It was one of the most curious traits of her character that, as soon as she saw somebody, she treated him as if she had known him from childhood. The last letter of the volume is dated June 28, 1836. She informs us that her lawsuit was not yet concluded. Meanwhile, she was writing letters and novels in a most extraordinary mood. She was becoming a Socialist, and entered into communication with the Saint-Simonians and the Republicans.

Correspondence.

MR. RICE ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If you will permit me again to encroach to a small extent upon your space, I should like to remind Mr. Rice that in my note I distinctly disclaimed the intention of refuting his argument, and merely cited one passage as an *illustration* of his unfitness to deal with the subject. In that passage Mr. Rice undertook to expose a confusion of ideas on the part of Ricardo concerning the latter's "own fundamental proposition"; and in this connection the object or general drift of Mr. Rice's article was an entirely irrelevant matter. Perhaps you will allow me to add that I very fully agree with Mr. Adams in his remarks in yesterday's issue, and that what I had in mind in my first note, as preferable to the *Nation's* review, was not "silent contempt," but that judicious, though distinctly spoken, contempt in which the *Nation* is usually anything but deficient.

Yours, very respectfully, X.

Baltimore, June 9, 1882.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. are about issuing, in twelve monthly volumes, small 18mo, an elegant edition of Shakspere's works, printed from new type, on linen paper, and bound in vellum.

B. Westermann & Co. send us the first instalment of a new illustrated edition of Goethe's Works, now publishing at Stuttgart, under the competent editorial supervision of Heinrich Düntzer. It will match the illustrated Schiller already put forth by the Deutsche Verlags-Anstalt, of which more than 50,000 copies have been sold, and the same firm's illustrated Shakspere. There will be eighty-five instalments in all. No one can complain of the paucity of the illustrations and other pictorial adornments of this edition, which are naturally of a popular character. The form is large 8vo.

L'Art offers gratuitously to each subscriber for the present year a premium plate etched by M. Ulysse Butin, after his own picture in the Salon of 1875, entitled "L'Attente." Mr. J. W. Bouton will deliver it with the next quarterly volume, about July 15.

Waterton's 'Wanderings in South America,' after J. G. Wood's edition, the illustrations included, is the latest sixpenny venture of Macmillan & Co. in the form and after the fashion of the Franklin Square Library. Such a work as this, despite the defects and idiosyncrasies of the author and the shortcomings of the editor, deserves a wide circulation, and is well chosen for popular reading.

Dodd, Mead & Co. have also come into this new (and to the genuine book-lover still strange) field of competition with a twenty-cent edition of E. P. Roe's 'Barriers Burned Away.' The story has been revised by the author.

Edmund Burke's 'Thoughts on the Cause of the Present Discontents,' in Ireland, in 1770, namely, have just been made accessible in a cheap pamphlet published by M. H. Gill & Son, Dublin. Mr. Vincent Scully furnishes an introduction.

The Boston Civil-Service Reform Association has printed two prize essays on the general subject prepared by college students (in this case both graduates of not more than five years' standing). The award of the first prize was unaffected by the fact that the essay did not conform entirely to the views of the Association.

Nature (May 18, 25) is publishing a summary review of Darwin's career by several hands, directed by Dr. G. J. Romanes. The first paper is chiefly biographical; the second shows the great naturalist's contributions to geologic science and insight. It appears that Mr. Darwin's father, a physician, "had a wonderful power of diagnosing diseases, both bodily and mental, by the aid of the fewest number of questions"; and even of

divining what was passing through his patients' minds. Darwin himself was first intended for the same profession, but, as it was repugnant to him, he was on the eve of entering the Church when the post of naturalist on the *Beagle* expedition was secured for him by Professor Henslow, to whose instruction Darwin owed his impulse in the direction of physical research. The voyage which determined his life-work and imperishable fame, also proved ruinous to his health, by inducing a chronic indigestion. *Nature* states that the memorial fund about to be raised in his honor is designed to include an effigy of Darwin, as well as an endowment for the furtherance of biology.

Part 6 of Reiss and Stübel's 'Necropolis of Ancon, in Peru' (Dodd, Mead & Co.), contains one plate showing a gorgeous mummy pack, the rest being wholly devoted to cotton and woollen fabrics (often conjoined)—borders, fringes, trimmings, etc. In these fresh examples of a highly advanced art, one is struck by the brilliancy and harmony of the coloring, as well as by the beauty of the designs, of which the decoration abounds in animal figures in all stages of conventionalism. They form, as we may already have remarked, a "grammar of ornament." The fidelity of the lithographic facsimiles is most illusive.

We have received from the Ann Arbor Printing and Publishing Company a 4to volume of 240 pages, consisting of tables for the calculation of interest, discount, the value of investments, annuities, and related subjects, prepared by the late Professor Watson while Director of the Observatory at Ann Arbor, and Professor of Astronomy in the University of Michigan and Actuary of the Michigan Mutual Life Insurance Company. The explanations accompanying the tables are very full and precise, and there seems to be hardly any question relating to the subjects above mentioned to which these tables do not afford an answer. We have examined with some care that part of the book which treats of partial payments, a subject in regard to which the statutes of different States, the rules adopted by different courts, and the practice of different merchants and bankers present great and often important variations. The different rules for adjusting such payments are given by Professor Watson, and he then explains what he considers the correct and just rule. On comparing his results with those arrived at by an entirely independent process, believed to be just and correct, we find an exact agreement. Every possible precaution appears to have been taken to secure mathematical and typographical accuracy.

Another volume of the series of mathematical text-books by Prof. Newcomb has been published by Henry Holt & Co. It comprises a treatise of plane and spherical trigonometry, and the logarithmic tables usually accompanying such works. The treatise and tables are also published in separate volumes, and are for sale independently of each other. The treatise is formed upon the same plan and possesses the same general characteristics as the previous volumes of the course. In the present volume, however, the author appears to have kept the practical applications of the science more especially in view. The tables are "five-place tables," and are printed with great clearness and even beauty.

So far as such a subject can be taught by questions and answers, the 'School Manual of Household Economy,' published under the direction of the Kitchen-Garden Association of this city (Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.), ought to accomplish its purpose. Housework, or housekeeping, like every other art, can be effectually learned only by actual practice; but the future servant or mistress will surely profit by the study of the clear, concise statements of this treatise. It is all the better for its simplicity, being without hobbies, or even theories, except the beautiful one, of the character of the virtuous woman, which makes the device of the title-page—"She looketh well to the ways of her household."

From Christian Tönsberg, Norway's enterprising art publisher, we have received a small volume containing 160 wood-engravings of Norwegian cities, landscapes, waterfalls, etc., with 127 pages of text in Norse and in English. The illustrations are from photographs and drawings taken on the spot. The English title of the book is 'Norway, exhibited in engravings, with a brief description by various authors.' It will be found a convenient pocket-guide for people who contemplate spending a vacation in Scandinavia.

—In these days, when all of our academies, colleges, and libraries, supported wholly or in part by the income of invested funds, are suffering from the diminished rate of interest, it may be well for them to lay to heart the optimistic view taken by the Peabody Institute, of Peabody, Mass. Its income has fallen off nearly $1,500, but it declares that "this misfortune is not without its compensations. . . . The youth or adult who masters one good book has reaped more benefit, and made more real progress, than the one who has acquired but a superficial knowledge of a score of volumes"; ergo, the smaller a library's income, and the fewer new books it is able to buy, the better for its readers. The "Thirtieth Annual Report" does not draw this conclusion in so many words, but it is difficult to see what other compensation there can be. The next alderman who is trying to cut down the City Library appropriation, will find this a convenient argument.

—Pending the delay in the publication of the annual report of the Director of the United States Geological Survey, Mr. S. F. Emmons, geologist in charge of the Rocky Mountain Division, has issued, in a separate pamphlet, his contribution to Director Powell's volume, consisting of an abstract or outline of a more detailed report, to be presented later, upon the geology and mining industry of the Leadville region. The abstract makes a pamphlet of about ninety large octavo pages, and is accompanied by two colored plates, representing the geology of the vicinity of Leadville in a map and sections. Among the many interesting results of Mr. Emmons's investigations, some of the most noteworthy, from an economical point of view, are those that relate to the geological position of the ore bodies of the district, the more important of which occur as a replacement of the blue limestone at or near its contact with an overlying white porphyry. The limestone is shown to be of Carboniferous age, with an average thickness of only 150 to 200 feet and the composition of a normal dolomite. In places the dolomite has been so largely replaced that it is now mainly represented by a mass of ore, ferruginous clay, quartz, and chert. The overlying porphyry is regarded as the immediate source from which the vein materials were probably derived, chemical examinations having shown that while the sedimentary and crystalline rocks of the region, taken at some distance from the ore deposits, contain no precious metals, appreciable amounts of gold, silver, lead, and baryta may generally be found in the eruptive rocks. The details of these examinations must be reserved for the final publication; but an idea of the amount of material available in these rocks may be obtained from an estimate of the possible contents of a single variety of porphyry (the pyritiferous) of the Leadville district, from which it appears—taking into the calculation the area of its outcrop, as shown on the map, its probable thickness, and the average percentage of metals contained in it, as deduced from chemical examinations of eleven specimens from different parts—that the mass under consideration would contain, in round figures, 250,000,000 ounces of silver, 9,000,000 tons of galena, and 100,000,000 tons of limonite, which represents fairly the average proportions of each in Leadville ores as a whole.

—The main report, now in course of preparation, as outlined in the present pamphlet, will comprise, in part 1, a detailed description and discussion of the geological phenomena of the Mosquito Range in general, and of the Leadville region in particular; and in part 2, a study of the ore deposits of Leadville, their mineralogical and chemical composition and their probable origin, and a description of the methods of working the mines, metallurgical treatment of the ores, and the economical results. It is to be very liberally furnished with engraved book-plates and woodcuts for general illustration, and accompanied by an atlas of fourteen sheets, comprising geological maps and sections. The preliminary report now submitted gives such abundant evidence of careful and intelligent study of the subject by Mr. Emmons and his assistants that their final conclusions cannot fail to make a very important contribution of lasting value to the science of economical geology. The work as projected and so far developed embraces much that is deeply interesting not only to the student, but to the practical miner or mine-owner; and its successful execution will be a credit to its authors, and a practical demonstration of the usefulness of the Geological Bureau in its relations to one of the great industries of the country.

—M. Jules Claretie gathered into a volume the best of the *chroniques* which he had contributed during 1880 to the *Temps*, and the book sold into the seventh or eighth edition. So he has repeated the experiment this year, and 'La Vie à Paris—1881' (Paris: Havard; New York: F. W. Christern) is already in its fifth edition. It is a little difficult to define in English the exact function and nature of a *chronique* such as M. Claretie writes fortnightly or oftener in the *Temps*. In his hands it is a running commentary on the passing show of Parisian life, and its manner varies from that of the "Easy Chair" in *Harper's Magazine* to that of the better class of "Our Own Correspondent." He eschews politics, and considers society, art, literature, and the drama. Music, sport, and fashion are not neglected, but perhaps it is manners that M. Claretie dwells upon most skilfully and lovingly. An antiquary as well as a critic, an historian as well as a novelist, M. Claretie is plainly enough ever observant of the shifting customs of society. He has a quick eye and a pointed style; his acquaintance in the artistic and literary circles of France is most extensive. Thus the book abounds in bright pictures of Parisian life and in fresh and pertinent anecdotes. For example, the Electric Exhibition of last summer gave M. Claretie a chance to tell an apologue he had once heard Victor Hugo extemporize—an apologue which shows Voltaire frightened by the simple marvels of modern science and which is not at all unlike Poe's 'Thousand and Second Night.' The annual picture-show brings up the subject of artists' models; and M. Claretie gives us a curious sketch of this singular class, of the odd lives they lead, and of the pride they take in the pictures for which they have posed. It is amusing to learn that the model who is in the habit of posing for historical painters, scorns to sit for a *genre* picture, and that the woman who has often been painted as a fine lady refuses to pose as a peasant. Another interesting chapter is on the many dining clubs of Paris—clubs

which have no club-house and indeed no existence except during the monthly or fortnightly dinner. Not to be passed over hastily are the chapters on Parisian journalism and on actresses' mothers. It only remains to be added that there is a classified table of contents, besides an index of the many proper names scattered through the book. It is M. Claretie's intention to continue this series of annual volumes; and its future value, like its present interest, is indisputable.

—The late Édouard Fournier must have been one of the most indefatigable note-takers ever known. The 'Bibliothèque de l'Arsenal' has twenty quarto volumes, which have been carefully arranged by M. Paul Lacroix; the 'Bibliothèque de la Ville' has fifteen more volumes, relating to the history of Paris, which have been arranged by M. Jules Cousin; and a large mass on the history of the *chanson populaire* in all countries and ages, which was to have been used by the late Baron James de Rothschild, will now probably be deposited in some other library. Besides all these, there is another collection relating to the history of signs, which is to go into the 'Bibliothèque de l'Arsenal' as soon as M. Fournier's posthumous work on signs is published. With all this apparatus it is remarkable that he should have published so much as he did. His 'Esprit dans l'Histoire,' 'Vieux Neuf,' 'Histoire des Hôtelleries et des Cabarets' (in conjunction with Francisque Michel), and more than a dozen other antiquarian works; his ten plays, in which, however, he was usually only joint author; his collections, such as the nine volumes of 'Variétés Historiques et Littéraires,' and the 'Théâtre Français avant la Renaissance,' and 'Théâtre Français au 16e et 17e Siècles'; his editions of the works of Regnard and of Beaumarchais, and an endless number of *notices*, *préfaces*, and articles in journals—all these constitute a literary performance of which, considering its general excellence, an antiquary of any nation might be proud. We doubt if even his friend Paul Lacroix ("le Bibliophile Jacob") has surpassed him in diligence.

—The University of Berlin is going a-begging for a professor of philosophy. A few years ago Professor Harms died, and after considerable negotiating Professor Lotze accepted the place. He, too, died before he had occupied his chair more than a year, and all the efforts made since to obtain Professor Kuno Fischer, of Heidelberg, Professor von Goltz, Professor Sigwart, and others have failed. The position is one of the most honorable and remunerative in the country, and the phenomenon is therefore somewhat peculiar. There are plenty of younger psychologists in Germany, but they are all modern in spirit and convictions, while Berlin is conservative, and still observes the custom, noted by Heine in his day, of keeping all new ideas in quarantine for some years or decades.

—A collection of twenty-five new cartoons by Albert Hendschel has just been issued by F. A. C. Prestel of Frankfort. They are in his old, well-known manner, representing incidents of every-day life with a few simple but suggestive lines, in which the humor is always tempered by a certain grace and naïveté. In a late number of the *Frankfurter Zeitung* Johannes Proelsz gives some facts concerning Hendschel that will be of interest to his admirers in this country. His father had originally intended him for the career of a naturalist, but on seeing a very clever caricature of one of his teachers made by his twelve-year-old son, he allowed him to follow the bent of his own mind. In 1872 he had already reached the age of thirty-eight years without having taken any steps toward notoriety, outside of a limited circle of friends. About this time the art-dealer Prestel secured twenty-five of his sketches and printed them in an edition of a hundred copies. Most of these were sold in Frankfort, but one copy was exhibited at the Leipzig Kunstverein, where it made a great sensation. Another copy got into the hands of Bismarck, who immediately wrote to the editor of the weekly *Gartenlaube* and called his attention to the new talent. As the *Gartenlaube* at that time had a circulation of almost half a million copies, an article on Hendschel which soon appeared in it at once helped him to a popularity which has been constantly on the increase, more than a million copies of his sketches having already been disposed of by his publisher. "Mischief and gracefulness" are the leading traits of Hendschel's *genre* pictures. He occupies an intermediate position between those painters who, like Richter, Pletsch, and Klimsch, idealize the scenes from life which they choose for subjects, and the caricaturists of the *Fliegende Blätter* and *Schalk*—Busch, Oberländer, and others—whose principal aim is to excite laughter by exaggerating the awkward and comic, whereas Hendschel aims at fun which does not clash with the lines of beauty. "The form which he adopts in his most characteristic sketches as most suitable is peculiar to himself. He places the clumsy directly beside the graceful, the awkward beside the clever; and the artistic contrast resulting from this method gives a purer form of humor than the exaggeration of the awkward into ugliness."

—Mr. Grant Allen, in the June number of Cassell's *Magazine of Art*, has an article entitled "The Great Classical Fallacy," mainly devoted to the lamentable ignorance of the English architects of the eighteenth century regarding the antique architecture which they endeavored to imitate, especially in respect to its color. It is indeed true that Sir Christopher and his followers, Hawksmoor, Vanbrugh, the brothers Adam, Kent, Campbell, Chambers, and the rest, did create a distinctive English Renaissance, which was crude and formal, and, unlike their Italian and (to a certain extent) their French contemporaries, did not consider the painters their natural allies. Classical forms in their hands thus not only refused to stoop to the requirements of domestic comfort, but suffered an eclipse of color. In this latter respect, we venture to question whether the very affluence of archæological discovery in these latter days has not so embarrassed the present generation of English architects that they are not much better off than their ancestors. Certain it is, no English writer has yet presented anything approaching a satisfactory theory of the relations of color to form; and, as for practice, the modern drawing-room, richly bedight with carpets, hangings, and wall-papers, decorated ceilings, and the spoils of the gorgeous East, is by no means a completed architectural interior in the sense that the royal chambers recently disinterred upon the Palatine or in the gardens of the Tiburine villas are complete; our public halls do not yet recall the splendors of the secular basilicas or curias of the Empire; nor do our churches borrow either from the paintings and marble inlays of the pagan temples, or from the Christian mosaics of Byzantium, Ravenna, or Venice, any hint of beautiful completion. Our conscience is aroused, but our civilization is at fault, and we have not yet married color to form in perfect union, or defined the true relations of color to architectural effects. Mr. Grant Allen utters a commonplace fact when he states that the classical scholarship and art of the last century went hand in hand, and suffered from certain obvious limitations of knowledge; he might have added that our own shortcomings differ only from those of our ancestors in degree. It is quite true that not only his imaginary villa of Charlecomb, but all the great monuments of the time—Blenheim, Wanstead House, Castle Howard, Holkam House, and the rest—are for the most part cold and colorless; that they but dimly apprehended the classical idea which they were intended to revive; that they sacrificed comfort to an architectural formula, and ease to monumental effect; but, with all their defects, they are at least deserving of respect as genuine historical expressions. Apparently, the day is not far distant when the incomprehensible revolution of taste and fashion through which, by way of the "Queen Anne" aberrations, we are at present passing, will culminate in a revival of respect for classical symmetry—better instructed and more conscientious, perhaps, than that of the last century, but none the less diametrically opposed to the license and mediæval picturesqueness which have lately controlled most of our architectural expressions. Then we shall have another conflict of essays on the true principles of architectural æsthetics; and what prophet shall say when and where we shall finally rest from these unscientific and empirical processes, and enjoy an era of rational peace with art?

—One of the most curious and interesting incidents of the religious history of the Middle Ages is the conversion of a "master of Holy Scripture"—a distinguished preacher—by a "friend of God from the Oberland," apparently at Strassburg, about the middle of the fourteenth century. The "master" has generally been identified with the famous Dominican preacher and mystic, Tauler; the "friend of God," with one Nicholas of Basel. In 1879 an eminent Dominican scholar, Denifle, published a treatise entitled 'Tauler's Bekehrung,' in which he undertook to show that Tauler could not be the hero of the story, and that it was probably a fictitious narrative, drawn up with a view to edification—a *Tendenzschrift*. The same year, Dr. Auguste Jundt published in Paris a volume of 445 octavo pages entitled 'Les Amis de Dieu au quatorzième Siècle,' containing a detailed account of the career of "the friend of God of the Oberland" and his associate, Rulman Merswin of Strassburg, with a critical examination of the evidence as to the identity of both "master" and "friend of God." His book was in print before the appearance of Denifle's; nevertheless, he was able to add an appendix of twenty-five pages, in which he considers and answers his arguments. A part of Denifle's case is disposed of by the fact that M. Jundt does not identify the "friend of God" with Nicholas of Basel, but, by an ingenious combination of bits of evidence, comes to the conclusion that he resided in Coire (Chur) in the Grisons, and that his name was John—probably John of Rutberg. That the "master of Holy Scripture" was Tauler, he appears to have proved conclusively in the body of the book, and in the appendix he successfully answers, or at least weakens, all of Denifle's arguments. The strongest of these is that Tauler was not a "magister," but only a "lector"—and we know how strict the scholars of the Middle Ages were in their use of the titles of the several grades of scholarship. But the "friend of God," Jundt answers, was not a scholar, but an uninstructed layman, who might easily give the title "master" to a preacher of Tauler's eminence—just as every distinguished preacher at the present day is "Doctor" in common parlance. Another argument of great strength is that the "master" was not positively identified with Tauler until the year 1486, although the treatise which de-

scribes the occurrence was published fifty years earlier; the occurrence itself is usually placed in 1348, but by Jundt in 1350—Tauler died in 1361. In reply to this argument, Jundt shows that even the first edition of the treatise (1436) was associated with Tauler by being placed in a collection of his sermons, and being ascribed to a master of the order of St. Dominic. The first use of the term "master of Holy Scripture" for Tauler was in 1468; the first direct assertion that he was the person referred to by the "friend of God," in 1486; and these three dates show a concurrence of tradition which is certainly very strong. On the whole, Denifle's arguments that the "master" *could* not have been Tauler seem to us successfully answered; that it certainly was he, cannot be claimed, but is at any rate made probable. Jundt's book will be found very instructive for the religious life of the Middle Ages.

—On very few occasions during the past season —even during the "Africaine" excitement—has the Academy of Music been so crowded as it was on Friday evening. Many who had heard Frau Materna at the May Festival concerts came to bid her good-by, or rather *au revoir*, and others came to hear for the first time the "heroine of the three May Festivals." The concert opened with the overture to Weber's "Euryanthe," which was rather poorly played; the most beautiful passage in it—the weird *pianissimo* tomb motive—being, moreover, spoiled by the noise made by the late-comers. In this piece, as well as in the "Rienzi" and "Tannhäuser" overtures, which the orchestra played alone, it became only too apparent that Wagnerian music cannot be effectively rendered with so small a band in so large a hall, in which, too, no one could help contrasting the effect with that produced at the Philharmonic concerts. Some piano solos contributed by Mme. Constance Howard must have convinced every one that the Academy is no place for that instrument, and that the performer would have made a more favorable impression under more auspicious circumstances. The burden of the concert accordingly lay chiefly on the shoulders of Frau Materna and Herr Candidus, the magnitude of whose merits may be estimated from the fact that they succeeded in making of the concert one of the most interesting of the season. Herr Candidus sang an aria from the "Huguenots," and *Siegmund's* love-song from "Die Walküre," besides assisting Frau Materna in the duo from the second act of "Tannhäuser," which closed the concert. His beautiful, manly voice and excellent method won him new admirers, and we are sure we express a general hope that some manager may restore this fine tenor to his native country. He always sings his part as it was written, and that alone would distinguish him favorably from some other tenors known to local fame. Frau Materna's contributions were three in number—the aria "Adrian," from "Rienzi," a song, "Meine Boten," by W. Goericke, of Vienna, and the part of *Elizabeth* in the Tannhäuser selection, already referred to. Like Herr Candidus, she was compelled to repeat each of her solo pieces, although there was in them not a trace of such ornamental or florid vocalism as alone would have evoked demonstrations of enthusiasm from a less intelligent audience. The truth of what we said of her voice on a previous occasion—that it is "of great compass, sonorous quality, absolute purity, great flexibility, unequalled power, amazing endurance, and great emotional range and intensity"—was fully demonstrated on this occasion to the satisfaction even of those who had heretofore been sceptical as to one or other of these points. No living singer that we have ever heard has a voice that so completely contains in itself the whole gamut of human passions, and that conveys to the hearer in such a thrilling manner every variation of emotion contained in the situation she is interpreting. We even maintain that in loud, sustained high notes her voice has a purely sensuous beauty that transcends anything that even the purely sensuous Italian school of vocalism can boast of. In the athletics of vocalism—in feats of agility, trills, etc.—she has many superiors, but in the æsthetics she has no equal. And this is the result of the Wagnerian, declamatory style, which we are always told prematurely ruins every voice.

—Frau Materna has every reason to be satisfied with her reception in this country. She has received high praise from every quarter except a few *Italianissimi* and one remarkable "critic," who has made the epoch-making discovery that she is defective in that for which Wagner and all German critics have always especially admired her—her distinct and clear pronunciation of the German language. And this success is much more remarkable when we bear in mind that she is by instinct as great an actress as she is a singer, and that the audience lost just as much in seeing her on the concert stage as they do in hearing Wagner's music out of its proper connections. In Vienna this is so clearly understood that we have known her to appear in connection with other opera singers at a concert which did not fill half the house, while the house is always full when she sings at the Opera. One more point must here be insisted on. It was noticeable, and we mentioned it at the time, that Frau Materna in some passages sang slightly out of tune at the May Festival concerts. We ascribed this to the high American pitch, to which she was not then accustomed; and the result has shown the correctness of our view. A few weeks have sufficed to adapt her voice to our pitch, and on Friday it deserved the epithet of absolute purity as much as the others enumerated above. But to prevent other singers from being similarly misjudged it is surely time that this old nuisance of the American pitch were abated. It arose from the desire of piano manufacturers to give their instruments especial brilliancy by an abnormally high pitch. This is unjust to the singers, and we believe that music is now sufficiently advanced in America to be at last emancipated from the patronage of piano manufacturers. In saying this we do not mean to deny the good service done to the cause of music heretofore by some of our leading manufacturers.

STATE TRIALS OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

Narratives of State Trials in the Nineteenth Century. By G. Lathom Browne, Barrister-at-Law. 2 vols. London: Sampson Low & Co.; Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Mr. Lathom Browne has published a worthless book which is yet well worth reading. He is himself, to judge from his work, a professional bookmaker, and his bookmaking is not of a high quality. His historical summaries, which fill up a large part of his two volumes, are the most pretentious narratives of facts known to all the world which it has ever been our fate to read. His accounts of the trials with which he is specially concerned are neither clear nor interesting. His opinions upon men and things are commonplace, superficial, and utterly deficient in insight. Whoever wishes to understand how a strange and exciting tale of mystery may be spoilt by bad telling, should read Mr. Browne's account of the frauds which wrecked the reputation of Lord Cochrane. It is difficult, from Mr. Browne's version of the affair, to follow out the leading incidents of a complicated transaction. It is even more difficult to form from his narrative any clear judgment as to the parts played by the different actors in one of the most painful judicial investigations of modern times. Mr. Browne has never understood the whole of the difficulties involved in the supposition of Lord Cochrane's innocence. He sees that Lord Ellenborough was a violent partisan, and was not an impartial judge in a case where political feeling prejudiced him against the prisoner. But he never perceives that Lord Ellenborough's unfairness or severity does not prove Lord Cochrane's innocence. Every one must wish to believe that a seaman who displayed all the boldness and much of the genius of Nelson was not mixed up in frauds which would have disgraced the blacklegs of the Stock Exchange; and any candid critic will gladly admit that Lord Cochrane's general career affords a considerable presumption against his having participated in a disgraceful imposture, likely, had it succeeded, to bring ruin on many innocent persons. But when every consideration in favor of Lord Cochrane is duly weighed, the fact still remains that the circumstances of suspicion against him were very strong, and have never been satisfactorily cleared up. It would probably have been well had the jury given him the benefit of every doubt, and found him not guilty. But ordinary justice to the judge who tried, and to the jurymen who convicted, Lord Cochrane requires the admission that in his case a verdict of not guilty could not morally have differed from a verdict of not proven. That Mr. Browne does not see this, gives us the full measure of his capacity for sifting evidence.

The persons, again, about whom he writes are for the most part men and women whose fame or infamy has by this time become almost forgotten, and, what is more, hardly deserves to be remembered. Who is there at this time of day who knows anything about Alexander Davison and Valentine Jones, about Dr. Troy or Mr. Drakard; Brandreth, Turner, Ludlam, and the other Nottingham rioters; Thistlewood, of the Cato conspiracy? Sir Charles Wolseley, Harrison, and Bamford are names which can raise few recollections in England, and are utterly unknown beyond the limits of that country. Who is there, we wonder, who could tell us what were the views or what (if any) the policy advocated by the "patriarch" Cartwright or "orator" Hunt? Is there any among our readers so well informed as to be able to say what was the history or fate of the Spence who founded "certain societies or clubs calling themselves Spenceans, or Spencean philanthropists," which did in 1817, if we are to believe the language of 57 Geo. III. cap. 19, "hold and profess for their object the confiscation and division of the land and the extinction of the funded property of the kingdom"? Who, in short, learns, knows, or recollects anything about the Reformers, Radicals, or Revolutionists who, during the earlier part of this century, excited the terror—well or ill-founded—of all the respectable classes throughout Great Britain? Whatever were the merits or the demerits of the men who agitated or conspired against the Government of George III. or of George IV., they were utterly deficient in that kind of individuality or genius which makes a permanent impression on the memory of mankind.

Some, indeed, of Mr. Browne's state trials have no reference to treason or conspiracy. But the fashionable blackguardism of fifty or sixty years ago was at least as dreary and characterless as its sedition. A man must have a strange taste for the details of low intrigue who can feel much interest in the miserable contest between George IV. and his Queen. The "delicate in-

vestigation," the Milan inquiry, the Bill of Pains and Penalties, and the like, are matters which it is impossible for any one concerned in the history of the century wholly to overlook: they throw a curious light on the state, not of England, but of the English court, when George IV. was King. But in themselves they are matters neither more important nor better worth recollection than the daily records of the police court. Great qualities are needed for the making even of a great villain, and the scoundrels who during the first quarter or so of this century found in the English law courts a stage on which to exhibit their vices had not capacity or originality enough to give them a high rank among notorious rogues. The Duke of York and Mary Ann Clarke, the Earl of Berkeley and Miss Tudor, George IV. and Queen Caroline, have one and all of them the unmistakable note of commonplace vulgarity. For invention, for resource, for humor, they cannot compare for a moment with the Claimant. As the world goes on, even crime and blackguardism, there is reason to hope, improve in quality. In the field of roguery, no less than in that of politics, Mr. Browne is forced to deal with the adventures of persons who, if we except Lord Cochrane, all lacked any touch of greatness or genius.

An ill-written book, the work of an incompetent narrator, which tells for the most part dull stories about dull persons, may, in the strictest sense of the word, be called worthless. Yet, for all this, we have no hesitation in asserting that Mr. Browne's book is worth reading, and, what is more, is worth reading with some thought and attention. The narratives of state trials are worth reading, because they bring into a clear light several aspects of recent English history which are constantly overlooked, and yet are in their way of supreme importance. No one, for example, who reads Mr. Browne's pages with any intelligence, can doubt that the standard of public morality in England has risen immensely since the beginning of the century. The statesmen, the politicians, and officials of to-day have faults of their own enough and to spare. The men of the Gladstonian era may lack the nerve, the force, and the character to maintain the empire which was defended and preserved by the generation that idolized Pitt, remembered the greatness of Chatham, and produced Peel and Wellington; but no one can doubt that the Ministers, the Secretaries, the Under-Secretaries, and the administrators generally who have held office for the last fifty years have been, as a body, incomparably more honest than the officials who flourished eighty years ago. Pitt's public honesty was, it is true, proverbial; but when a particular Minister is praised because he does not plunder the country, we may be pretty sure that the mass of officials are accustomed to dip their hands freely enough into the national Treasury. The records of the law courts are in such a matter worth a hundred general statements. Lord Melville may have been in reality, as well as technically, innocent of every offence laid to his charge. The Duke of York may possibly have been so complete a fool that he ought not to be considered a thorough-paced knave. But we may be sure that when Melville was Treasurer of the Navy, and the Duke Commander-in-Chief, favoritism and corruption must have been rampant throughout the public departments over which the Viscount and the Duke presided. It is hard, further, to believe that men like Alexander Davison and Valentine Jones were not to be found in other departments than the commissariat. The trials which laid open to the nation some, at least, of the secrets of official corruption and official incompetence took place between 1806 and 1809, just at the moment, that is, when England was engaged in her life-and-death struggle with Napoleon. It is difficult at first sight to reconcile the external with the internal view of English political life. As we read of sieges, of battles, of victories, of patriotic exertions for the defence of the country, we picture to ourselves an age of heroes. As we read of frauds on the commissariat, of corrupt sales of commissions, we fancy that the age was one in which rogues in high places were rapidly bringing the whole country to the brink of ruin. The apparent contradiction can be reconciled only by admitting that an age of national glory need not be an age of high public morality. The regiments which fought and conquered in the Peninsula were, it is said, recruited from the jails and the hulks. The royal Commander-in-Chief who distributed promotion in accordance with the suggestions of Mary Ann Clarke, might well, under slightly different circumstances, have been sent to stand his trial at the Old Bailey. It is surely one of the strangest strokes of the irony of history that scoundrelism and incompetence should have flourished at the very period which future historians will paint, and paint with truth, as the age at which the glory of England reached its highest point.

The history of nations is never in reality a mere exhibition of the sarcasms of Providence. There is, if any one considers the matter fairly, a true connection between the public corruption at home and the national glories abroad which mark the first twenty years of the century. England was not corrupt. The tone of political life had risen for at least a century, and was every day rising. But a time of war is almost of necessity a time of corruption: the absence of reform means the growth of abuses. Moreover, the administrative machinery of English government needed complete supervision and rearrangement; and at the very moment when it required repair, it had to bear a greater stress of work than has ever been laid upon it before or since. The wonder is not that many officials should have been corrupt and incompetent, but that there should have been found among the governing classes enough men of honesty and vigor to carry the country with success through the crisis of her fortunes. The ship needed repair, but the energy of the crew and officers brought her safe into port.

But let no optimist suppose that England did not suffer from the patent vices of her institutions. The plain and undoubted fact is, that for the first thirty or forty years of the nineteenth century the people of England were in a more or less constant state of suffering and discontent. The trials of the Luddites in 1813, the trials for high treason of 1817, the Peterloo massacre of 1819, the Cato conspiracy of 1820, the passionate excitement caused by the proceedings against Queen Caroline, the whole history of men like Despard, Watson, Hunt, Brandreth, and a score of others—tell a tale of popular misery and of popular discontent the meaning of which is unmistakable. The men whose names we have mentioned were, it will be said, conspirators or agitators of a mean and despicable type. Despard was, indeed, a soldier of some ability, and Hunt a speaker of some power; but no doubt the democratic leaders or conspirators whose plots from the beginning of the century alarmed the Cabinets of George III. and of the Regent, were for the most part persons of little ability or character. Not one of them rose intellectually to the level of Wilkes, Horne Tooke, or Thomas Paine. It would be ridiculous to compare any of them with agitators of the mould of O'Connell, of Cobden, of John Bright, or even of Feargus O'Connor or Ernest Jones. Their schemes were wild and incoherent, their means of accomplishing their plans laughably inadequate for their object. The Cato Street conspiracy had about it an element of horror; but that any man should have thought he could work a revolution by assassinating the whole of the Cabinet, would, but for one circumstance, argue at least as much insanity as wickedness. The one circumstance which makes it possible to believe that conspirators such as Thistlewood, Watson, or Brandreth were not madmen, is their knowledge of widespread discontent and suffering among the masses of the people. In this point of view, the popular leaders with whom we are concerned gain a certain historical importance from their individual insignificance. When the acts of Hunt, of Watson, or of Brandreth could seriously alarm the English Government, there was, we may feel sure, something very critical in the state of the nation.

A good deal of allowance must be made for the panic caused among the well-to-do classes by the recollections of the French Revolution. Still, the Ministers of the Regent were not fools or cowards. They undoubtedly committed the mistake of supposing that spies, informers, special commissions, suspensions of the habeas-corpus act, and the like, could cure a disease of which such measures can only suppress the outward signs. But it is folly to suppose that Perceval, Lord Sidmouth, Lord Eldon, and the Tory statesmen generally were mistaken in thinking that a spirit of disloyalty and sedition was threatening the institutions of the country. Respectable Radicals like Bamford, ruined adventurers like Despard, and fanatics like Brandreth, were on this point quite at one with prime ministers and privy councillors. Every man who really knew the state of the country between 1800 and 1830 was well aware that a revolutionary spirit was abroad. The growth of pauperism, the severity of taxation, the disturbance in social arrangements caused by the rapid growth of manufactures, the absence of all attempt to reform institutions which had long been unsuited to the changed conditions of the country, were, it is perfectly plain, during the first quarter of this century creating that condition of popular sentiment which every one now knows to be the certain sign of approaching revolution. Whoever wishes to realize how near England came to being swept into the general revolutionary movement of the age, will find an infinite amount of instruction in the careful study of the book before us.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Revolt of Man. [Leisure-Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co. 1882.

Heaps of Money. A Novel. By W. E. Norris. New York. 1882.

The Eleventh Commandment. A Romance. By Anton Giulio Barrili. From the Italian, by Clara Bell. New York: William S. Gottsberger.

Dorothea. [Round-Robin Series.] Boston: Jas. R. Osgood & Co.

Why Frau Frohmann Raised Her Prices. By Anthony Trollope. Harper & Bros. [Franklin Square Library.]

A Reverend Idol. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

An Echo of Passion. By George P. Lathrop. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Rocky Fork. By Mary Hartwell Catherwood. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.

The Rival Heirs. By the Rev. A. D. Crake, B.A. New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co.

L'Abbé Constantin. Par Ludovic Halévy. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.

From Hand to Hand. From the German of Golo Raimund, by Mrs. A. L. Wister. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

Lottie of the Mill. From the German of W. Heimburg, by Katharine S. Dickey. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

Castle and Town. By Frances Mary Peard. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

If satire to be successful needed only to be elaborate, 'The Revolt of Man' would be one of the greatest successes in the way of satirical writing since the days of Swift. It is directed against the woman's-rights agitation, and, like most satires of the kind, endeavors to turn the cause into ridicule by a picture of some of its probable remote consequences. In this case we are introduced to the England of the future—a country in which women are not merely entirely emancipated from man's yoke, but make laws for and govern him. The Great Transition and the Transfer of Power have been brought about. Women have been gradually substituted for men in the affairs of state; the monarchy has been abolished—a pure theocracy, with the Perfect Woman for its ideal head, has taken its place; man's rough and rude strength has been disciplined into obedience. Parliamentary government still exists, but it is in feminine hands. A ministry known as All the Talents is succeeded by one known as All the Beauties. But in the House of Peeresses a wide latitude of debate is permitted: one peeress taunts another with her youth, or with an alleged lover, or with trying to be thought prettier than she actually is, etc., etc. At the opening of the book, the ministry gets into trouble by asking for a commission of inquiry into the general condition of the men of the country. The Home Secretary, Constance, Countess of Carlyon, gives the following account of her position in the matter:

"I showed that the whole of the educational endowments of this country have been seized upon for the advantage of women; I suggested that a small proportion might be diverted for the assistance of men. Married men with property, I showed, have no protection from the prodigality of their wives. I pointed out that the law of evidence, as regards violence toward wives, presses heavily on the man. I showed that single men's wages are barely sufficient to purchase necessary clothing. I complained of the long hours during which men have to toil in solitude or in silence; of the many cases in which they have to do house-work and attend to the babies, as well as do their long day's work. And I ventured to hint at the onerous nature of the Married Mothers' Tax—that five per cent. on all men's earnings."

This shows the general drift of the satire, which is certainly harmless, if commonplace. In the course of time, the seeds of revolt are sown; man rises and throws off his yoke, and re-establishes his old supremacy. This being done, the subjection of woman is once more an accomplished fact, and the old order is restored. The plot of the novel, in which there is a sufficient amount of love and adventure to carry the reader through the satire, alone makes the latter readable.

Mr. Norris became very well known to the novel-reading public last summer by his 'Matrimony,' and to a less extent by 'Mademoiselle de Mersac.' 'Heaps of Money' must have been one of his earliest, if not his very first attempt at fiction; and in a slight way a very charming attempt it is. We will not spoil the reader's pleasure by giving him any analysis of the plot, which concerns the adventures of a very interesting young woman who not only desires, but obtains, "heaps of money." The scene is laid in part on the Continent, and among the incidents is a very cleverly-managed affair of honor, in the narration of which Mr. Norris displays the same familiarity and sympathy with the weakness and pettiness of human nature which are the source of so much of the attraction of 'Matrimony.' Perhaps we ought to say, knowledge of human nature as a whole; but while he undoubtedly understands its good as well as its bad sides, it is over the latter that in his later book he lingers most lovingly. On the other hand, to most readers of 'Matrimony' the author is merely an accomplished cynic; but any one of them who will take the pains to look into 'Heaps of Money' will see that the cynicism of the later story is founded upon a matured observation and reflection—that deep and growing insight into the selfishness of man which time and experience so often produce in the candid writer of fiction. When he wrote 'Heaps of Money' he had observed and reflected less; hence, as a love-story, the earlier is the better of the two. As novels, their positions have to be reversed.

A translation from the Italian is so unusual that the mere announcement attracts attention. The publishers have been specially fortunate in their choice of 'The Eleventh Commandment.' It is a gay, sparkling little comedy. The first act passes amid the petty strivings and plottings of a little old Italian town, with its sub-prefect and its registrar-general. Enter a grand personage, a duke, who is seeking a richly-dowered bride. Act ii.: Up in the mountains, above the town, in an old monastery, is gathered a party of nine gentlemen who have voluntarily bound themselves together as the "Reformed Order of Saint Brund." They devote themselves to archæology and the publication of a scientific journal—"monks who are not monks, a craze worthy of an Ariosto," but the country people call it "the convent of madmen." To them enter a young novice with "round, fresh face like an archangel out for a holiday," with his uncle, likewise a novice, a portly, comfortable man of fifty. The young novice brings to the community an eleventh commandment: "Thou shalt stay among thy fellow-men, live their life, love and suffer as they do; for thou mayest not escape the common lot." Act iii. we leave to the reader to make out for himself. The book is so wholly without pretension, and so lightly told, that one pardons minor faults, and no more questions probabilities than one would in 'The Princess,' which, *mutatis mutandis*, it is not unlike.

The author of 'Dorothea' adopts the Philadelphia Exposition of 1876 for the setting of the story; and very pretty it is. The scenes are happily chosen and lightly, gracefully sketched, with an appreciative sense of the humor in many of them; but for plot and character the book amounts to nothing.

'Why Frau Frohmann Raised Her Prices' is the first and most entertaining of three short stories in Mr. Trollope's best manner. It is a pleasant form of altruism to imagine upon how many piazzas it will be read aloud with delight this summer.

'A Reverend Idol' is but a lay figure, spite of the very strenuous attempt to make it like life. All clerical and manly virtues are heaped upon it, but all fail to produce reality. The heroine, however, is at moments a creature of true flesh and blood, and in those moments the author has actually succeeded in *making* her charming, not merely saying that she is so. Even in scenes which can be nothing but ridiculous, she is, let it be frankly admitted, adorable. But the want of sustained power, either in description or in portrayal of character, makes the book only a medley of incongruous elements. The heroine is by turns a young *ingenue*, a Daisy Miller, a Dorothea Brooks, or an Angelica Kauffmann. Any discrepancies or inconsistencies are of little concern to the author, who makes nothing of the difficulties of putting high art, woman's sphere, the Cooking-School, and "Studies at Home" all into one story, besides the soul-perplexities of the clergyman and a proper amount of satire upon his feminine admirers. Left to themselves in a lonely farm-house on Cape Cod, what could these two do but fall in love? And a very pretty idyl it might have made but for the necessity for a plot. A most dreadful one it turns out to be, and the prudent reader will close the book when Mrs. Van Cortlandt, the superlatively handsome widow, enters "to play a Satanic game"; for the last that is seen of the heroine she is drowning herself, and the last that is heard of her the wedding-cards are just out, and there is not even the poor satisfaction of knowing how the reverend idol justified his foolish and cruel mistrust. Such a tale had best be left to the dime novelists, who at least understand their trade. The boldest would not venture such an impossibility as a young girl's going without detection from New York to New Orleans in man's attire, with wig, false moustache, and seven-shooter, besides the trifling addition of a young wife.

In profound and beautiful contrast is Mr. Lathrop's 'An Echo of Passion,' in which a woman who might have played this same wicked part resists temptation, though sorely tempted in herself, and becomes the higher and better conscience to the man who loves her, and who is loved by her, though both in spite of herself. The book would be more telling if it were written more simply and heartily. It is weakened by a kind of refining which produces not so much refinement as thinness.

'Rocky Fork,' a book with very attractive illustrations, tells the story of a few summer days in a little neighborhood of farmhouses of central Ohio long ago. The children are the central figures, but there is a due background of older people. Though the book has not the exquisite artistic finish which made the little 'Hector' the unique book of last winter, it has the same simplicity and sweet homeliness. Very rarely has plain, rough country life been so faithfully described. It seems usually impossible to do it without a tinge of vulgarity, which is just what true American country-life escapes. Some fine fibre in American nature, when close to fields and woods and sky, keeps it always noble, however rude the exterior. If there is a hint toward the end of the book, that refined manners are of their nature insincere, it is evidently a tribute to some supposed prejudice of the sort, not out of the writer's own conviction. Her people are all graciously attractive—the schoolmaster, with "sweet severe face under iron-gray hair"; Lisa, the guardian of the doctor's motherless children ("comely and important, she was a woman with a wholesome soul, and they all got on comfortably"); and the great-aunt from the far-off Sharon, to the children "a rose-leaf lady." "She inclined her cheek toward the bashful eager little face, and Bluebell felt as if she had kissed a white hollyhock's yielding petal." It is useless to try to transplant the children. They must be known in their own woods and meadows. Theirs was a blessed world of happy "make-believes" when simple pleasures yet had charms. One bit will give the delicate tone in which all this picture of primitive life is shaded. A child of nine is waiting at the bars for the cows:

"She had called them from the other side of the run, with long intonations: 'Su-kee! Pi-dey! Ro-see! Suu-kee!' Pidey's bell had tinkled accompaniment, recording their progress on the way. Now it dingled down the opposite hill with such a clamor that Bluebell could fancy the knock-kneed trot of both cows; and now it thumped as they plunged into the run; then it wandered along, pausing over some very sweet

bunch of grass, jerking at a mouthful of sweetbriar, and finally coming to the bars in perfect marching time: 'te-ding, te-ding, te-ding, a-ding, ding.' Bluebell had never heard an organ or an orchestra. She thought that cow-bell in the dim landscape, with echoes coming back from the hills, the most softening music in the world. The sound brought with it a smell of roses, of grass after rain, and clover."

'The Rival Heirs' were Saxon and Norman in the years between the battle of Hastings and the return from the first crusade. It is a tale for the elders in the school-room, and for the purity and smoothness of its style it may be commended to such of them as can stand the horror of the deeds of a brutal time. The bare outlines which the chronicles furnish have been filled in with details almost too real, some of them, in their cruelty. The author follows scrupulously the lead of such writers as Freeman, and perhaps it is his very painstaking which deprives his work of the fascination of books confessedly far less accurate. The great historical novel, like the law, *de minimis non curat*, while it shares with the legend that strange quality of being truer than the truth.

The firm of Henri Meilhac & Ludovic Halévy, makers of plays, has finally dissolved, and the junior partner has given up the stage. He intends to devote himself to prose fiction, believing that the time is at hand when the French novelist will be as well remunerated and as highly honored as the French dramatist. M. Halévy has long been known as a writer of sketches and short stories of astonishing point and humor. Gathered into three volumes—'Madame et Monsieur Cardinal,' 'Les Petites Cardinal,' and 'Un Mariage d'Amour'—they have already been sold to the extent of more than fifty thousand copies in all. M. Halévy's first novel had above twenty editions—a success remarkable enough anywhere, and doubly so in France, where a sale of five thousand has been known only at long intervals until very recently. All American readers of 'L'Abbé Constantin' will incline to believe that this success is well deserved, for it is due to the charming portraits of two American girls. M. Halévy has joined the group of the international novelists, and, although perhaps he never heard of Mr. Howells or of Mr. James, he is walking in their footsteps and working with their tools. One of the authors of that personification of feminine Parisianism, Froufrou, has now attempted to draw a cousin of Lydia Blood and Daisy Miller. Strange to say, the attempt is a complete success. Mrs. Scott and her sister, Miss Bettina Percival, are true Americans—and they are true ladies. It is perhaps a tribute to the purity of the American character that the story in which these ladies play the principal part is not only altogether delightful, but as innocent as it is interesting. The creator of Madame Cardinal has in 'L'Abbé Constantin' written the healthiest and most wholesome French novel since M. About's 'Roman d'un Brave Homme.'

The three books last on our list are all stories of Germany, though but two are translations. 'From Hand to Hand' begins, as a certain class of German novelists like to do, with the marriage of the hero and heroine. She is a child, and the scene is beside the death-bed of her father. The joys and griefs of three generations are inwoven in the plot, and all sorts of complications follow the marriage, under the malign influence of the widowed sister-in-law of the hero. The book tires, like music when some notes, though not exactly discordant or false, are too loud. 'Lottie of the Mill' is a fair example of another specific type of German novel. The impoverished nobleman seeks to restore the fallen fortune of his house by the marriage of his son to the daughter of the rich paper-maker. Both these translations are well enough done to encourage the hope that we are at last coming to really good work in this difficult line. "Gems of culture," however, is a mixed metaphor that is neither good English nor good German. 'Castle and Town' elaborates the same theme, but in a finer strain. The two books are like the same melody arranged by different hands. The latter, within its modest limits, is singularly well sustained and harmonious. There is a Nuremberg episode, which, without delaying the action of the story, sets before the reader all the charm of that "quaint old town of art and song."

FISHER'S PHYSICS OF THE EARTH'S CRUST.

Physics of the Earth's Crust. By Rev. Osmond Fisher, M.A., F.G.S., etc. Macmillan & Co. 1881.

THE earth is certainly a hot body, which is slowly cooling and shrinking. This process has been going on since a time at which the surface was in a state of fusion, and there is no reason to suppose that it will not continue indefinitely. Most of the physical influences which have determined the character of past geological ages were dependent upon this general fact, and so too will be the future of the globe and of its inhabitants. It is conceivable that the earth may be solid throughout, or that it may be a melted globe surrounded by a solid shell, the "crust of the earth"; or that it may be solid at the surface and at the centre, with a fluid stratum between. For the correct reading of the past and the future, it is exceedingly important to know which of these suppositions is the true one; to which of these conditions we must ascribe the distribution of land and sea, the upheaval of mountain ranges, earthquakes, volcanoes, the score of complete changes in animal and vegetable life which have left their traces in the sedimentary rocks, and many other striking features in the history of the globe.

The problem of the condition of the earth's interior can be approached in two ways: we may inquire what subterranean conditions are compatible with the surface phenomena, or study the behavior of the globe to other bodies, especially to the moon and sun. As long as the latter method was neglected it was believed that only the supposition of a solid crust floating upon a melted globe could account for volcanoes and allied evidences of high temperatures, and of the presence of melted matter at considerable depths. Hopkins was the first to argue, some forty years ago, from astronomical grounds, that the earth showed a rigidity incompatible with an essentially fluid condition. Of late years Sir William Thomson has resumed the subject from a similar, but somewhat different, standpoint; and still more recently, Mr. G. H. Darwin has discussed it by ingenious methods of his own. The latter gentlemen have indeed shown that a portion of Hopkins's arguments were illusory, but they confirm one another fully in pronouncing the globe a rigid body still more emphatically than Hopkins. Were the interior of the earth fluid, but its crust three hundred miles thick, and made of continuous steel, the surface would still, according to Sir William Thomson, yield so freely to the deforming influence of sun and moon that it would carry the waters of the ocean up and down with it, and there would be no sensible tidal rise and fall of water relatively to land. The external layer or crust of the earth is therefore sensibly rigid. The phenomena of nutation, however, prove that the earth is not a rigid shell filled with liquid, nor is such a shell physically possible. The earth can, therefore, possess such a rigidity as it exhibits only because it is solid from the surface downward to a depth so great that it cannot be regarded as a shell filled with liquid; or, in other words, the fluid interior, if there is one, must be an insignificant portion of the whole globe, and lie at a vast distance from the surface.

This seems a strange conclusion when it is considered that there are now hundreds of active volcanoes, and that the areas of land are few and small which do not show that great masses of eruptive rocks have poured over them in past ages. Then, too, as the thermometer rises one degree Fahrenheit for every fifty or sixty feet of depth below the surface of the earth, a temperature must be reached within a hundred miles at least equal to that of melted lava. But the pressure also increases with the distance from the surface, and the temperature necessary to fusion increases with the pressure; so that, as Hopkins pointed out, the interior of the earth may be solid in spite of being heated much above the point at which the same material would melt were the pressure no higher than at the surface. In spite of the imposing character of volcanic eruptions, they may be fed from accumulations of melted matter insignificant compared with the size of the earth; and it may be that lava, though intensely heated, only becomes liquid through some local and temporary relief of pressure. It is in virtue of an analogous relation that superheated water flashes into steam when a boiler bursts and the pressure is relieved. There are still other phenomena, such as the crumpling of strata attended by horizontal movement, which might be explained on the supposition of a fluid interior; but there are few phenomena in nature which, taken singly, are susceptible of but one explanation, and these are not of that character.

Geologists have been very reluctant to abandon the theory of a fluid interior, and the Rev. O. Fisher maintains that it is necessary to suppose the surface of the earth a crust floating on a liquid substratum. Hopkins, Scrope, Hunt, and others, have held similar views, with some modification. The thickness of the solid crust Mr. Fisher places at twenty to thirty miles; the depth of the substratum he does not state, but indicates on page 132 that it must be at least something like twenty miles. Mr. Fisher quotes Sir William Thomson's arguments as to the rigidity of the earth at some length; but he thinks that the tides in the fluid substratum "would not be of the nature of the tides contemplated by Sir William Thomson, as affecting the entire spheroid, but more nearly analogous to the ocean tides." Mr. Fisher thus allows that there must be tides of some sort in the substratum, and such tides must evidently be waves, following the moon like the oceanic tidal-wave. It would seem that the crust floating upon it must yield flexibly to such a subterranean tide, or else be fractured. Nothing that is known of the nature of the earth's crust indicates that it could yield flexibly to a stress of such short duration in any given direction as that due to the moon, and, if it did so, it is more than probable that evidences of the fluctuations of the crust would already have been perceived. None such, however, have ever been detected. If, on the other hand, the crust behaved as a brittle shell, the passage of the subterranean tide would be marked by phenomena similar to those observed in the great oceanic ice-sheets of the arctic regions. Fissures would form at short distances, and these fractures, and the minute dislocations which would accompany them and would recur at every tide, would keep every portion of the earth's surface in a nearly continuous tremor.

The retention of the supposed solid nucleus in its central position, too, as well as the behavior of the crust, requires explanation. None of

these points are discussed, or even mentioned, by Mr. Fisher, who, having presented Sir William Thomson's views, contents himself with showing that it is possible for solid lavas to float upon liquid ones, and that Hopkins regarded a fluid substratum as a physical possibility. He therefore draws the conclusion that a fluid substratum may now exist. In a later chapter he shows that certain phenomena of the upheaval of mountain ranges might be conveniently explained by the supposition of a fluid substratum, and this leads him to pronounce his hypothesis necessary as well as possible. This reasoning is in the highest degree unsatisfactory. Mr. Fisher appears to suppose that, by assuming the solid nucleus to reach within, say, forty miles of the surface, he satisfies the astronomical conditions. But this is far from being the case. The earth manifests its rigidity by the behavior of its surface, and, regarded from that surface, it is a rigid body. If any one were to maintain that the earth is fluid for a few miles from its centre, astronomers might have little to say against the hypothesis, though physicists would object. Just so the surface of a solid ball, say of steel, might behave toward external forces sensibly like that of a second similar ball with a small fluid cavity at its centre, but assuredly not like a body consisting of a thin envelope enclosing a fluid in which a large solid nucleus was held in suspension. This, however, appears to be Mr. Fisher's supposition; but to establish satisfactorily the existence of a fluid substratum, it would be necessary to show that Hopkins, Thomson, and Darwin are fundamentally in error in their arguments as to the action of tides and the conditions of nutation.

In order to obtain a "datum level" from which to measure the upheaval and subsidence of tracts of the earth's surface, Mr. Fisher resorts to a very ingenious expedient. He believes the surface of the earth to have been without elevations or depressions when the crust first solidified; and he argues further that, had the crust been perfectly compressible horizontally, it would have remained smooth during contraction. The position which the surface of such a crust would have occupied forms a very excellent and natural level from which to measure elevations and depressions. If the earth had been a solid body through geological time, this datum level must nearly correspond with the lowest depths of the ocean, and all variations from it must be elevations; while, if the crust rests on a fluid substratum, a portion of the present inequalities are to be regarded as depressions below the datum level. Taking probable values for the contraction of cooling rocks, Mr. Fisher shows that the amount of shrinking which could be supposed to have occurred if the earth were solid is greatly insufficient to account for the elevations which actually exist.

This ingenious argument, however, will scarcely bear examination; for, in spite of Mr. Fisher's assertion that no evidence can be adduced which is opposed to the supposition that the crust was without inequalities when it first solidified, such a supposition will appear to many in the highest degree unlikely. The earth is unquestionably a mass of heterogeneous materials of greatly differing densities. While the globe was still in a highly fluid state, an approximate separation into concentric layers, arranged according to their specific gravity, no doubt occurred; but as the temperature of solidification was approached, other physical properties of the constituents must have come into play. Some substances become viscid at much higher temperatures than others, and there is a great difference in the melting-points of various rocks. Layers of equal density must therefore have been far from uniform in their mobility. As long ago as 1879, Mr. G. H. Darwin showed ('Philosophical Transactions,' p. 589) that while the earth was still somewhat viscous and not perfectly homogeneous, the attraction of the moon must have induced wrinkles on its surface, of a form suggesting the present continental areas; and he strongly inclines to the opinion that the distribution of land and water, both on the earth and Mars, is attributable to this cause. Though the tops of the highest mountains are some ten miles above the lowest sea-bottoms, the elevations and depressions of the earth's surface bear, after all, a very small relation to the size of the globe—a relation which has been aptly illustrated by comparison with the slightly uneven surface of an orange. That variations of form of this order should have occurred on the surface of the globe at solidification, does not seem *à priori* improbable, even without regard to Mr. Darwin's argument, and observations have been made which tend to confirm such a view historically. The regions underlying continents are certainly less dense than those beneath the ocean, and there must have been a similar difference as long as oceans and continents have coexisted. There are also strong geological grounds for believing that continental areas have always been confined to the same regions of the globe as at present, and though this does not necessarily imply that the inequalities were pristine, it at least lends such a supposition considerable probability. In short, the hypothesis of an originally smooth globe requires stringent proof, while Mr. Fisher assumes it as self-evident.

Many topics of dynamical geology are discussed in 'Physics of the Earth's Crust,' for the most part by mathematical methods. Some of the discussions show great ingenuity, but the conclusions are all more or less affected by the exceedingly questionable assumptions of a fluid substratum and an originally smooth surface. Mathematical reasoning is, indeed, the most precise form of logic; but, in dealing with physical questions, the premises cannot be mathematically established, and unless the data of a physical argument can be so proved and tested, by observation or otherwise, that they may fairly be considered as demonstrated, mathematical reasoning from them is not only tediously elaborate, but altogether illusory.

The Naval War of 1812; or, The History of the United States Navy during the last war with Great Britain. By Theodore Roosevelt. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

The War of 1812 was the golden age of naval fighting. In it "the art of handling and fighting the old broadside sailing-frigate in single conflict was brought" by our little Navy "to the highest point of perfection ever reached." The English nation had achieved a supremacy of the sea which has never been equalled before or since. The European wars had thrown a large part of the carrying trade of the world into American vessels, and built up a great mercantile marine. Such a marine is the best foundation for a naval one. In this case our Navy was fostered by the principal *casus belli*—the impressment of Americans into the English Navy. The result was a contest between men of the same race—the most web-footed in the world—trained in the same school, in similar ships, with similar weapons, and under officers of similar experience and skill. The scenes presented were most dramatic, and singularly fitted to affect the imagination. They furnished some of its best material to the vigorous and vivid genius of Cooper, and will live longer in his novels than in his more serious narrative.

The difficulty of reconciling reports and fixing figures relating to our last war takes away from our surprise at the same perplexities in events of seventy years ago. The passions smouldering since the Revolution then burst out afresh, and our brilliant and unexpected success made them more outspoken on both sides. One result seems to have been exaggerations and misstatements, sometimes honest and sometimes not, by both parties. In this mendacity the Americans must yield the palm. Their case is principally known from Cooper's history. His genius for romance was too famous for his statements to be received literally. The English account is mainly given by Brenton and James. To the latter Mr. Roosevelt addresses himself with a thoroughness of preparation and knowledge like that he praises in his naval heroes. While giving full credit to his ability and research, he proves him, in more than one instance, not only to have made false statements, but to have done so intentionally.

One prominent object of this book is the investigation and correction of such errors. A complete account of the naval events of the war is given, and their merits considered. The impartiality of the author's judgments and the thoroughness with which the evidence is sifted are remarkable and worthy of high praise. Log-books are consulted to show attention to drill; muster-rolls for numbers of combatants; contracts for descriptions of vessels; reports, and in their absence official letters of commanders, for evidence on disputed points; and the fullest use is made of original records to check collated published accounts. The descriptions of engagements are clear, sober, and in good taste, and from their matter often thrilling. The effect is never injured by fine writing, and there is no attempt at the personal element appropriate to participants or to the writers of fiction.

Great attention is paid to determining the relative force of combatants, and the methods generally must command assent. Some of the assumptions, however, would certainly seem violent if carried to extremes. The subject involves the consideration of numbers of crews and guns as well as the calibre and range of the latter. Some advantages, like speed and *ableness* in manœuvring of ships, discipline and courage of crews, skill and ability of officers, etc., hardly admit of being expressed in numbers. Some peculiarities may be of great value under some circumstances, and of none under others. The *Adams*, for instance, is said by tradition to have been fastest on one tack, and to have once owed her escape from pursuit to getting on this in the night. Some ships are relatively faster going free, and others on the wind. It is manifestly impossible to make a just allowance for every advantage. If it were possible, the rectified, computed result of every action would be a drawn game, with no superiority to either side. When so many considerations must be excluded it may be questioned whether it is desirable to attempt any comparison between the relative value of long and short-range guns of the same calibre. Such a relation may perhaps be satisfactory for a particular case, but no more admits of a general statement than the relative force of a blow and a pressure. If the vessel with the longer range can choose and keep her position, her antagonist can inflict no injury on her, and one gun is better than a thousand of shorter range. This was the case in the defence of the *Essex* against the *Phœbe*—the most desperate in the war. At short range the two classes of guns would be nearly equal. It is hardly satisfactory, therefore, to assume in any case, as Mr. Roosevelt does (though, it must be allowed, with cautious qualification), that one long-range gun is equivalent to two carronades. The assumption may help to illustrate a conclusion already reached, but it cannot add much to its

conviction. In the same way, and for much the same reason, the tacit assumption that the damage inflicted should bear some proportion to the force is fallacious. If the *Phœbe* had carried fewer guns, but their range had enabled her to keep entirely out of reach of the *Essex*, the damage she inflicted might conceivably have been no less. It might have been longer in inflicting.

These battles belong to a past era as truly as the sea-fights at Sphacteria and Salamis. But whatever new modes of destruction science may introduce, so long as the race of man survives, no higher exhibition of manhood can be made than the decks of these little frigates witnessed. The true and just descripton of them, freed from distortion and falsehood, must always be gratifying and stimulating to patriotic pride. But more than this, it teaches clearly and emphatically, and with an ominous warning, the essential conditions, slow of growth but indispensable, on which naval supremacy in all ages depends, and without which it is hopeless. The best ships of their class and time, with the best machinery and all material preparation; the best drilled and disciplined crews, taken from an apprenticeship in a flourishing mercantile marine; and the most experienced, accomplished, and able commanders, are the requisites. With these in perfection a navy inconsiderable in size made itself dreaded and famous. Without these the more numerous a navy the more it invites disaster.

Victor Hugo and His Time. By Alfred Barbou. Translated from the French by Ellen E. Frewer. Harper & Bros. 1882. 8vo, pp. 275.

M. BARBOU is a high-priest of the Hugo cult. He tells the tale of his hero's career with unflagging eulogy. In his youth Hugo was a "sublime infant," in his manhood he was a marvel, in his old age he is a wonder. The bare facts of Hugo's life are given here with sufficient accuracy, but M. Barbou is plainly lacking in the critical faculty. In his eyes, any one who praises, or has praised, Hugo is a distinguished writer of sound views; while any one who has detected any of Hugo's colossal defects is either foolish or knavish. We pass by Gustave Planche, but the author's treatment of Sainte-Beuve (see pp. 111 and 134) is inexcusable, and only atoned for by his unlucky quotation of a remark of Sainte-Beuve's made in 1835, to the effect that Hugo's "egotism was unbounded," and that he "recognized no existence outside of his own."

In its present form, this is an enlarged and copiously illustrated edition of an earlier and simpler biography of Hugo published three or four years ago. An American translation of the original book was issued in Chicago a year ago. The present translation is by an English lady, and is very bad indeed. It is dull and heavy, to begin with, and then it is inaccurate. "Éditeur" is rendered "editor" (p. 68) instead of "publisher"; and "couplets" is transliterated as "couplets" (p. 214) instead of "songs," etc. "Féerie" is turned into "pantomime" (p. 119), and we are told that among Hugo's unpublished dramatic MSS. is "a pantomime, 'La Forêt Mouillée,' in which trees and flowers are made to talk"—surely an odd thing for a pantomime. The illustrations are of very varying value. Some, like the drawing of Cromwell on horseback at the head of his troopers (p. 83), not only depict no scene in M. Barbou's book, but have a very remote connection with any work of Hugo's. Others, like the views of the different houses Hugo has lived in, are more appropriate and useful, although the printing is so cold and harsh that even when the woodcuts are good in themselves they fail to please. Quite the most interesting feature of the book is the number of engravings of Victor Hugo's own drawings, from the chicken in the eggshell, which typifies the "nonsense I wrote before I was born," to the dark and striking profile of a "Castle on the Rhine," signed in bold letters almost as tall as the towers of the castle, and dated 1866. To Americans, perhaps, the most curious sketch is the shadowy scaffold and the hanging figure of John Brown, athwart which fall a few rays of the coming dawn.

Chambers's Etymological Dictionary of the English Language. A new and thoroughly revised edition. Edited by Andrew Findlater, M.A., LL.D. London and Edinburgh: W. & R. Chambers. 1882.

HAVING delivered himself on English science, as being amply sufficient in itself, Dr. Johnson proceeded to pronounce that "the more airy and elegant studies of philology and criticism have little need of any foreign help." And he also satisfied himself that "we know nothing of the scanty jargon of our barbarous ancestors." If, then, between his easily avoidable ignorance of Anglo-Saxon—ignorance going so far as to describe its unknown subject-matter as a "scanty jargon"—and his limited conception and frivolous estimate of philology, his Dictionary, in its etymological department, is seen to be a miserable failure, such a result is only what was to be expected. But his were days when philology was as yet in its stammering infancy. Of Anglo-Saxon, and equally of the numerous other languages from which our own is derived, we are now able to speak with a confidence which was impossible in any past age. Indeed, English etymology has already matured into a science to which, considering its essential character, there adheres, on the whole, but very little uncertainty. To present, in a book that can comfortably be held in the hand, an English dictionary aiming at once to define and to etymologize, is an enterprise which has the merit of novelty. The convenient manual published by the Messrs. Chambers, while not pretending to original research, has laid under contribution many, and indeed most, of the latest and most accredited sources of relevant materials, and has utilized them with sound judgment. Here and there, to be sure, it leaves a blank which is readily supplied, as in the case of *cockroach*, metamorphosed, pretty certainly, from the Portuguese *caroucha*, "chafer." And it might have done better than repeat the absurdity, "*topsi' to'er way*, corr. of 'topside the other way,'" quoted by Mr. Wedgwood, and previously quoted by Dr. Richardson, in elucidation of *topsy-turvy*—an expression whose earliest discovered form, *toppe over terve*, or "top overthrown," helps us toward *top set turve*, as presumably the immediate predecessor of the corruption now in vogue. Among the miscellaneous contents of the serviceable appendix to the volume are a list of prefixes and suffixes, explanations of the names of places, words and phrases from Latin, Greek, etc., and many other particulars, in search of which one must ordinarily have recourse to such a quarto as Worcester's or Webster's.

Schiller und Goethe im Urtheile ihrer Zeitgenossen. Zeitungskritiken, Berichte und Notizen Schiller und Goethe und deren Werke betreffend, aus den Jahren 1773–1812, gesammelt und herausgegeben von Julius W. Braun. Erste Abtheilung. *Schiller.* Erster Band, 1781–1793. Zweiter Band, 1794–1800. Leipzig: Bernhard Schlicke; New York: L. W. Schmidt.

THIS laborious compilation, already briefly described by us on its arrival in this country, is the first of a series designed to include all contemporary German criticism of the writings of Schiller, Goethe, and Lessing. The first two volumes contain nearly three hundred notices of Schiller, and a third volume will be necessary to complete the references to his works. This is a valuable contribution to the literary history of the time. Of greater worth than the criticisms themselves, is the insight which is given into the condition of German thought and judgment at the close of the last century. The comparisons made with French and English authors serve to illustrate the popular estimate of the different writers of the time. The criticisms, which are faithfully reproduced in the original language and orthography, have been drawn from the multitude of journals and transient publications of the day. The files of long-forgotten newspapers in the great libraries of Germany have been carefully searched. As to the thoroughness with which this has been done, there can be no question. If we compare the list of notices of any single work with the most comprehensive bibliographies, like those of Gödeke and Wenzel, we find much that has not been previously mentioned.

The personal references to the life and character of Schiller are fewer than we should have wished: such as do occur are incidental in notices of his works. The criticisms which Schiller's earliest writings encountered, reveal the general condition of the public mind more clearly than any biographer has yet portrayed it. The present judgment of the "Robbers" would differ little from the estimate of the acutest contemporary criticism. Schiller's great merit was recognized from the first; at the same time, his unbridled license, his inflated style, his rudeness of expression and provincialisms in language, were clearly seen. The moral tendency of such writings, their effect upon public taste and reverence for law, were sharply questioned. In all these reviews the backwardness of German literature is frankly admitted and deplored. Germany is said to be two hundred years behind England in literary culture. The foreign, artificial character of the writings of the best German authors was frankly confessed. We observe, however, that Lessing's criticisms had begun to prevail in literary judgment, and that his dramatic works were seen to possess a natural and truly national character. It was many months after the publication of the "Robbers" before Schiller was generally known as the author. The influence of the play is shown by its immediate and universal popularity. In Swabia and Bavaria it was performed in booths, in the smallest country villages. Its effect upon the young was such that numerous bands of schoolboys organized for a career of robbery, murder, and incendiarism. The *Literatur- und Theater-Zeitung* of Berlin says, curiously, that during the performance of the "Robbers" in Leipzig, robbery in the theatre and in the city was so great that the magistrates privately forbade the repetition of the play.

The parts of this collection which have the greatest present interest are those which relate to Schiller's earliest and latest works. Those which contain the current criticisms of the successive numbers of the *Thalia*, and of Schiller's numerous translations, are of less importance. The general verdict of praise began with Schiller's historical works. His brilliant style and attractive generalizations, so different from the prevailing manner, won hearty admiration, and foreign recognition increased his popularity at home. Of the many reviews, those written by Schlegel and Wieland, as well as some whose authorship can no longer be traced, have a permanent value. On the publication of the "Xenien" in the *Musenalmanach* for 1797

Schiller's name was joined in public notice with that of Goethe. The memorable controversy which resulted from this attack upon the whole army of German scribblers and pedants is vividly recalled in these pages. The work contains not only criticisms of the "Xenien," but reviews of the "Anti-Xenien" as well. Many new facts regarding this contest are revealed. While the presentation of all existing criticisms has been made with the greatest care, occasionally a more extended knowledge on the part of the editor would have increased the value of his work.

The source of each article is given when its contents clearly reveal the authorship, or when investigation has succeeded in determining it. The chronological arrangement is followed throughout the book, all reviews being grouped under the date of their appearance. Hence notices of the same work are often separated by several years. "Fiesco" was reviewed upon its publication in 1783, and was noticed at intervals until 1788. A considerable part of the first volume is taken up with notices of the representations of Schiller's plays upon the stage. Many of these have little value, but are perhaps necessary to afford a complete view of the reception of his works. The insertion of the article upon the execution of the Abbé Frick at Strassburg is scarcely justifiable, as it has nothing to do with Schiller, while that upon the condition of the German stage in 1789, from the Weimar *Journal des Luxus und der Moden*, is an interesting contribution to our knowledge of the dramatic art and actors of the time. The signature to the articles from the *Kosmopolit* should be "H. K—t, in H." An alphabetical index, with the sources of each review, would be a useful addition to the work.

Sache, Leben, und Feinde. Von Dr. E. Dühring. Leipzig. 1882. Pp. 434.

THIS is announced as the author's chief work, and key to all his writings. It is accompanied by a portrait and autograph, is essentially autobiographical, and contains indications that the blind author of the 'Philosophy of Reality' is taking final leave of his public at the early age of forty-eight. After a long course at the University, where he devoted himself to jurisprudence, national economy, philosophy, physics, and mathematics, Dühring began to lecture as *Docent* in Berlin in 1863. His literary productivity was great, and his 'Critical History of the General Principles of Mechanics,' his best work, published anonymously, obtained the first prize, with extremely flattering characterizations, from the University of Göttingen. Meanwhile, lack of funds, failing eyesight, want of recognition, and especially of promotion, and the democratic drift of his morbidly accented personality, gradually embittered his temper, until at last the authorities of the University deemed it advisable to depose him, after he had served for the very long period of fourteen years as *Privat-Docent*. Disparagement of Helmholtz was made the special occasion of this action. Hundreds of students petitioned, not only in Berlin, but in other universities, that he might be allowed to remain; mass meetings were held, and circulars distributed, and petitions signed; but all in vain. Since then, and especially in this volume, Dühring has dipped his pen in gall. In the autobiography his teachers in the University are denounced by name as "grossly ignorant," "intriguing," jealous, plagiarizing, etc.; his physicians are coarse and undiscriminating, his colleagues in the faculty are plotting against him, friends are false, and enemies bitter and unwearied.

In the autumn of 1879, Dühring found in his morning papers a notice of his own death, which, he says, he held it undignified to refute; so that during the next few weeks, while quite well and seeing his friends as usual, he read a score or two of necrological notices, most of which were of no very flattering nature. His enemies assert that he gave occasion to the report himself, in order to aid the sale of his books by notoriety, and perhaps to find out his true friends. Congressman Kelley, prevented by false reports of illness and absence from Berlin from visiting him, printed these reports in the Philadelphia *Times* during the summer of the same year, where they were later denied by Dühring with great vigor. The latter, not long after, received $1,000, bequeathed him by Carey, whose disciple he had long professed himself. Through one of his agents, Bismarck requested Dühring to prepare a treatise in answer to the question, what the Government should do for workingmen. Two years afterward this treatise, which the Government did not formally notice, was published as the production of the agent. Dühring's polemic against the Jews and Social-Democrats has been quite as bitter as against the professors, and, finally, his religious opinions are not unlike those of Feuerbach; so that his enemies are as those of Ishmael, while his tongue is the tongue of Thersites.

He has certainly pointed out, though with vast exaggerations, real defects in the present organization of university life and society. If he should really come to America, as he once told the writer he intended when he had silenced the guns of all his enemies, we can hardly think, handicapped as he is with morbid egotism and the most radical positivism, that he would improve upon his present condition, which he here details with such painful fulness.

Our Ride Through Asia Minor. By Mrs. Scott-Stevenson. With map. London: Chapman & Hall. 8vo. Pp. xix.-400.

ONCE more we have the picture of the desolation wrought by Turkish misrule which all recent travellers in the unhappy lands still subject to the Porte have drawn. The few remaining forests are fast disappearing under the torch of the incendiary. Fruit trees are cut down in mere wantonness by Circassians, the scourge of the land. Roads, even between important cities, are so neglected as to be almost impassable for beasts of burden. The people, stricken with frequently recurring famines, are fast disappearing, deserted villages and towns in ruins being the incidents of every day's journey. Eastern Asia Minor, at least, is becoming an uninhabitable wilderness, chiefly because of the hopeless "weakness and corruption" of the Government. Mrs. Scott-Stevenson's testimony on this point is the more trustworthy since she and her husband are Jingoes of the extremest type, and lose no opportunity of lauding the "poor, down-trodden Turk, abused and robbed by every one," and denouncing "that incarnation of organized hypocrisy and injustice, of brute force and cruelty—the Russian Government and the Russian people." Her husband, an English Army officer holding an official position in Cyprus, puts these two questions to "every man who applies to him for enlistment—first, if he was willing to serve the Queen? . . . then if he was ready to fight the Russians?" It is hardly necessary to add that our author has a most cordial dislike for the Christian population of the country through which she travelled, attributing to them every mean and evil quality, while the missionaries seem to be doing more harm than good. The devotion of lives spent in the endeavor to lift a little of their burden of misery from this wretched people, and latterly in strenuous efforts to rescue them from starvation, goes for nothing in her eyes since they have fearlessly exposed the barbarities of Turkish rulers. Perhaps it is to emphasize her distrust of them and her contempt for "our fellow-Christians" that she always spells Bible with a little b.

The first part of her ride, taken in the spring of 1880, was over familiar ground, and it is only when the mountain range separating Northern Syria from Asia Minor is crossed, and Tarsus is reached, that we feel any interest in it. From this place her route lay directly through the famous Cilician gates. In the narrowest part "the pass can hardly be more than twenty-four feet wide. The rock had evidently been cut through, for in many places one can easily trace the marks of the mason's chisel and hammer." Kaisariyeh, "the filthiest and most ruined city we had yet entered," and yet rich and prosperous as compared with most of the towns of Armenia, was the northernmost limit of her journey. Much more interesting was Urgub, with its numerous cave houses, formerly the abode of early Christian anchorites. They are very numerous, and in many cases have no visible means of approach, "being cut in galleries along the face of the rock, from two to three hundred feet above the ground." The most attractive part of the journey, however, proved to be the visit to Koniah, the ancient Iconium. Here is the church and college of the Mevlevi dervishes, "the richest and most powerful sect in Turkey." The floor of the dancing chamber

"was of polished oak, and overhead hung a network of silver wires, on which were fastened thousands of glass lamps of every conceivable shape, form, and color. The effect was most beautiful. There were gems of Venetian work among them that collectors would willingly give thousands of pounds for. I have never seen such a variety. Delicate glasses from Venice so thin that one was almost afraid to breathe near them: some with coats-of-arms and designs engraved on them so minutely that it required a magnifying-glass to make them out; some with stems, others with handles, a few with lips or flowers—every color was represented, and the value of the collection must be enormous. I saw Bohemian glass in ruby color and deep blue; opaque Persian glasses and iridescent vases that had been exhumed from some ancient tombs."

Mrs. Scott-Stevenson gives a very animated account of a performance of the whirling dervishes, which was extemporized for her benefit in the kitchen of the monastery. Very graphic, too, are her pictures of the scenes in her night ride over the Taurus, and of the lovely valleys lying between the mountains and the sea. At a little fishing-port her ride ended. Her book gives a fairly trustworthy and readable description of a country but little visited. It is marred, however, at times by a lack of womanly reserve, and by a certain childish petulance which she evidently mistakes for vivacity.

The Young Nimrods Around the World. By Thomas W. Knox. Illustrated. Harper & Bros.

COLONEL KNOX carries his military training into the composition of his books. Though dashing, bold, and brilliant, he rigidly adheres to the well-known maxims of the art of war. He secures a base of supplies, collects ample *matériel*, and, when he has his troops well drilled, showily clothed, and armed with the most improved weapons, enters upon a campaign whose only limits are those of the globe itself. In his latest enterprise, 'The Young Nimrods,' he plainly shows that time has in no way quenched within him the ardor of the warrior. In command of his gallant little army, he captures the mines of the West, whence he advances upon San Francisco. This city falls an

easy prey to his dashing assault. Here he transforms his troops into horse marines, and takes possession of a ship of war, the *Albatross*. This vessel is one of the extraordinary craft of which our Navy is composed; for to-day, on board of her, he is at the North Pole, to-morrow in Africa, and with equal celerity in South America and Asia, stopping between times to explore the bottom of the sea, or touching *en passant* at New York to describe the life on board the nautical school-ship *St. Mary's*. Sated with victory and success, the Colonel ultimately disbands his army of veterans and seeks retirement wherein to develop plans—possibly for an expedition to the moon.

The confidence of Colonel Knox has been somewhat abused by the topographical engineer attached to the expedition. For example, at page 92, what purports to be a view of the "principal street of Realejo" is in fact the "Calle Real Leon," at least thirty miles from Realejo; at page 230, "shore of the Bay of Fonseca" is a view down the coast near Realejo. There are several cases of this kind. Summary punishment should be inflicted upon this officer. The Colonel might with advantage exercise a closer supervision over his adjutant-general. Evidently this functionary writes up the reports while his chief is snatching a few minutes of much-needed rest. He avails himself of this opportunity to pad the Colonel's [illegible] experiences related by other writers. [illegible] and astute military man is sometimes be[illegible] by unworthy members of his staff, and Colonel Knox should look to it that no question should arise impugning his veracity—a point upon which a soldier is peculiarly sensitive. 'The Young Nimrods Around the World,' notwithstanding the shortcomings of these two subordinates, contains a great store of valuable information, given in an agreeable way, and graphically aided by a large number of illustrations, many of which possess uncommon merit.

C F Bickford 626 26583

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aschenbroedel. [No-Name Series.] Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Butcher, S. H. Demosthenes. D. Appleton & Co. 50 c.
Caine, T. H. Sonnets of Three Centuries. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Carruth.
Chambers, W. Story of a Long and Busy Life. R. Worthington. 50 cents.
Cox, S. S. From Pole to Pyramid. Part 2. Orient Sunbeams. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Criswell, R. W. The New Shakspeare, and Other Tragedies. American News Co.
Cross, J. Knight-Banneret. Thomas Whittaker. $1 50.
Dahlgren, Madeleine V. South Mountain Magic. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Darby, J. Brushland. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.
De Kay, C. The Vision of Esther. D. Appleton & Co.
Dicey, E. Victor Emanuel. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Drew, B. Hints and Helps to those who Write, Print, or Read. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Duffield, G. and S. The Burial of the Dead. Funk & Wagnalls.
Ebers, Prof. G. Egypt. Parts 28-31. New York: Cassell & Co. 75 cents each.
Essays from the *Critic*. Boston: J. R, Osgood & Co.
Ewald, A. C. Stories from the State Papers. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Faiths of the World. St. Giles' Lectures. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Feiker, P. H. Letters to a Young Merchant. St. Louis: Grocer Publishing Co.
Flitters, Tatters, and the Counsellor. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Fuller, H. W. Impostors and Adventurers. Boston: Soule & Bugbee.
Fuller, E. Forever and a Day: a Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 50.
Geikie, C. Hours with the Bible. Vol. iv. From Rehoboam to Hezekiah. James Pott.
Goethe's Werke. Illustrirt von ersten deutschen Künstlern. Part 1. B. Westermann & Co.
Gréville, H. Tania's Peril. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 50 cents.
Harte, Bret. Gabriel Conroy. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Hebart, C. The New Testament Scriptures in the Order in which they were Written. The First Portion. Thomas Nelson & Sons. $1.
Hillyer, S. The Marable Family. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 50 cents.
Hodgson, W. B. Errors in the Use of English. D. Appleton & Co. $1 50.
Houghton, G. Niagara, and Other Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Household Economy: a Manual for Schools. Ivison, Blakeman & Co.
[illegible]ms, E. A Paladin of Finance: Contemporary Man[illegible]s. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Jo[illegible]nnot, J. A Geographical Reader. D. Appleton & Co.
Kenney, Minnie E. Gypsie. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 60 cents.
Kennedy, W. S. Henry W. Longfellow. Cambridge: Moses King. $1 50.
Lauck, H. J., and Clarke, H. D. Table of Cases Argued and Adjudged in the Supreme Court of the United St. 2 Dallas to 103 U. S. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Lewis, Dio. Gypsies; or, Why We Went Gypsying in the Sierras. M. L. Holbrook & Co.
Lippert, J. Christenthum, Volksglaube und Volksbrauch. B. Westermann & Co.
Long, J. Eastern Proverbs and Emblems. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.
Manton, W. P. Taxidermy Without a Teacher. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
McCarthy, J. The Epoch of Reform. 1830-1850. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Mombert, J. I. Life, Labors, and Times of the Ven. Dr. Johann Ebel. A. D. F. Randolph. $1 50.
Monell, G. C. The Creation and the Scripture the Revelation of God. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 50.
Morley, J. Three Volumes of the English Men of Letters: Milton, Pope, Cowper. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Morris, G. S. Kant's Critique of Pure Reason: a Critical Exposition. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1 25.
Nadal, E. S. Essays at Home and Elsewhere. Macmillan & Co. $1 50.
Nodal, J. H., and Milner, G. Glossary of the Lancashire Dialect. London: Trübner & Co.
Papers and Proceedings of the National Association for the Protection of the Insane. 1882. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Pfeiffer, Emily. Under the Aspens: Lyrical and Dramatic. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.
Pneuma-Baptism. Pulaski, Tenn.: Pneuma-Baptist Publishing Co.
Pollock, F. Essays in Jurisprudence and Ethics. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Randolph, Mrs. Wild Hyacinth: a Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 60 cents.
Ribot, T. Diseases of Memory. D. Appleton & Co. $1 50.
Roe, E. R. Brought to Bay. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Robinson, C. History of the High Court of Chancery and other Institutions of England. Vol. I. Richmond, Va.: J. W. Randolph & English; Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Rosenthal, L. America and France in the XVIIIth Century. Henry Holt & Co. $1 75.
Ryder, H. I. D. Catholic Controversy. The Catholic Publication Society Co.
Saturday Lectures, delivered at the U. S. National Museum, under the auspices of the Anthropological and Biological Societies of Washington, in March and April, 1882. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.
Sedarté, N. M. The Life of a Love in Songs and Sonnets. American News Co.
Shields, C. W. The Order of the Sciences. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Stanley, A. P. Sermons on Special Occasions. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Sturgis, J. Dick's Wandering. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 50.
Thalheimer, M. E. The Eclectic History of the United States. Cincinnati: Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.
The Desmond Hundred. [Round-Robin Series.] Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Theodora; or, Star by Star. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 50 cents.
Thomas, Annie. Our Set: a Collection of Stories. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Three in Norway. By Two of Them. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $1 75.
Twain, M. The Stolen White Elephant, etc. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Underwood, F. H. Henry Wadsworth Longfellow: A Biographical Sketch. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Von Holst, H. John C. Calhoun. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Von Schiefner, F. A. Tibetan Tales, derived from Indian Sources. Translated from the Tibetan of the Kah-Gyur. London: Trübner & Co.
Ware, L. S. Study of Various Sources of Sugar. Philadelphia: H. C. Baird & Co.
Yonge, Charlotte M. Unknown to History: a Story of the Captivity of Mary of Scotland. Macmillan & Co. $1 75.

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JOHN J. MURPHY, Cashier.

Dated April 30, 1882.

THE FIRST NATIONAL BANK OF MILWAUKEE,

No. 2,715,

Has been organized (and is in full operation) to take the place of the First National Bank of Milwaukee, No. 64, now in liquidation, as appears by the following

NOTICE:

The First National Bank of Milwaukee, located in Milwaukee, in the State of Wisconsin, is closing up its affairs. All note-holders and other creditors of said Association are therefore hereby notified to present the notes and other claims against the Association for payment.

Dated June 1, 1882. H. H. CAMP, Cashier.

NOTICE.—*No. 3.*—The First National Bank of Youngstown, located at Youngstown, in the State of Ohio, is closing up its affairs. All note-holders and other creditors of said Association are therefore hereby notified to present the notes and other claims against the Association for payment.

WM. H. BALDWIN, Cashier.

YOUNGSTOWN, O., May 15, 1882.

No. 2,693.—The above Bank, No. 3, goes into liquidation on account of the expiration of its charter. The First National Bank of Youngstown, Ohio, No. 2,693, with a capital of $500,000 and surplus of $150,000, has been organized, and begins business May 16, 1882.

WM. H. BALDWIN, Cashier.

YOUNGSTOWN, O., May 16, 1882.

BOOKS relating to America, its History, general and local, particularly the latter; Lives of Americans, obscure and illustrious, the former always preferred; Books throwing light, or claiming to throw light, on the misty origin and weird, romantic life of the Red Men—their ethnology, their tongues, their stone, metal, and earthen relics of past ages; Genealogy; Criminal Trials; The rude Rhymes illustrating the slow but sure growth of American Poetry; Narratives of Soldiers and Pioneers; and other odd, curious, and out-of-the-way things peculiar to America. These, with a willingness to sell them at fair prices, constitute the specialty of CHARLES L. WOODWARD, 78 Nassau Street, New York. Catalogues for whoever wants them.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 22, 1882.

The Week.

THE very remarkable audacity and coolness with which the Republican managers are going to work to collect assessments from the Government officers, in the teeth of the repeated declarations of the party platforms as to the officeholder's true position, and of unmistakable public reprobation of the practice, show that they count on impunity for the present at all events. They are evidently very confident that they have for the moment nothing to fear from Congress in the way of further prohibitory legislation, and they are willing, for the sake of the money, to risk being rebuked at the polls. This suggests the idea of some sort of compromise, at least for the present until the public has more fully made up its mind, between the promoters of this abuse, as we consider it, and the civil-service reformers. The theory of the spoilsmen, as we understand it, is, that the places in the public service belong in absolute possession to the party in power, to be used primarily for the benefit of the party, but with an obligation, in the nature of a lien, to use them also for the discharge of the public business, as efficiently as is consistent with proper attention to the party interests. It is this theory which justifies the demand that the officeholder shall pay back a portion of his salary toward helping to keep the party in power. He pays it as the rent, so to speak, of his office. It is at once an acknowledgment that the party owns the office, and that the officer's tenure of it depends on his serving the party. The amount proposed to be levied this year is two per cent., which, supposing it to reach all salaries, would bring about $400,000 into the party treasury. But, if the officeholders can afford to pay this, and are willing to pay it sooner than surrender their places, it shows that they are overpaid, and that the civil-service appropriation might be, and therefore ought to be, reduced by that amount. Every dollar paid by the Government more than it need pay to have its work properly done is a fraud on the taxpayer. Therefore, if it appears that an officer, whose salary is $1,000, can afford to give $20 to the Republican Committee for the privilege of keeping his place, his proper salary is $980, and so on all through the service.

This is the reformer's view of the matter. If, on the other hand, the party in power is entitled, as a matter of right, on "the American plan," to take two per cent. of the officeholder's salary, and the officeholder is bound to pay it as part of the legitimate cost of carrying on party government, why not do away with the whole machinery of assessment, and indeed with the very name of assessment? Why should the party Committee have to go every year through the cumbrous and expensive process of issuing circulars to the clerks, and sending agents through the public offices to collect the money? Nothing can be more destructive to discipline than the existing mode of collecting the assessments has become. It teaches the employee to feel that he has other and more powerful superiors than his official superior, and that he can make himself secure in his place, not by diligence and fidelity, but by the payment of a round sum annually to a political committee. What we propose is, therefore, that the right of the party in power to procure its campaign expenses from the United States Treasury should be recognized in legislation as "the American plan," openly and frankly, and that assessments on officeholders, by means of solicitation of any kind, should be absolutely prohibited, and that the Appropriation Bill should every year contain a sum equal to two or three per cent. on the total amount paid in salaries, which should be payable on proper Treasury warrants to the Campaign Committee, in each State, of the party in power at Washington. This would reconcile theory and practice, and put the whole matter on an open and manly basis. It would deliver the public officers from a potent cause of dishonesty and inefficiency, and distribute the tax now levied on one small class of the community over the whole community. The cost of "the American plan" ought to be paid equally by all Americans. Congress should, therefore, now vote $400,000 for the Republican campaign expenses this fall, and reduce the salaries of all officeholders by two per cent., and treat the levying of any money on officeholders hereafter for political purposes, by any person whatsoever, as extortion by threats and intimidation.

Secretary Chandler, at a complimentary dinner in Boston, expressed himself freely about the necessity of building some new vessels for the Navy; only a few, if there was no hope for many. There is no doubt that such an addition to our Navy is desirable, and yet the voices urging that money be appropriated for that purpose just now are very few. If Mr. Chandler wants to know the reason, let him look into the newspapers. As one of our morning contemporaries expresses it, "Congress is wise not to want to build a navy at present in view of the existing organization of those committees of the House which in a great measure would control the expenditures." This is a very edifying state of things. The people want an effective addition to the Navy, but they do not want Congress to make any appropriations for it as long as any committee in which Mr. Robeson has a potential voice will have a hand in controlling the spending of the money. This fact—for an undeniable fact it is—everybody appreciates except perhaps Mr. Robeson himself.

At last the Tariff Commission is completed. It consists of John L. Hayes, of Massachusetts; Henry W. Oliver, jr., of Pennsylvania; Austin M. Garland, of Illinois; Jacob Ambler, of Ohio; Robert P. Porter, of the District of Columbia; John W. H. Underwood, of Georgia; Duncan F. Kenner, of Louisiana; Alexander R. Boteler, of West Virginia; and William H. McMahon, of New York. There are among these gentlemen several who represent different protected industries, such as woollens, iron, sugar, etc. But there is not one among them who is known to have made the subject of tariff legislation in the larger sense a special study, and whose opinion will be accepted by the country as worth more than that of an advocate of some special interest—unless it be Mr. McMahon, who has been for some years a clerk in the New York Custom-house, and is thought to be familiar with the working of the tariff in a commercial point of view. The *Evening Post* prints a communication from a prominent merchant, expressing the liveliest gratitude for Mr. McMahon's appointment. The compliments paid to Mr. McMahon are undoubtedly deserved. But it is a significant circumstance that the appointment of a Custom-house clerk on a Commission of such importance should be looked upon as the one redeeming feature. It must be said for President Arthur that he offered places on the Commission to several business men of the highest respectability, who declined. Whatever reasons they may have given for doing so, the true one in most cases was undoubtedly that they disliked to be identified with so conspicuous an enterprise, evidently doomed to failure.

One of the most grotesque appointments made by this Administration is that of Mr. George E. Spencer, of Alabama, as one of the Government Directors of the Union Pacific Railroad. Mr. Spencer was elected a Senator from Alabama in the good old carpet-bag times, and it may be said that he represented the most obnoxious type of that sort of statesmanship which then flourished in the South, and that there was no redeeming feature about him. Since he left the Senate he has been long struggling to get "recognition" again, but vainly until now. The place to which he has been appointed is indeed not a very important one. The Government Directors of the Union Pacific Railroad have never succeeded in exercising any influence upon the management of that enterprise, nor in learning more about its affairs than the real managers thought it harmless to let them know. And then every summer they make a pleasant "inspection" trip over the road in a nice palace car, well equipped with the good things of this world, and finally they draw up a report the principal feature of which is that the Union Pacific Railroad is one of the grandest enterprises in history, an inestimable benefit to mankind, and, "we are happy to say," in excellent condition. These duties, it is true, Mr. Spencer may perform as well as anybody else, although we should think his presence on the Commission would not be pleasant to his colleagues. But if the "recognition" of such a politician as Mr. Spencer by the National Administration is intended to give him a new lift in the Republican party of Alabama, it will prove a disastrous investment. If Mr. Spencer ever becomes a Republican leader in Alabama again, that fact, by reviving the worst

memories of the past, will sink the Republican party of that State below the lowest level of respectability, and render the task of recruiting it from the decent and progressive elements of the population absolutely hopeless.

The clouds lowering upon the house of Cameron in the staid old State of Pennsylvania are getting blacker and blacker all the time. The first great meeting which the Independents held at Pittsburgh, a few days ago, was presided over by one of the old Republican war-horses, and among the Vice-Presidents there were a great many prominent business men and old steadfast Republicans "of whom nobody would have thought any such thing." It was a lively surprise to the Stalwarts. And now Mr. Thomas Marshall, whom the Cameron Convention had nominated for "Congressman-at-large"—an honor which he declined—comes out with a letter denouncing the reassembling of the defunct State Convention called by Mr. Cameron's chief of staff to fill the vacancy caused by Mr. Marshall's refusal, as an entirely unauthorized act, binding nobody. He declares that he will not obey the call himself, and calls upon others to do the same. And, finally, there appears to have been a curious miscalculation of forces in Mr. Cameron's selection of a candidate for Congressman-at-large. Mr. Wanamaker, the largest clothing merchant in Pennsylvania, had been pitched upon for that nomination, mainly, it was said, on account of the influence he would exercise over the newspapers as their most important advertising patron. But now we are told that this advantage would be more than offset by the hostility of all the small clothing dealers, who would work tooth and nail against him, and it would require the whole ingenuity of the Machine to figure out the chances of profit and loss. Mr. Wanamaker has, however, settled the matter by refusing to run

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The fate of the Commissioner of Agriculture as a Cabinet officer seems to have been settled by the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics. Mr. Nimmo, upon the request of the Secretary of the Treasury, has given an opinion against the scheme. Mr. Folger has adopted this opinion as his own and forwarded it to Senator Mahone, who has charge in committee of a bill relating to the subject. It is believed that the Administration is thus shown conclusively to be opposed to giving the Commissioner a portfolio, and that Mr. Mahone, as a representative of the views of the Administration in the Senate, will act accordingly. Mr. Nimmo objects to the bill because the department "is not charged with any executive function," but "merely with the duty of furnishing information," and it would be an "incongruity" to declare, as the bill does, that this non-executive office "shall be an executive department." The possibility that the Commissioner's duties might not be of sufficient scope and importance to warrant his admission to the Cabinet, seems to have occurred to the framers of the bill. They therefore proposed to enlarge his powers and responsibilities by entrusting to him certain business relating to surveys and education; but Mr. Nimmo was quite ready for this change of front. He objects to the further "incongruity" of requiring a department composed of "specialists with respect to the interests of agriculture" to look after "subjects entirely foreign to agriculture." The circuit is thus complete: the Commissioner should not go into the Cabinet, because his duties are not sufficiently executive; he should not be charged with other duties which might fit him for the Cabinet, because these are inconsistent with those he now performs. Whatever may be thought of Mr. Nimmo's "incongruities," is anything which he suggests more incongruous than the decision of a broad question of public policy, such as the enlargement of the Cabinet, by the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics?

The New York banks added $3,500,000 to their surplus reserve during the week. There was a gold shipment of about $1,000,000; but as this was an arbitrary transaction (said to have been for the account of the Italian Government), without reference to the current rates of foreign exchange, it had little or no influence on the markets. The weather during the week was for the most part very favorable for the growing crops, and these now promise to be exceptionally fine. In the southern and middle belt of country the winter wheat has already been harvested; the corn crop, about which there has been so much anxiety, has made great progress; and spring wheat in the Northwestern States was never in better condition. These facts have had great influence. In business circles the tone has changed from despondency to hopefulness, and at the Stock Exchange depression gave way to buoyancy, Mr. Vanderbilt and his friends having been conspicuous buyers of his stocks, and one of these—Lake Shore and Michigan Southern—having been bought up to 113. Less than two weeks ago this stock was sold at 98. On the last day of the week there was a downward reaction, partly caused by orders to sell from the foreign markets, which were depressed on account of the Egyptian troubles.

Michael Davitt, who has arrived here, declares, we are glad to see, that he does not attach much importance to his scheme for the nationalization of the land in Ireland, and is quite prepared to give it up for Parnell's. The object of both schemes is to get rid of the landlords, but when they are gone Parnell proposes to lodge the ownership in the farmers, while Davitt proposes to lodge it, on Henry George's plan, in the state, and have the occupiers pay their taxes in the form of rent. Whatever be the value of the Henry George scheme for the world in general, it is open to the fatal objection in the case of Ireland, that the Irish are not ready for it. The cause of the land trouble in Ireland for three hundred years has been that the tenure was not Irish but English, introduced and maintained by force of arms; a process closely resembling that which took place in India, when the English converted the old Mogul zemindars, or revenue collectors, into the landlords of their districts, and the cultivating taxpayers into their tenants. The English mind was not, until the Mill school of philosophy made its appearance, able thoroughly to conceive of a society in which there were no large landed proprietors, living on rent, and whenever they came into control of the soil of a country, and found none, they set them up. They did so in Ireland, by taking away the lands of the tribes, which were held in a sort of commonalty with the chiefs, and giving them to English grantees in fee-simple, and converting the aborigines into tenants-at-will. Out of this state of things has arisen the agitation in favor of having Ireland governed, in the matter of land tenures, as in other matters, according to "Irish ideas," and not according to English ideas—a plan of solving the Irish trouble, as far as England was concerned, which it is but just to say was suggested nearly one hundred years ago by that great Englishman, Charles James Fox.

Now, the Irish idea about land is very simple. It is that the occupier should be, if not the legal owner of the soil, as nearly the legal owner as possible; that if he has to pay rent, it should be a low and certain rent, which nobody could raise, and that his title should be indefeasible as long as this rent was paid. This is the French idea also. It is the Celtic idea everywhere. It is probably at this moment the strongest idea in the world about land. The Germanic or English view of land, that it should be treated as a commercial commodity, and cut up and sold as easily as corn or railroad shares, is not nearly as strong. The new Henry George or Communistic idea, that the land is a great national domain, to which all have an equally good claim, is still weaker. It probably has not to-day the smallest acceptance with any agricultural population. If it have secured any foothold at all, it is among the landless. It could not be preached to the farmers of any country in the world with any chance of success. Moreover, there are no farmers to whom it could be preached with less profit than to the Irish. To them it would be simply bewildering. They have not as yet even enough political education for it. They have yet to conceive of the state as the representative of the common interest. It will be a good while before they look on the Government as anything but the head of a hated foreign police, which it is always fair, and often desirable, to vex, harass, and even cheat. So that necessity as well as safety seems at present to confine the programme of the agitators to the conveyance of the land, not to an abstraction with a big name, but to the men who live and toil on it, and love it, and who cannot now be got to conceive of anything more desirable for them than the ownership of the fee.

Mr. Keely has come out with a card in which he declares that he has reached a point in his discoveries at which he can safely communicate his secret, and is now getting ready to take out a patent for it. We fear, however, that he will find himself confronted with new difficulties in the attempt. He declares that he has discovered a great natural Force, which he sometimes refers to as an "etheric force," exercising a pressure of 25,000 pounds to the square inch. His accounts of it are not very definite; but, as far as can be made out, it is generated by simply pouring a pint of water

into a hole. The Force itself cannot be patented, any more than the attraction of gravitation or electricity, and therefore what Mr. Keely must intend to patent is the way he uses it. He could not get a patent for pouring water into a hole, because the art of doing this has been possessed by mankind from the earliest times. Probably he will undertake to patent the mechanical appliance for using the Force. This is said to be of a "vibratory" character, and for all that is known may be patentable; but that this will involve a disclosure of the nature of the Force itself seems very doubtful. The Force may after all be one of those mysterious agencies of nature which cannot be disclosed to the senses.

M. Roustan, the new French Minister, seems to be very indiscreet for a French diplomatist, if we may judge from the report of an interview with him published in the *Herald* of Friday, in which, if correctly rendered, he gives an explanation of the French quarrel with Tunis that does not put the Jules Ferry Ministry, which began it, in a very creditable light. The reason given to the world for beginning it was a desire to punish the Kroumirs for marauding on the French border, but the flimsiness of this excuse was speedily laid bare, and the real cause—a desire to oust the Italians from influence in Tunis—was openly and very cynically revealed. M. Roustan now repeats this, with some accompanying abuse of the Italians, which is about as unbecoming, under all the circumstances, as anything we have seen in print for some time. Nor is his explanation of the verdict in his libel suit against Rochefort any more appropriate. Rochefort printed very serious charges against him in connection with the origin of the Tunisian war, and when he prosecuted him criminally the jury acquitted Rochefort. We gave at the time the best possible elucidation for this very untoward result, as furnished by French journals friendly to M. Roustan. This was that under the French law of libel, although the conviction of Rochefort would have affirmed the falsehood of all the charges made against M. Roustan, the acquittal did not affirm their truth, because the jury may have based it on the belief that Rochefort in publishing them acted in good faith, believing them to be true, as thousands of better Frenchmen than he undoubtedly did. It is far better to leave the matter in this shape than say, as M. Roustan has been saying, that Rochefort was "paid by the Italians" for attacking him, and that the jury acquitted him because they were afraid of Rochefort. The verdict of a Paris jury, we assure M. Roustan, cannot be disposed of here in *that* way. He seems, in fact, to have caught the light, sportive style of dealing with "charges," which some of our politicians in their distress have cultivated with so much success; but he will discover before he has been long in the country, that it is not a style which the best portion of the American people fancies or approves of.

The signs of trouble in the Gladstone Cabinet increase, and are now very threatening. Its composition in the beginning was heterogeneous enough, and it was only agreed to in opposition to the Jingo policy of the Tories. When the Irish question came up, it was rudely shaken by dissension on the matter of coercion—to which Dilke, Chamberlain, and Fawcett only gave a silent and reluctant assent. Their hostility finally drove Forster out, and there is much reason for thinking that Harcourt and Hartington only get very slender support from them in the concoction of the new Repression Bill. This trouble might possibly have been tided over without an explosion if the Egyptian crisis had not come about, and had not at last taken such a shape as to make some action imperatively necessary. Gladstone, with the Irish question absorbing his faculties, and with his old timidity in foreign affairs deepened by age, is naturally reluctant to do anything but let things drift. Sir Charles Dilke knows so much about foreign politics that he probably sees better than any one the abyss of uncertainty which any military action in Egypt will open up, and hangs back too. The rumor now is that Chamberlain here sees his chance, and offers himself for the leadership of the rising democracy by advocating prompt and energetic measures; or, in other words, waving "the meteor flag of England," with the prospect of a dissolution and some new combination opening up to him.

The way in which the Ministry is managing the two Irish bills now before the House of Commons furnishes the Irish Home Rulers with a striking illustration in support of their claims. In order to get the Repression Bill through the House and prevent too much obstruction at the hands of the Irish members, it has put the Arrears Bill behind it, so that the early passage of the latter shall depend on the early passage of the former. Gladstone does this because the Repression Bill is demanded by English opinion, which cares little about the Arrears Bill. But if he were an Irish Minister simply, he would undoubtedly, however much determined to repress crime, put the Arrears Bill first, because there is no good reason for believing that it will make any difference whether the Repression Bill is passed now or a few weeks hence. Its effect, if it ever has any effect, must come slowly. On the other hand, every day's delay in the Arrears Bill is producing consequences of the most terrible kind. It is intended to prevent the eviction of farmers who are unable to pay their rent, owing to the three bad harvests, and to bring them within the operation of the Land Act, the benefits of which they lose by eviction. But the evictions are now going on on a great scale. They have reached, Mr. Trevelyan says, 1,000 a week, and the landlords have the strongest motive for pushing them, because the future letting of every farm they now get into their hands will be free from most of the restrictions imposed on them by the Land Act. Consequently, in order to secure the passage of a measure of doubtful value, demanded by English pride, for the punishment of crime, the Government is inflicting, or allowing to be inflicted, a penalty of the most frightful kind, on persons who are not accused of any crime, and whom the Ministry has acknowledged, in the most solemn and formal way, to be the victims of a great wrong. No Ministry which was dependent on the public opinion of the country for which it was legislating, as every Ministry ought to be, would attempt such a proceeding.

Mr. Gladstone has once more put his strength to the test, by a vote on Tuesday in the House of Commons, on a motion giving the Arrears Bill precedence over all other business except the Repression Bill, and putting it into the Committee of the Whole, which was carried by 253 to 97. What makes this important is that it is on the Arrears Bill that the opposition to the Ministry is now concentrated, inasmuch as it is considered the crown and consummation of Mr. Gladstone's errors in the treatment of the Irish question. If the majority in the House can stand this, they can stand anything, and they certainly appear to stick to him with wonderful fidelity. The meeting of the Conference is also likely to help him. He must have struck terror into the Tory ranks, however, by his announcement of an autumn session to take up the proposed changes in procedure. Most of the sporting politicians are in their ranks, and this proposal to take them away from the grouse-shooting and deer-stalking must deepen the hatred with which already they regard him.

The absolute indifference to the French and English fleets of Arabi Bey and his men is one of the very comic incidents of the Egyptian crisis which has attracted less attention than it deserved. The fleets were in the earlier period of the troubles kept hanging over his head as a bogey. "Arabi," the French and English Control would say to him every now and then, "if you don't behave, the fleets will come—iron-clads, you know, throwing shells as big as a saint's tomb." The Khedive warned him also that if he didn't keep quiet, he would bring the iron-clads on him. The Turks, on their part, when they heard the iron-clads were going, protested warmly. The Sultan was much agitated when the thing was first talked of, and hoped the Powers would do nothing so dreadful. At last they did it, however. They sent the iron-clads to Alexandria, and waited to see the effect on Arabi. He, however, remained calm and self-possessed. The British Consul seems to have been the first to discover the real effect of the move, for he telegraphed to the British Admiral, for God's sake to keep as quiet as possible, and not try to protect anybody or anything, and above all not to land marines or sailors. In fact, it was recognized in two or three days that the arrival of the fleets had put every Christian's life in danger. Every Englishman and Frenchman began to tremble when he heard that his country's navy was at anchor in the Alexandrian Roads. Arabi, now, apparently likes to have plenty of iron-clads in the Roads. It makes his troops bellicose and patriotic, and he is said to be ready to meet the combined navies at any point in the interior at which they choose to attack him. In fact, it is plain that the fleets, unless reinforced by the Bedouin cavalry, cannot hurt him in the least.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 14, to TUESDAY, June 20, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

ON Friday the President nominated Alexander R. Boteler, of West Virginia, and William H. McMahon, of New York, to fill the vacancies in the list of nominations for the Tariff Commission. Mr. Boteler is a farmer and in favor of a moderate protective tariff. Mr. McMahon is in charge of the division of duties in the New York Custom-house, and it is "hoped by the President's friends that the selection will give satisfaction to the New York merchants." The Senate confirmed on Tuesday, by 31 to 21, the President's nominations.

On Friday the President also sent to the Senate the full list of nominations for the Utah Commission. They are: Alexander Ramsay, of Minnesota; A. S. Paddock, of Nebraska; J. T. Godfrey, of Iowa; Ambrose B. Carleton, of Indiana; and James R. Pettigrew, of Arkansas.

The President has approved the sentence in the case of Lieutenant Flipper, who was tried by court-martial for conduct unbecoming an officer, and sentenced to dismissal from the service.

Mr. Trescot appeared before the House Committee on Foreign Affairs on Wednesday. He testified that he knew nothing of the missing letters, and scarcely anything of Shipherd; denied that the possible intervention of the Crédit Industriel between Peru and Chili had ever become a practical question, and spoke in high terms of the estimation in which Mr. Hurlbut had been held in Chili as well as in Peru, and said he had learned absolutely nothing prejudicial to his character in Chili or Peru. In regard to the relations of the State Department with the Crédit Industriel, Mr. Trescot knew little. The Crédit Industriel, as he understood it, made an offer to Peru to this effect: "If you can reach a negotiation with Chili by which Chili will consent to receive and you to pay a war indemnity instead of ceding territory to Chili, we will furnish you with means to make that payment." After some further questioning in regard to the Crédit Industriel, an adjournment was taken till Tuesday, when Mr. Trescot, after declining to state whether he had drafted the letter of instruction of June 15 to Mr. Hurlbut, said it clearly had reference to the Crédit Industriel and its plan of paying the indemnity.

On June 14 the President sent to the Senate copies of all the correspondence not heretofore published between the State Department and Messrs. Trescot and Blaine. This correspondence adds little, except in matters of detail, to the information which the public already has in regard to Mr. Trescot's mission, but shows what an embarrassing position he was placed in on account of the premature publication of his instructions from Mr. Frelinghuysen. Mr. Trescot had an interview with Mr. Balmaceda, the Chilian Secretary for Foreign Affairs, on January 13, the purpose of which was to extend to Chili Mr. Blaine's invitation to the "Peace Congress." Mr. Trescot stated the purpose of his visit, and then asked Mr. Blaine to read the invitation. Before Mr. Blaine could begin, however, Mr. Balmaceda said: "It is useless. Your Government has withdrawn the invitation. Your instructions have been changed. Your instructions from Mr. Blaine have been published, and others are on their way to you modifying your original instructions in very important particulars." Mr. Trescot at this was taken aback and at a loss what to say, but finally remarked that he must decline to say a word more until he learned from his Government what it had done and what it meant to do. In other portions of the correspondence Mr. Trescot shows with what tenacity the people of Peru clung and still cling to the belief that the good offices of the United States would be exercised in their behalf. In a report made since his return to Washington Mr. Trescot says that the time has come for definite action one way or the other in the matter of intervention, and that he believes that whenever the United States formally withdraws from further intervention, Peru will apply to the European Powers, and that a joint intervention of two or more is probable.

The Bonded Whiskey Bill was defeated in the Senate on Thursday by a vote of 32 to 20 to postpone it and all amendments to it indefinitely. The Senators who voted against the postponement were all, with the exception of Mr. Miller, of California, Democrats.

On Wednesday the House of Representatives passed the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial Appropriation Bill. The Pension Appropriation Bill, which was reported to the House on the same day, appropriates $100,000,000, distributed as follows: for Army pensions, $97,000,000; Navy pensions, $1,800,000; surgeons' fees, $275,000; allowances to Pension Agents, $275,000, and contingent expenses of Pension Agents, $10,000.

On Saturday the House of Representatives passed, by a vote of 119 to 47, the River and Harbor Bill, which appropriates over $17,000,000. No material amendments were made to the bill. The Mississippi River Commission is to have authority to spend $5,000,000.

On Monday the House of Representatives passed "a bill to regulate immigration," which provides that the master, owner, consignee, or agent of any vessel bringing immigrants to the United States and landing them, shall pay a tax of fifty cents for each immigrant landed. The Secretary of the Treasury is authorized to enter into contract with State authorities for the support and relief of such immigrants as may be in need. The authorities are also authorized to prevent the landing of convicts, lunatics, idiots, or any persons unable to take care of themselves, and such persons are to be returned to the countries from which they came.

The passage of the above-mentioned bill was opportune, since the Board of Emigration of New York, being without funds and deeply in debt, decided on Friday to close Castle Garden, the steamship companies having refused to contract with the Emigration Board to pay fifty cents a head for the landing, care, and protection of their immigrants. The steamship companies, however, finally yielded, and consented to contract on these terms.

The House on Tuesday rejected a bill for the electoral count reported by Mr. Updegraff from a select committee.

The New York Civil-Service Reform Association has sent a circular to the principal employees of the Federal Government, calling their attention to the United States statute prohibiting subscriptions toward defraying the expenses of the Congressional Republican Committee, and warning them that they are liable under the statute to fine or removal from office in case they subscribe.

The Republican State Convention of North Carolina met at Raleigh on Wednesday. The platform favors the apportionment of the internal-revenue tax on distilled spirits pro rata among the States and Territories for educational purposes; calls for a continuance of the tariff; demands the repeal of the county government system of North Carolina, and affirms the inherent right of the people to elect all the officers of the State; demands an honest count and a free ballot; and denounces the Prohibition Bill and requests members of the Legislature to vote against all similar measures. The Convention adopted the ticket of the Liberal Independent Convention of the 7th inst. This union of the Republicans with the Independents will, it is thought, make the struggle very hard for the Democrats.

The Arkansas Democratic State Convention met on Saturday and nominated C. R. Breckenridge for Congressman-at-large, and unanimously adopted a resolution endorsing Senator Garland and urging his reëlection by the Legislature. A resolution was also unanimously adopted declaring that while the Democracy of Kansas favor the resubmission to the people of the Constitutional Amendment forbidding the payment of alleged fraudulent bonds, they do not recognize the question as furnishing a test of any man's Democracy. The Greenback Convention, which was thinly attended, met and made its nominations on Tuesday.

A meeting of between forty and fifty prominent Germans of the State of Connecticut was held in New Haven on Monday to organize a "Progressive Union in opposition to both of the existing political parties." A constitution was adopted, expressing opposition to both political parties, and calling on Germans to vote for men, who are honest and true, without regard to their politics, who will conform to the platform of organization. The real trouble they seem to find with both parties, however, is that neither of them opposed the passage of the existing stringent license law in the Connecticut Legislature.

Laborers have continued to strike throughout the country. On Monday the freight handlers in New York and Jersey City struck, adding over 3,000 to the list of idle workmen.

The great labor parade at Pittsburgh took place on Saturday. Fully 100,000 strangers were in the city, and the streets and houses along the line of the procession were crowded. Quite 20,000 men were in line, representing numerous industries. The marked feature of the demonstration is said to have been the gentlemanly and soldier-like bearing of the men. Not a single intoxicated man was to be seen in the whole column, and at no point along the line of march was there any disturbance.

The Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers has decided that no trouble hereafter at Cleveland, Ohio, shall be laid at its door, and accordingly all of its members will remain at home hereafter during the hours in which trouble is likely to occur.

The total value of the exports of domestic breadstuffs from the United States for the eleven months ending May 31, 1882, was $167,653,532, as against $244,955,413 for the corresponding period of 1881.

The Grand Jury at Washington has found two new indictments against ex-Assistant-Postmaster-General Brady for conspiracy to defraud the Government in the Star-route service.

Lieutenant Danenhower says that he does not expect to complete the report of his Arctic experiences called for by the Secretary of the Navy before the 1st of September.

A despatch was received by the New York *Herald* on Monday, from their correspondent who is with the *Rodgers*, giving an account of the finding of the bodies of De Long and his men. The despatch is dated Lena Delta, April 12, and says that Engineer Melville found the bodies on March 23, eleven in number, buried in the snow, not far from where Noros and Ninderman left the party in search of help. They had all evidently suffered greatly from exposure and hunger, the hands of several being burned as if, while dying, they had crawled into the fire. In their pockets were pieces of burnt skin and of their clothing which they had been eating. None of them had boots. Their feet were covered with rags tied on. Two boxes of records, with a medicine chest and a flag on a staff, were beside the tent. They were buried in a mausoleum of wood on the top of a hill near by, and a huge cross was set up to mark the spot. The search for Lieutenant Chipp was then continued, but, up to the date of the despatch, without result.

A tornado swept through central Iowa late Saturday night from northwest to southeast. The town of Grinnell was struck by it, and half the northern part of the town, including the college buildings, left in ruins. Over forty persons were killed and over 150 wounded. About 150 houses were destroyed, and the damage to property is estimated at $600,000. The neighboring town of Malcolm was also

heavily visited. The path of the tornado was twenty-five miles long and about half a mile wide, extending five miles northwest of Grinnell and twenty miles southeast. Storms raged almost simultaneously in other parts of Iowa, and in Illinois, Kansas, and Missouri, inflicting great damage on property.

Mr. Michael Davitt, founder of the Irish Land League, arrived in New York on Sunday. He has come for a twelve days' lecturing tour in the States, the object of which he says is to contradict the rumors which have been bruited about that there is a split in the Land League movement, and that there is likely to be a difference between Mr. Parnell and himself, and to explain the work that is being carried on in Ireland by the Ladies' Land League.

M. Maxime Outrey, the French Minister, presented his letters of recall to the President on Friday. M. Roustan, the new Minister from France, arrived in Washington on the same day.

The seventieth anniversary of the birthday of Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe was celebrated at the residence of ex-Governor William Claflin, at Newtonville, Mass., on Wednesday, the 14th, by a reception in Mrs. Stowe's honor. An address was made by the Rev. Henry Ward Beecher, and poems read by Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes, Mr. Whittier, and others.

Mr. Paul Tulane, of Princeton, N. J., who made a fortune in business in New Orleans, has given $2,000,000 for the erection and endowment of a college in that city for the education of white young men in languages, literature, science, and art.

Rear-Admiral Nicholson, commanding the European station, has telegraphed to the Navy Department at Washington that all the vessels of the European squadron now in the Mediterranean have been ordered to proceed to Alexandria, to look after American interests in Egypt.

FOREIGN.

Hundreds of Europeans have been leaving Egypt during the week by the advice of the Consuls. A street quarrel in Alexandria on Wednesday, which would have resulted in another riot, was stopped by the arrival of Egyptian troops in time to suppress the disturbance. A correspondent of the London *Daily News* stated on Wednesday that not only women and children, but men with large material interests in Egypt, were begging passage and leaving their property behind. The panic increased on Thursday, and Cairo was deserted by all Europeans who could possibly leave the city. The shops were all closed, and some Europeans unable to leave were fortifying themselves in their houses. The Khedive expressed the hope that 18,000 Turks would soon be on their way to Egypt, but it is stated that some of the Powers opposed the despatch of Turkish troops, on the ground that it would provoke fresh outbreaks. After a reception which the Khedive held on Wednesday he informed the Europeans that he had divided Alexandria into districts and made an officer responsible for each, and added that 430 of the ringleaders of Sunday's riot had been arrested. The number of Europeans killed in the riot on Sunday is now estimated at over 250. Many were thrown into the sea, and their bodies have been daily washed ashore. On Saturday the despatches represented the situation as becoming more quiet, and stated that all rumors of military preparations by Turkey were premature. The Khedive, at the suggestion of the representatives of the European Powers, has asked Ragheb Pasha to form a new Ministry, and the latter consented. Arabi Pasha of course has the portfolio of War. Ragheb Pasha is not very favorably disposed toward Europeans. There is said to be little doubt, however, that Arabi Pasha is straining every nerve to keep order, as he is beginning to realize how injurious the exodus of Europeans will be to the country. A Berlin despatch says that England and France have promised that the Conference on Egyptian Affairs will meet at Constantinople on the 22d inst. The Porte received a despatch from Dervish Pasha on Monday, reporting the state of affairs as very satisfactory, and that Arabi Pasha strictly obeys the Khedive's orders.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday Sir Charles Dilke, Under Foreign Secretary, replying to questions, denied that the Egyptian troops were disaffected, and said that Dervish Pasha was confident that he would be able to maintain order. He declined to answer further questions, as it was impossible to explain the situation until the papers on the subject were published, whereupon Sir Henry Wolff, Conservative, moved an adjournment of the House as a protest against the reticence and imbecility of the Government. In the debate that followed, Sir Henry Wolff condemned the association of England with France. Mr. Gladstone replied that he greatly lamented what had been said concerning France, that all the Powers were coöperating heartily with England, and that the Sultan was in complete harmony with the Powers. He dwelt on the necessity of using the instrumentality of Turkey, and said the British policy was the maintenance of all established rights. On Thursday Sir Charles Dilke said, in reply to questions, that it was true that Mr. Cookson, the British Consul in Alexandria, had, in September last, informed Arabi Pasha that if the Egyptian Army persisted in assuming the government of the country, it must be prepared to meet the united forces of the Sultan and Europe, as the country could not be suffered to relapse into a state of anarchy, and that the British Government had approved of this language. There is said to be great irritation in England at the apparent inaction of the Government on the Egyptian question. In the House of Commons on Monday Sir Charles Dilke stated that Germany, Austria, and Russia had accepted the proposal for a Conference, and that Italy had previously declared she would follow the course of the other Powers. Very full instructions, he said, had been sent to Admiral Seymour on Friday, which were sufficient to protect British interests in Alexandria in case of renewed disturbances.

In the House of Commons on Thursday, Mr. Trevelyan stated that of 216 suspects still in custody, 125 are suspected of personal association with crime. Mr. Childers, Secretary of State for War, replying to questions, said that hereafter the arms of soldiers employed for escort duty and protection in Ireland would be loaded.

On Friday clause 7 of the Repression Bill was adopted by a vote of 208 to 67. The Government previously accepted an amendment that magistrates should appear at meetings and summon the people to disperse, but an amendment confining the operation of the clause to the proclaimed districts was rejected. Clause 8, directing the arrest of persons found at night under suspicious circumstances, was also passed by a vote of 98 to 27. On Monday clauses 9 and 10 of the bill were adopted, the former, providing for the arrest of strangers found under suspicious circumstances, by a vote of 194 to 31, and the latter, directing the seizure of newspapers containing matter inciting to the commission of treason or any act of violence or intimidation, by a vote of 99 to 26. Mr. Gladstone moved on Tuesday that precedence be given to the Arrears of Rent Bill, whenever set down, over other business, with the exception of the Repression Bill, and that there be morning sessions on Friday. The motion prevailed by a large majority.

The news from Ireland has not been very important. Miss Anna Parnell has written to the Dublin *Freeman's Journal* that the fund for the maintenance of suspects, for which purpose £24,000 has been collected and £16,000 spent, should now be closed. Several more persons have been arrested on suspicion of being connected with the murder of Lord Cavendish and Mr. Burke. The Corporation of Dublin has adopted, by a vote of 34 to 12, a petition to Parliament against the Repression Bill, and on Tuesday the Lord Mayor in his official robes presented it in the House of Commons.

Cambridge University, England, has conferred the degree of Doctor of Laws upon Prof. Josiah P. Cooke, of Harvard University.

In the Reichstag on Wednesday, after a lively debate, in which Prince Bismarck made a speech of two hours' duration, the Tobacco Monopoly Bill was rejected by a vote of 276 to 43. Among other remarks, Bismarck declared that party government in Germany was impossible. He also held up the United States as an example of the benefits of a protective tariff. In conclusion, he declared that the Federal Government would not be diverted from its adherence to protective duties by any resolution that might be adopted. In another debate, in replying to the criticisms on the largeness of the military budget, he said that Germany was only prevented from having coalitions made against her by other Powers by the fact that her military power was known. He also said that in view of the slightly developed national feeling of the Germans, the French had not abandoned the hope of getting back Alsace and Lorraine.

It is announced that Herr Bitter, Prussian Minister of Finance, has tendered his resignation on the ground of difference of opinion in regard to taxation reform.

A despatch from St. Petersburg says that a ukase has been issued dissolving the committee for an inquiry into the condition of the rural population, and its duties have been transferred to the Council of the Empire and the Senate. The revenue of Russia for the first quarter of the year shows an increase of seven million rubles over the first quarter of 1881. The correspondent of the London *Times* at St. Petersburg says that General Ignatieff's resignation was caused by his proposing to summon the States-General.

The Holy Synod has passed a resolution, which has received the sanction of the Czar, prohibiting persons not Christians from publicly trading in pictures, crosses, or vessels used in Christian worship.

A despatch from Belgrade says that it has been arranged that the entire Ministry shall retain office and carry on the programme initiated by the last electoral decree of the King, and consequently all reëlections of Radicals will be declared illegal. The Progressist candidates who were second on the list, though some of them did not obtain a dozen votes, will be summoned to take the seats. It is apprehended that these events may lead to a suspension of the Constitution and internal strife, resulting in European intervention.

The Italian newspapers publish an agreement of the members of the Garibaldi family to give the island of Caprera to the Italian nation.

The news from South America is that a bill will be soon introduced into the Chilian Legislature declaring the incorporation of the Peruvian departments of Tarapaca and Tacna, including the port of Arica, within the territory of Chili, and that, as soon as this bill shall have been approved, the whole of the Chilian troops will abandon the north coast of Peru, and concentrate in Lima. The Bolivians are said to be almost unanimously in favor of an immediate truce, and are working energetically to bring about this result. The London *Daily News*, commenting on Mr. Trescot's despatches to Secretary Frelinghuysen, says that none of the European Powers would refuse to try to effect a peace between Chili and Peru, if so requested by the belligerents, but that the Powers do not intend to coerce Chili at the request of Peru.

The Canadian elections, on June 20, went heavily in favor of the late Government, all the members of which were returned—the Premier, Sir John Macdonald, by two constituencies. The national protection policy has thus obtained a formal popular endorsement.

THE FOUR-YEARS-TERM SCHEME.

A BOLD attempt to extend the operation of the spoils system, and increase its efficiency as an agent of corruption, was defeated in the House on Monday, largely owing to the vigorous exposure of it made by Mr. Bayne, of Pennsylvania. It took the form of a bill introduced by Mr. Burroughs, of Michigan, in the House, to fix the terms of the Internal Revenue Collectors at four years. At present these officers hold during good behavior, or until some henchman wants an office. For the most part, however, they hold during good behavior. Many of those now in office were appointed during General Grant's first term, and are excellent officers. Indeed, the Internal-Revenue service is exceptionally well administered, and there is more or less reluctance to remove the Collectors for political reasons, owing to the outcry which it makes among the reformers, and the public generally outside of politics. This, however, does not by any means diminish the desire of "the workers" to get at the offices. In fact, in this case, as in many other cases, difficulty of gratification only inflames the desire. The spectacle of an honest man performing the duties of the same office, faithfully and efficiently, for ten or fifteen years, is to them indescribably odious. It seems so mawkish and sentimental that it makes them sick, as they say themselves. Finding, therefore, that it caused too much fuss to dismiss an officer simply to make a vacancy, they determined to try to subject Internal Revenue Collectors to the same rule as the Customs Collectors and Postmasters, limiting their appointments to four years, so that they might dismiss an officer at the end of four years without laying themselves open to the charge of dismissing him without cause. When they got rid of a good officer, they would thus be enabled to say that his term had expired, and that the law would not have fixed a term if it had not contemplated a change at the expiration of it. In fact, one of the concessions the spoilsmen have of late been making to the reformers takes the shape of an offer to remove no officer before the expiration of his term. They do remove officers frequently in the middle of their terms, but then, if you insist upon it, they are always willing to promise that they will do nothing of the kind, just to keep you in good humor.

The creation of the four-years term for the Federal accounting officers, or officers charged with the custody or disbursement of the public funds, was resorted to in 1820 simply as a clumsy and semi-barbarous mode of checking fraud and defalcation. Owing to the want of a proper system of inspection and auditing, there was a great deal of malfeasance. The proper remedy was to improve the checking and oversight and the organization generally. The plan actually resorted to was to dismiss every such officer at the end of four years, so as to compel him to balance his accounts at that date. Instead of being abandoned as an expedient to be ashamed of, and which in a mercantile counting-house would have seemed ludicrous, it rapidly took the shape, in the eyes of politicians, of a valuable feature in their system of "rotation," and the four-years term came to have a sacrosanct character, somewhat like the number seven in necromancy and astrology, as the true and only period for the commission of an American revenue officer to run.

In these days of increased facilities in travel and communication, and of improved discipline and organization and bookkeeping, it is as absurd to keep it up, as a guarantee of fidelity and efficiency, as it would have been to maintain in the English Exchequer the old tally system of keeping accounts by notches on a stick. We pay the President and the heads of departments considerable salaries for the work of inspection—that is, for seeing that their subordinates are fit men and do their duty, and for keeping a close watch on their accounts. To enable them by law to find out whether a subordinate is doing his duty, by dismissing him at the end of four years, is to encourage supineness or negligence on their part in the interval, and sometimes to encourage even connivance at, and participation in, fraud, as in the case of Assistant Postmaster-General Brady in the Star-route service. In other words, the time which the President and heads of departments give to distributing patronage—that is, to creating vacancies and filling them—is so much time taken away from their proper work of vigilant inspection, and the four-years term is a direct encouragement to neglect of this work, and is nothing else. There is no excuse or defence to be found for it, either in principles of human nature or human experience of affairs, in any field of administration.

The sole defence for this Burroughs attempt to introduce it into the Internal-Revenue service is to be found in the report of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue in 1877, which contains the curious suggestion that the Collector's term of office should be fixed at four years, because:

> "It often happens that when a Collector has served for a longer period than four years constant efforts are being made for his removal, and many officers, however well they may have discharged their duties, feel, after a four years' service, uncertain as to the length of time they will be retained in office. Where an officer is appointed for a term of four years, he has a right to expect that if he performs his duties diligently and faithfully he will not be disturbed until his term expires, and this feeling of security I regard as an important element in maintaining a good public service."

This is very like saying that in order to deliver a public servant from constant unjustifiable vexation and annoyance he should be guaranteed against them for four years certain and then dismissed altogether, which is one of those grotesque remedies for abuses which are generated only in the spoilsman's brain. Why, also, an officer who performs his duties diligently and faithfully is entitled to security from disturbance for four years, and not for eight or twenty years, is one of those questions which probably not even a spoilsman could answer, or could only answer by saying that four was the mystic number of "politics."

The true reason for the revived interest in the four-years-term system among professional politicians is undoubtedly a desire to escape from the growing strength of the public condemnation of the prostitution of the public service to partisan ends. The four-years term would furnish a period at which any competent officer could be got rid of, and room made for a "worker," without attracting public attention and without the necessity of giving reasons. In practice, it greatly stimulates the disease of office-seeking among the unsteady, shiftless, and incapable portion of the community. It gives notice to the whole tribe of the exact day and hour when a vacancy will occur, and thus enables them to prepare their intrigues, and deprives the appointing power of that best defence against their rapacious importunity, which consists in saying that the office is already filled by a competent man—an answer which no lazy "worker" ever receives without being in some degree, however small, improved by it. He cannot hear it without being reminded of something which in "politics" he is very apt to lose sight of—that civilized government rests, after all, on private morality, and that no government can long with impunity disregard the elementary virtues which hold society together. No government can in our time long continue to declare in its practice that honesty and capacity shall not open the door to its offices, that faithful service shall not give security in them, that the tried man shall count for less in them than the untried man, and that the very fact that a man has done a thing well for four years is a reason why he should not be allowed to do it for six. Civilized society could not exist under such rules, and, *à fortiori*, no civilized society can long permit its government to enforce them in the administration of its affairs.

TERRIBLE REMARKS FROM GAIL HAMILTON.

GAIL HAMILTON'S political articles are always read with a certain interest, because, whether rightly or wrongly, she is supposed to utter or reflect "the Blaine view" of things. Many people fancy that by reading them they get hold of the talk of the Blaine circle, thrown into a sort of literary form. She almost always writes to defend the spoils system; but then she is not fortunate as a defender. She defended Mrs. Howe, the Boston banker, and maintained that ninety-six per cent. per annum could be very properly offered as interest on deposits by a female banker, without giving reason to any but the most degraded minds to suspect this person's honesty. Mrs. Howe is now lamenting in the penitentiary the failure of the jury to share Gail Hamilton's admiration of her mode of doing business, and we fear that if some similar test of the value of her apologies could be applied to the spoils system, it would be found that she had done just as little for it as for Mrs. Howe. But no feebleness or inconsequence as an advocate can deprive her of her attractiveness as a mouthpiece. As she says, or is supposed to say, what Mr. Blaine says to "the boys," she will always be sure of a hearing.

What stirs her into utterance now in the latest *North American Review* is the public "cussedness" in supposing that Guiteau is a product of the spoils system, or that his crime

illustrated the workings of the spoils system. How, she asks, could he be the product of the spoils system when he never got into it; and how dare any one say that he murdered the President because he was disappointed in getting an office, when he never had held an office? Far from being a part of the spoils system, or a product of it, or an illustration of it, he was a "vagabond and villain from the beginning," "organically and primordially worthless, instinctively and imperiously vicious, grotesquely consistent to the horrible inconsistency of his depraved and deformed being—mere human vermin," and a great deal more of the same sort. Guiteau gets no mercy at her hands. In fact, she handles him without gloves. He catches it, whichever way he turns, in the most terrible English that was ever showered on a bad man, and she winds up one burst of vituperation by proposing that in some future "higher life," in which we suppose the nominations will go to the right men, we should take the Guiteaus, and "instantly on discovery, not with ignominy, but with tenderness," kill them, or, as she calls it in her pretty, alliterative way, "release them from the doom of birth by the boon of death, and so relegate these marred and monstrous abortions to the Creator's hand to be restored to the decency of non-existence." Now, what has brought all this down on poor Guiteau—this horrible proposal, not simply to hang him but annihilate him—is simply his having been used by the reformers as an argument against the spoils system. His career had been a bad one, but he had not, like some of Mr. Blaine's appointees to high office, been convicted of any infamous offence. He had managed, in short, like many of the Mikes and Barneys, while not passing as a saint exactly, to keep out of the hands of the law, and we must protest against the fate which Gail Hamilton has prepared for him. He must not be "reduced to the decency of non-existence," and shall not be as long as there are judges and police in America.

We must also protest against the conclusion which Gail Hamilton reaches, after disposing of Guiteau, "that the great obstacle to civil-service reform to-day is civil-service reformers." Matters, we think, can hardly be quite as bad as this, and Miss Hamilton would not have said this had she been talking in her usual moderate, accurate, restrained, Blaine way, and had not been excited by her analysis of Guiteau's character. There must, we feel sure, be some obstacle to civil-service reform a little greater than the civil-service reformers themselves. And we cannot quite agree with her in thinking that the lesson Garfield's assassination should teach is "not to assassins, officeholders, office-seekers, or others of the disreputable and dangerous classes," but "to the respectable and religious, and that the lesson is to speak the truth." Is there not some mistake about this, just as there was about Mrs. Howe's banking? Can it be possible that the lesson of Mrs. Howe's banking was not to the swindlers, and confidence men, and Peter Funks, and banco men, and check-raisers, but to the merchants and bankers of unimpeached integrity? Surely Gail Hamilton would not now maintain that it was. And if she was mistaken in that case, may it not be that the lesson of Garfield's death was really addressed to the liars, intriguers, dodgers, jobbers, bribers, and bribe-takers of our politics, and not to the harmless bodies who simply ask that the tenure of office be permanent, and that appointments be made for competence only, and dismissals for misconduct only, and that perjurers, forgers, and embezzlers, and ignoramuses shall not be employed in it on any terms whatever?

BISMARCK'S DEFEAT.

Prince Bismarck's pet scheme, the Tobacco Monopoly Bill, which was to put the manufacturing and warehousing of tobacco and the sale of manufactured tobacco of all kinds into the hands of the Imperial Government, has been buried in the German Reichstag under an adverse majority of 276 to 42 votes. Any other Minister would probably permit it to stay buried. Bismarck had exhausted all the resources of his political skill to build up a majority for this one measure. He had tried all his power of persuasion; he had, at the expense of his pride and consistency, yielded the position he had taken against the arrogations of the Church to propitiate the Clericals and to render a Parliamentary combination with them possible; he had used all the influence of the Government with the voters at the last elections to win a favorable majority; and after all this comes a defeat so crushing that it would dishearten any statesman of ordinary courage. But Germany is not one of those constitutional states in which a defeated Minister is compelled to retire. Bismarck is sure to have the Emperor behind him as long as he lives, and so he may stick to his plans with the hope of wearing out the Opposition.

It would be doing injustice to a statesman who has rendered his country such eminent service, to think that he clings to this scheme from mere pride of opinion and despotic obstinacy. He acts upon the belief, as expressed by his organs, that, while the German Empire is fairly safe externally, it cannot be considered safe internally until "it stands financially on its own legs"—that is to say, until the Government of the Empire has financial resources of its own and under its immediate control to draw upon, which will make it independent of contributions from the several states. And Bismarck thinks that the tobacco monopoly would furnish such an independent and reliable source of revenue. He further believes that something must be done to "improve the lot of the common people," to blunt the edge of the Socialistic movements, and to attach the masses by such means to the central authority. With this view he conceived some rather extraordinary schemes to insure disabled workingmen against want and distress, and the new revenue was to serve to some extent in this direction. Finally, the tobacco monopoly no doubt appeared to him a very expedient measure in a political sense, as it would have immensely increased the number of officials, licensed traders, and laboring men directly dependent upon the favor of the Imperial Government, to be used as a huge electioneering machine.

It cannot be denied that the first-mentioned object to be served by the tobacco monopoly is a perfectly legitimate and very important one, which no statesman in Bismarck's position would lose sight of. The trouble is that he has set his heart upon a particular fiscal measure which the people, with rare unanimity, have told him again and again that they do not want. This unanimity seems to be almost absolute, for it is very certain that even the pitiable minority of forty-two votes which the bill obtained in the Reichstag is composed of men not who believe in the tobacco monopoly as a desirable fiscal scheme, but who would stand by Bismarck under any circumstances. The only excuse he seems to be able to give for his persistence against an overwhelming public opinion is, that he does not know of any other plan that would answer the object, and, according to the cable report, he went even so far as to say in the debate: "Let the Reichstag substitute other proposals for those of the Government, unless the Reichstag regards the present state of things as absolutely excellent." This is a curious appeal appearing side by side with another declaration, made almost in the same breath, "that party government in Germany is impossible." It lays bare the fundamental difficulty of the political situation in Germany in a nutshell.

Here is a great Minister who, by extraordinary achievements, has won immense renown and authority. His self-reliance has grown with his success. Having done many great things so well, he thinks he must himself do all that is to be done. His authority is to be shared by nobody. All initiative—legislative as well as executive—is to remain in his hands. The Parliament is not to originate anything, but only to assent to what the one supreme mind originates. The executive power is to remain independent in its own right, and party government is to be scouted as an impossibility. At last this Minister runs against a public opinion which he cannot overcome. The Parliament stubbornly refuses to assent to a measure upon which he has set his heart, and which, to do him justice, he thinks necessary for the safety of the country. And then the same man, to whom Parliamentary initiative has always been an object of contempt, in his last perplexity exclaims: "Why does not the Parliament invent and propose something better?" Bismarck has never wanted the Parliament to propose anything—he was to do all the proposing himself. Moreover, according to his theory, the Executive is to continue to hold in its hand the initiative in all things after he himself shall have left the scene. And now while he, the only man who with his extraordinary genius and authority could in our days sustain such a system, is still on the stage, he calls upon the Parliamentary power to propose something better than he had to propose. The truth is that only Bismarck's prestige and energy have stood in the way of Parliamentary, that is, party, government in Germany ever since the Austrian war. It will inevitably come when he is gone, and the great mistake and failure in his splendid career will turn out to be that, while he was in power, he did not train and accustom those who, after him, will have to conduct the Government, to the habits and responsibilities of it.

THE CASE AGAINST MR. GLADSTONE.

LONDON, June 5.

WHEN the Government released Messrs. Parnell and Dillon, and announced what the world considered (though Mr. Gladstone refused to accept the term) a new departure in their Irish policy, they stated that it was to have two sides, as it had had in the preceding year—repression of crime and relief for the peasantry. As in 1881 we had the Coercion Act and the Land Act, so now we were to have some provision for those tenants who were hopelessly in arrear with their rent, together with more stringent measures for the discovery and punishment of crime. Their first idea was to carry out the indulgent part of the programme first, and relieve the tenants before strengthening the law against offenders. When Mr. Forster quitted the Cabinet he announced that he would have remained if they had provided a stringent punitive act in place of the Coercion Act, which they intended to let drop. Mr. Gladstone observed that there must be some legislation against secret societies, but he spoke of it as matter rather for the future, implying that he would proceed first to deal with the case of tenants in arrear. All this was changed by the Phœnix Park murders. English feeling demanded, Irish feeling did not at first seem likely to refuse, something to deal with men capable of so atrocious a crime. Accordingly, the new Prevention of Crime Bill was brought in five days after the murders, and has ever since been pressed on, all other business being set aside for it. The only exception is in the case of the Arrears of Rent Bill, which was also carried to a second reading, and then postponed till the Crime Bill should get through committee. It has now been three days in that stage, and seems likely to remain there for as many weeks, for although the Irish members have not yet entered on any systematic obstruction like that of last year, they seem disposed, and are indeed almost compelled by the exigencies of their own position, to discuss every clause with great fulness, and to propose many amendments tending to modify the rigor of the bill. The Tory party of course welcomes this rigor, and reserves its criticisms for the Arrears Bill, a measure which proposes to pay, first out of the surplus funds of the disestablished Irish Episcopal Church, and next out of the public exchequer of the United Kingdom, a large part of the debts which the smaller tenants owe their landlords from the years 1878 and 1879, when the harvests were exceptionally bad. It is admitted that some measure of the kind is needed, but the particular plan the bill takes is severely criticised, not by the Tories only, but also by many among the Liberals, who apply the strict tests of political economy. To make a gift to tenants in arrear is, it is alleged, unfair to those tenants who, often with great efforts, have already paid their rents. It teaches a bad lesson and sets a dangerous precedent; for whenever again a series of bad seasons arrives, the suffering peasant will rely not on his own exertions, but on the prospect of help from the national treasury. The Conservative leaders—though their sympathy with the Irish landlords, and wish to see the latter get what the bill provides for them, prevent them from offering any strenuous opposition to it—have laid hold of it as the latest development of the mistaken and mischievous plan which Mr. Gladstone has in their view followed throughout his dealings with Ireland. And Lord Grey, one of the most eminent and sharp-tongued of our elder statesmen, once himself a Minister, but long since retired into critical isolation, passes a similar condemnation on the Irish policy of the Liberals, though, to be sure, he thinks the Tories little better. It may be worth while to present to your readers an outline of the case made against Mr. Gladstone and his "policy of conciliation."

Conciliation (say these critics) is another name for concession, and concession has been the great cause of Irish agitation. Up till 1867 the attitude of England had been firm, and though disaffection existed, it was not increasing. But then, under the alarm caused by the great Fenian conspiracy, the Disestablishment movement began, and in 1869 the Protestant Church was disestablished, and the appetite of the Irish populace for revolution thereby whetted. Next, in 1870, came the Land Act of that year, which disturbed and confused the hitherto clear and plain relations of landlord and tenant, giving the latter an interest in the land which no contract had given him, and which was really incompatible with the power the landlord ought to have of dealing as he thinks fit with his own for the purpose of making the most of it. These two measures had the further evil of being avowedly passed in obedience to "Irish ideas"—*i. e.*, to ideas which not only were not those of the whole United Kingdom, but were even opposed to previous principles of policy, and were adopted, not because they were sound, but because the Irish people were possessed by them. In other words, the pernicious doctrine was recognized that Ireland is a quite distinct part of the United Kingdom, to be dealt with in a peculiar way, and that when she asks for anything she is to have it. During the following years these mischiefs had time to bear fruit in the popular mind, but while the Tories were in power (from 1874 to 1880) there were no further concessions. As soon, however, as Mr. Gladstone came into office in 1880, the hopes of the Irish agitators revived. The new Government allowed an act which forbade the possession of arms to expire, and when outrages increased, during the latter part of 1880, used its executive powers timidly, and forbore, till January, 1881, to apply for any further powers. In compliance with the demands of the Land League, which had by this time become a power, it brought in a bill to prevent tenants who had been in arrear with their rent from being evicted, and through Mr. Forster's mouth denounced the House of Lords for refusing to join in depriving landlords of their clear legal rights. In 1881 it passed the famous Land Act, a measure unsound in conception, because opposed to the teachings of political economy, and unjust in operation—a measure which handed over to the tenants a large slice of their landlords' property, which destroyed the action of free contract, and which, by providing for a general reduction of rents, encouraged the hope that rent might be altogether extinguished. Even then, however, the Government refused to pay for defaulting tenants out of the pockets of English taxpayers the debts they had incurred. This last humiliation was reserved for the present session, and has been made at the instance of those very Land League leaders whom the Government had thrown into prison, and whom it has now released in the vain hope of being aided by them to pacify Ireland.

What will be the next concession? Since 1868 every compliance has only led to further demands; and as these demands have been admitted the hopes of the agitators have risen, the appetite of the people has been whetted, and the English Government has slipped further and further down the perilous slope. What is still worse, the means by which these concessions have been wrung have not been argument and reason, they have not been even appeals to pity and benevolence; they have been threats and denunciations in the English Parliament, backed up by murder, treason, and the whole swarm of agrarian outrages in Ireland. This is why concession has aggravated instead of mitigating the situation. The Irish people have felt that it was due not to conviction, but to fear; they have, therefore, been stimulated to increase English fear by more and more flagrant breaches of the law. Their whole character has changed in the process. The old friendliness between them and their landlords, where the landlords were genial men, has been replaced by suspicion and hatred. Disloyalty is more rife than ever, and more ready, as the Phœnix Park assassinations prove, to resort to the most horrible means. The Protestants in Ireland, hitherto attached to England, have lost all confidence in the power of England to protect them. Capital, so much needed in a poor country like Ireland, has been frightened away. No one knows what may come next. When Mr. Gladstone, after vehemently refusing the demand for the three F's (fixity of tenure, free sale, and fair rent), practically conceded them in the beginning of 1881, while denying that they were in his bill, then, at the end of the same year, defended them, and now actually consults Mr. Parnell and brings in such an Arrears Bill as that gentleman writes from Kilmainham Jail to demand, what certainty can there be that he will not next year concede Home Rule, which he has admitted to be a question fit for discussion? And when Home Rule has been granted, will it not be a mere preliminary to the separation of Ireland and the recognition of her national independence?

Even this (the critics of the Government add) is not the whole of the mischief. The Liberal Ministry talks of governing Ireland by Irish ideas. But what are Irish ideas? Are they not something more than Irish? Are they not simply the communistic ideas of the Social-Democrats of the Continent of Europe, the same ideas at bottom as have more than once imperilled society in France, as have stimulated assassination in Germany and Russia? The demand of the peasantry to have the land, which the law declares to belong to their landlord, given to them without paying for it its fair price, is flat Communism. This is the ugliest face that democracy shows; and it is one which the democracy can show in England as well as in Ireland. We have got in England, too, a vast laboring population, at present fairly comfortable, and therefore contented, but liable in a time of commercial depression to be brought to the verge of want. Will not they be ready to profit by the example which Irish agitators have set, and open an assault on property in England like that which has overwhelmed the landowners in Ireland? They will not be checked by appeals to economic doctrine, because they have seen the teachings of political economy derided. They will not quail before the executive authority of Government, for they have discovered that behind the walls and towers which confront them there is a timid garrison, ready to surrender at the first attack, afraid to face the anger of the populace.

Not conciliation, but coercion, is what is wanted in Ireland. Force is wanted—prompt, decisive, unsparing. Soldiers and policemen are wanted, judges, and jailers, and executioners. If the ordinary machinery of the law will not do, let us substitute special commissions of judges for juries. If that will not do, let us have martial law, and take the risk of punishing some innocent people for the sake of putting down disorder. But force is just what a Liberal Government, whose maxim, enunciated by Mr. Bright, is that "Force is no remedy," cannot use. "Radicalism," says Mr. Goldwin Smith, himself a republican—"Radicalism cannot govern." That is to say, the principles of the Liberal party, its deference to the

popular will, its disposition to believe that the mob must be in the right, its aversion to all punishment and all bloodshed, its fondness for new ideas, its want of national pride, make it unfit to deal with a crisis like the present. It is too much distracted by philosophy, too much enfeebled by sentimentalism, to grapple with the hard facts of the case, and apply boldly, unrelentingly the only appropriate remedy. The Government have, no doubt, brought in a stringent measure in their Prevention of Crime Bill But apart from the risk that in deference to the advanced section of their party they may consent to let it be whittled down in committee, they are destroying half the effect of it by carrying through along with it their Arrears Bill, avowedly as a sop to the recalcitrant tenantry, avowedly in obedience to the commands of the Land League. Before anything whatever is done for the peasantry the authority of law and the sovereignty of the Queen ought to be sternly and completely vindicated. Not till then can conciliation cease to be taken, and justly taken, for weakness and cowardice.

These are the doctrines which one hears in London, and to a less extent elsewhere through the country, from those who constitute Society; and not from Tories only, but largely also from persons claiming to be Liberals of that "older and better" school which was untainted by modern Radicalism. Of course, they are often presented in far more violent terms. The hatred of Mr. Gladstone, in particular, has risen to something even beyond its usual height. It is not to be denied that there are some plausible grounds for them. The English Parliament, largely composed of landowners, has dealt with the Irish landlords in a way which no one, three years ago, could have ventured to foretell. We have found ourselves, before we knew it, in the throes of a social revolution. The language held by the Nationalist Irish members in the House of Commons has been usually irritating and sometimes insolent. They have made it very hard for any Government to take their advice; hard even for those Liberal members who have most sympathy with their programme to coöperate with them. Hence it is easy to represent the conduct of the Government, when it does listen to them, as humiliating, and that of members who support them as unpatriotic. Not only do the interests of the English landholding class seem threatened, but the pride of Englishmen of all classes has been affronted by the apparent powerlessness of the law to check outrage. It wanted but little more to produce a panic, and a panic would have driven the present Government from power and evoked a burst of ferocity against Ireland. Still, there is another side to the question, another aspect of these last fourteen years of Irish difficulty. I shall try to lay it before you in another letter. Y.

EGYPT AND ENGLISH OPINION.

LONDON, June 6.

THE opinion of Englishmen in England on the present crisis in Egypt is so far an important factor in the problem, that it is worth analyzing with some care. Having had occasion to return to England on private business just before the overt revolution broke out in Cairo, I have been able to watch all the stages of public opinion in this country, as well as to contrast the opinion of Englishmen here with that of Englishmen in Egypt.

I have been surprised to find how successful Sir W. Gregory and Mr. Wilfrid Blunt have been in diffusing erroneous impressions concerning Arabi Pasha, and in darkening the views of Liberal politicians. In the lobbies of the House of Commons, among newspaper writers, and in the most intelligent political circles, I have found but one opinion—namely, that, somehow or other, there is an important National party in Egypt, that Arabi Pasha personates it as its adequate representative, and that the European intervention, usually known as "the Control," is opposed to, and inconsistent with, the proper development of the ideas and projects of this party. These opinions, however, though universal in Liberal circles, are very loosely held, and every one has professed himself to be imperfectly informed and sincerely desirous of knowing the truth. In one very radical quarter I found the belief to prevail that though there was undoubtedly a National party deserving the vehement sympathy of the lovers of liberty everywhere, yet that Arabi Pasha had, from his military and self-seeking proclivities, ceased to be its representative, and ought to be dissociated from it, in the same way that the two Napoleons had, in their later careers, been unfaithful to the promise of their early days. In one high diplomatic quarter I was positively assured at the beginning of the crisis that it was expected that the next day Arabi would depose the Khedive, that he would act for a time as Governor-General under a firman from Turkey, that this firman would recognize the rights of foreigners resident in the country, and that a European Congress would immediately assemble. Though at first facts seemed to belie this programme to a ridiculous extent, it is remarkable that time has imparted increasing veracity to it. The notion of a Congress, preceded by Turkish intervention for the immediate preservation of order and the upholding of the authority of the military usurpers, has as yet prevailed over every other view, though the maintenance of the present Khedive on the throne is still recognized openly as a diplomatic *sine qua non*.

The ready belief in the veritable existence of a "National party," and the eager support of its claims, find their explanation in a protest, of an honorable kind, against vicious views in relation to Egyptian matters which have done much to distract and pervert the public mind. One of these is that the first duty of the English and French in Egypt is to secure the regular payment of interest to the bondholders. Another view is that England, in the interests of her Indian empire, ought to grasp any opportunity which may offer to annex Egypt, or to secure an influence there not less preponderating than that which it exercises over a variety of native states in India. Yet a third view is that England and France must coöperate at all hazards, even if this implies any amount of truckling to the sinister African policy of France. To these objectionable views may be added that of reinforcing Ottoman influence by allowing Turkey practically to vindicate her abstract right to secure order in one of her provinces.

There is no doubt that these several obnoxious views have persistently been held in many quarters in reference to Egyptian affairs, and that they are not without their vehement advocates in the Conservative press in England and in some of the leading Continental journals. Lord Beaconsfield's Government was credited with an ambitious annexation policy in respect of Egypt, and an Anti-Aggression Society has been organized in London for the express purpose of preventing and defeating all such schemes. Mr. Wilfrid Blunt has just been addressing this Society at a special meeting convened for the purpose, and, though I understand his arguments did not seem very convincing, yet the fact demonstrates the sensitiveness that prevails on the subject. M. Gambetta and his organ, the *République Française*, incessantly deprecate the recognition or use of Turkish influence in Egypt, and a like antipathy to all that is Turkish, though based on very different grounds, is a central point in the foreign policy of the Liberal and Radical party in England.

It is not surprising, therefore, that the wish for some "National party" in Egypt should be, if not the father of the thought, yet a most favorable medium for a rapid and unquestioning belief in the existence of such a party when once casually mooted. The voluble translations of Arabi's vague phrases into the terms of English constitutional politics, and the simultaneous assembling of the Chamber of Notables (an aristocratic body well known to the worst days of Ismail's reign), favored the progress of the gigantic fraud. The early victories of military intimidation were, for a time, successfully disguised as democratic and constitutional triumphs. The mysteries of Egyptian administration—which were only mysteries because no one troubled themselves to read the clear language of Blue-Books and Controllers' and Liquidators' Reports—were supposed to conceal horrid orgies of European fiscal oppression. In fact, they exhibit, when duly studied, miracles of hand-to-hand conflicts on the part of honest administrators with every form of Eastern corruption, injustice, and cruelty. The true story of European intervention in Egypt is that of restricting despotism, of introducing a reign of justice, of abolishing, reducing, regulating, and ameliorating taxes, and of preparing the way—and the only way—by which a horde of crushed slaves can be educated into a civilized and independent nation.

There is no doubt that English opinion is gradually being righted on the whole subject, though the recent history of Egypt is so complicated and tortuous that even the best-informed writers of leading articles know, or seem to know, only a part of the facts. But the statement of Mr. Gladstone in the House of Commons, that Arabi Pasha had now "thrown off the mask," and the utter surrender of all concern for him personally on the part of most of his original English adherents, are proofs that light is breaking in upon what was, certainly, a very dark place. The fact is that the complication of Irish politics, and the reform of the procedure of the House of Commons, have so far absorbed public attention since Parliament met that there has been little spare time or energy for foreign politics, least of all for those requiring much historical study and the correct appreciation of far-reaching, intricate facts.

The contrast between the state of mind in England and that of Englishmen in Alexandria is very noticeable. Though I have discoursed on political affairs with all classes of resident Englishmen in Cairo and Alexandria, I have not found a single one who at any time regarded Arabi Pasha as other than a pure military adventurer, or who had any belief in the existence of any party which, by the most superficial observer, could justly be denominated "national," or who considered that Egyptian administration, as conducted since the accession of the present Khedive, in 1879, was other than the most beneficial of which the country at present admits. No doubt the Administration is capable of receiving all sorts of improvements, readjustment, and retrenchment—as what administration is not?—but the cardinal vices of corruption and injustice, which beset all Oriental governments, have been successfully grappled with, and the danger is that the good be undone instead of being made better. A.

BISMARCK AT FRANKFORT.

BERLIN, June 1, 1882.

SINCE, for a foreign observer, there is not much of real importance in our politics at the present moment, I devote this letter to literary matters, and first report upon a newly-published book which is causing unusual excitement in all political circles. It bears the simple title of 'Prussia in the Bundestag' (the former German Federal Council, created in 1815 and thrust out of existence in 1866), and, by authority and with the assistance of the Prussian State Paper Office, is edited by Dr. von Poschinger. It is intended to give in three volumes a synopsis of the development of German public affairs, and especially of the relations of Prussia to Austria, from 1851 to 1859. This first volume covers the years 1851 to 1854, and begins with the appointment of Herr von Bismarck as Secretary of Legation in Frankfort on May 10, 1851, or more especially his promotion to the Ambassadorship in the same city on July 15, 1851; while it closes with the Crimean War in 1854. As was to be expected from its source, it abounds in a large number of important official documents written by Bismarck. Up to that time the insignificant dikemaster had not been of any consequence. While, in 1848, member of the Prussian Landtag, he was not taken for a serious man. Being a reactionary Hotspur, he provoked the Opposition, threatened them with the guillotine if his party should come out victorious, visited public houses in Berlin and picked quarrels in the interest of the royal family. If the *Kreuz-Zeitung* (reactionary), of which he was one of the collaborators during the revolutionary period, can be trusted, the present powerful Chancellor was so poor in 1849 that his party, for the services rendered to it, presented him with a new suit of black clothes. But with his appointment to a public office the scene instantly changed. He was hardly thirty-six years old when he assumed the responsibility of the important office of Ambassador. He immediately proved that he was a man of superior timber, who, like an old, experienced diplomatist, acted with perfect self-assurance among all the practised old fogies of the Diet.

The very first documents of the young diplomatist show all the advantages which the great statesman commanded at a later period. The affairs upon which Bismarck entered in Frankfort were very complicated. After her moral and political defeat, Prussia was not considered of such importance as she should have been, and only acted a secondary part with all the other smaller states. Austria presided and used her influence chiefly to put down Prussia. Until 1848 the two Powers had lived on comparatively friendly terms; the former often left to Prussia the details of the business, and only kept an eye on her own interests and prerogatives, which she rather sought to enlarge than to have them touched by other influences. But when in 1848 it appeared that the German nation principally looked to Prussia and depended on her for its unity and greatness, Austria and the small states under her leadership were filled with suspicion and distrust against Prussia, notwithstanding Frederic William IV. had rejected the imperial crown. Henceforth Austria considered it her chief object not to let the dangerous Prussia gain ground. Austria's privileged position in the Bundestag offered a thousand occasions for humbling and pushing back Prussia, whose representatives at Frankfort had hitherto submitted with good grace to Austrian arrogance. Bismarck was not the man to follow in their footsteps, and by his pluck soon made himself obnoxious and inconvenient to such experienced diplomatists as Münch-Bellinghausen and Prokesch-Osten. Bismarck's attacks were principally directed against the latter, who slandered his older colleague in every possible way. It is very fortunate that Bismarck began his diplomatic career in Frankfort and became acquainted with the miserable constitution of the German Confederation at its source. Had he been employed as a diplomatist only at foreign courts, his later tendencies would perhaps have taken quite another direction than they actually did. But in Frankfort he personally suffered so much from the Bundestag's *misère* that afterward it became his first object to put an end to it. In the published documents of that time the German standpoint in no way clearly appears; only the Prussian one is emphasized. But you must consider that these papers were directed to Secretary Manteuffel, to whom, as to all Conservatives, the German idea was a horror.

Baron Prokesch's policy against Prussia has since been put down, but unhappily the principles by which he was guided, and the tactics employed by him, which Bismarck indignantly describes and rightly condemns, seem to have found followers, for at the present day we see them often applied, not only in foreign, but also in home politics. It is highly interesting to observe the then unknown gentleman in his official reports and private notes, to follow his way of thinking, reasoning, and acting. He writes an excellent style—terse, comprehensive, and vigorous; never misses the right word, and always hits the mark. His descriptions and characterizations are full of reality, good-humored softness, and bitter severity. Again and again he reverts to his subject in other and not less clever words, and leaves the impression that everything that could have been said about it has been said. I here give as an example of Bismarck's power of characterization his portrait of Herr von Prokesch in a confidential letter written on May 30, 1853, to Baron Manteuffel, the then weak and pusillanimous Secretary of Foreign Affairs:

"Herr von Prokesch," Bismarck says, "is too well known in Berlin to require any allusions to his person; but I cannot help remarking that the sereneness and ease with which he affirms false facts, or disputes correct ones, greatly surpasses even my highest expectations. This state of mind finds its completion in a quite surprising degree of cold-bloodedness in dropping a topic, or in changing front as soon as the falsehood with which he starts is proved. In case of need he covers his retreat by flying into a violent passion, by a parade of moral indignation, or by a rather personal attack, with which he transfers the discussion to a new and heterogeneous field. His principal weapons in the petty war which, where our interests diverge, I have to carry on with him, are (1) passive resistance—*i. e.*, protracting a case—by which policy he forces me into the rôle of a disturbing and (according to the nature of the case) a narrow-minded dunner; (2) attacks by his encroachments, accomplished as President, which usually are so calculated as to make their rejection on my part appear that of a quarrelsome character, contentious about trifles. In my relations to him I can therefore hardly avoid the appearance of a petulant disposition if I would not prejudice the interests of Prussia to such an extent that my yielding would still increase Austria's claims.

"Thus, the other day I was compelled to call him to account for having arbitrarily contracted a loan of 37,000 florins for fortification purposes, on which occasion he referred to 'hundreds' of precedents, of which, however, he could not specify a single one. Thereupon he asserted that a certain discretionary power of the President was necessary for carrying on business matters; that in the time of Count Münch (Prokesch's predecessor) no member of the Diet would have dared to call its attention to such trifles, and that a good understanding between Prussia and Austria could not be maintained if every act of the President was exposed to malevolent criticism on the part of the Prussian Ambassador. My refutation of these views caused him to answer, that my (temporary) Presidency had not been examined in all its details, and that he calmly awaited the resolution of the Diet, which he was sure would not disavow the acts of the President. If, however, contrary to his expectations, it should do so, he would pay out of his own pocket the trifling interest which had accrued in the meantime. I answered that the latter way appeared to be the only agreeable and best solution of the present difficulty, and that I would most cheerfully contribute my share rather than act officially in a case which my Government would not and could not sanction. The smallness of the object would thus help us to do away with a precedent which, if now passed over without objection, might in future easily be repeated and extended. I have thus checked the Ambassador, and put him back into his proper limits with that energy which, in the nature of the case, I am entitled to exhibit, and I have at the same time done everything in my power to lead back the discussion into the track of friendly understanding."

On another occasion Bismarck writes:

"Even a common difference of opinion he treats as incomprehensible and ill-natured, but a denial of the lawfulness of his enterprises he considers a personal offence; so that a quiet discussion upon such divergences is quite impossible, as he immediately takes to general protestations, wholly extraneous counter-charges and suspicions, and becomes excited to unpoliteness—whether from calculation or from fault of temperament I cannot decide."

It is impossible to give many extracts from this valuable collection. I should be at a loss to make a proper selection, and besides, the letters enter too much into the details of a period which has no other interest for a foreign reader than to show the method in which Bismarck shuffled the cards twelve years before the war of Prussia against Austria broke out. Without him, the old relations between the two Powers would still exist—namely, Prussia would still follow in the rear of Austria. Let me, however, quote one other instance of Bismarck's diplomatic coolness and foresight. In January, 1854, Herr Prokesch-Osten sold an old bureau without having first emptied it. The purchaser found its drawers full of important state papers, such as correspondence of the Austrian Ambassador with press and political agents hostile to Prussia, with drafts of reports to his Government, newspaper articles written by him which offensively attacked the person of Frederic William IV., and that at a time when Prokesch was the accredited Austrian Minister at the Court of Berlin. The great majority of these papers were so venomous that when published they were taken for the outflow of radical rage. Nothing could have come more apropos to Bismarck than to have these rich treasures offered and sold to him. He was thus enabled to characterize Prokesch's diplomacy in his own words. Manteuffel, to whom Bismarck had reported his good luck, asked him how he proposed to avail himself of it; whereupon the young diplomatist answered on February 2 as follows:

"The moment that we succeed in disposing the Imperial Cabinet to a policy with which we can sincerely go hand in hand, and which contains in itself the guarantee of its permanence, it will be very desirable to have Baron Prokesch recalled from here; but as long as on the field of federal policy we are more rivals than allies, I consider Baron Prokesch a less dangerous representative than any *persona grata*. The appointment of such a *persona grata* would be highly charged on our debit side by Austria. His successor would, perhaps, conceal the anti-Prussian tendencies of his instructions with more dexterity and taste, and at the same time be more clever in their execution, than the present President of the Diet; the more so, as the successor would secure for himself in a higher degree the esteem and the confidence of his colleagues. My humble vote, therefore, is not to make use of our discovery to attack the person of Baron Prokesch and to drive him out of his present office, but, on the contrary, to derive as much advantage as possible from our good luck by making him feel uneasy in his position, and by so far acquainting our allies in a confidential way with the facts at our command that our patience and forbearance will appear in the most favorable light. I would likewise recommend you to inform the Vienna Cabinet, indirectly and unofficially, that we have the most convincing proofs of the Austrian intrigues against us which have hitherto constantly been denied, and of the real sentiments

which these intriguers entertain even against the august person of His Majesty the King.

"Another great advantage, which, in my opinion, is not the least we can derive from the materials in our hands, will consist in our making public the source from which public opinion is worked on in the Austrian sense, and thus giving open proof of the value of those political convictions which manifest their German patriotism by extolling Austria and vilifying Prussia. I have not an official publication in view, nor a verbal reprint of the calumniating articles. My plan of operation would be to throw out the first hints in a very unsuspicious newspaper, and as if our documents were in private possession, and to print in one or more articles the essential contents of the *species facti*. Perhaps the *Preussisches Wochenblatt* would do best if your Excellency should also think fit to take one of the editors into our confidence. When the transactions between Herr von Prokesch and his agents become known, they will effect a strong reaction on public opinion in relation to those articles which have been written in favor of Austria. The irritation with which a few months ago, some hints were received about the Austrian inspiration of the German press already now proves that I am correct. . . . I would, therefore, most humbly propose to feign that by the article or articles to be published the attention of our Government had been directed to its or their source, and that in this way we had obtained official knowledge of the materials, which, in the manner alluded to, could likewise be used for further ends."

Here the above correspondence has been received with a mixed feeling of admiration and pity. While Bismarck's letters, on one side, exhibit the greatness of the statesman, on the other they show the limits which such greatness imposes. We find in them the traces of that utter contempt of men whom, when using them as his tools, he always supposes to be directed by selfish motives and low ambition. In relation to diplomatic transactions, agrarian tendencies, and manufacturing interests, he may be right; but that our people, and especially our Parliaments, are so destitute of honest and unselfish characters, Bismarck himself will not and cannot pretend. Like Napoleon, he only knows how to reckon with the mean instincts of human nature; he laughs at the elevation of noble minds, of ideal aims. Independent men turn away from him more and more, and even among the Government officers he can only command the assistance of subordinate characters, clerks and "Streber," while men of self-respect hold back. His calculations have proved wrong several times and produced political failures, if not in our foreign, in our home policy. The defeat of his pet measures on the politico-economical field should have given him a warning. † † †

Correspondence.

THE LABORER'S QUESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Justin McCarthy, in the *Tribune*, gives the following as the objects of the Irish Land League:

"It aimed at the extinction of landlordism in Ireland: not the extinction or extirpation of the landlords, but the abolition of the landlord system and the introduction of a peasant proprietary system which should leave the land of Ireland in the hands of one set of owners, each occupant being the proprietor of the ground he tilled and improved."

He also says:

"There are about 600,000 occupying tenant-farmers, and rather more than 500,000 laborers."

Passing by the neat distinction between extinguished landlordism and extinguished landlords (which some landlords may appreciate), I would ask why the laborers also are not to become proprietors of the ground they till, sharing with the new "set of owners" in the ratio of five to six, taking so much of each farm? How else is there to be an "extinction of landlordism"?

Anti-Landlord.

Notes.

It has not been made clear, it seems, that the national dollar-subscription in honor of the poet Longfellow is not restricted to contributions of that amount. Any larger sum than one dollar will be gladly received by the Committee on Collections, and may be sent to the Treasurer, Mr. John Bartlett, Box 1590, Boston, Mass., or, as already announced, to the Publisher of the *Nation*.

Cassell & Co. publish immediately a new and cheap edition, in cloth, of Richard Jeffries's 'Wood Magic.'

With the fifth volume, 'Condensed Novels and Stories,' and by no means with an anti-climax, ends the uniform edition of Bret Harte's works published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Any author should rejoice in such a handsome memorial of his genius. The same firm announce for the autumn a 'Life of Ole Bull,' by his widow, and for speedy publication a new volume of poems by Longfellow, embracing all those written after "Ultima Thule," and several not heretofore printed. The title, 'In the Harbor: Ultima Thule, Part II.,' was chosen by the poet himself.

A. D. F. Randolph & Co. send us artotype likenesses of Longfellow and Emerson, after drawings by T. de Codezo. As these apparently follow either photographic or other original portraits, there is little motive for putting up with second and third-hand performances which are, moreover, not remarkable in themselves.

Better than the foregoing Longfellow is the lithographic drawing by Peter Calvi, issued by R. H. Curran & Co., 12 Pemberton Square, Boston. It is a correct if not an inspired work, but in framing it it would be well to shut out the bust, which is very inartistically rendered.

Still another likeness, an etching by W. M. Chase, appears in part 7 of the serial *American Etchings*, edited by Ernest Knaufft and published by the *Art Interchange* Publishing Co. It is a ghostly profile seen against an almost black background, so that the effect is nearly that of a medallion. The drawing is forcible.

The second volume of Mr. Pierre Irving's 'Life and Letters of Washington Irving' ("Geoffrey Crayon" edition) has just been published by G. P. Putnam's Sons. On p. 336 will be found a letter of Irving's, written in 1840, throwing his weight in favor of an international copyright law. After half a century its appeal is still as necessary as it was originally.

Dr. J. G. Holland's 'Nicholas Minturn' and 'Miss Gilbert's Career' are the latest additions to the Messrs. Scribners' uniform reprint of that author's works. The same firm have issued a collection of 'Westminster Sermons,' by the late Dean Stanley, five of which relate to the Abbey itself, six to royal and national events (such as the Prince of Wales's critical illness in 1871, and his setting out for and return from India in 1875-76), fifteen to eminent Englishmen who had passed away—from Palmerston to Beaconsfield—and seven to miscellaneous subjects, like Paris under the Commune and American Independence. The range of topics is great enough to illuminate every one of the Dean's mental characteristics. On reading his sermon on Lyell, "The Religious Aspect of Geology," one can but wish he might have survived to preach a funeral discourse over Darwin.

Harper & Brothers have done well to combine in one volume, for their Franklin Square Library, three volumes of the "English Men of Letters" series—viz., Pattison's Milton, Leslie Stephen's Pope, and Goldwin Smith's Cowper. Still other such combinations are in progress. They have also prepared a special 'Tourist's Edition' of Drake's 'Heart of the White Mountains,' with Mr. Gibson's exceptionally fine illustrations, in which the chief sacrifice is one of margins, due consideration being had for the tourist's trunk or bag. The book remains a very beautiful one, and is provided with a map of the White Mountain region.

Estes & Lauriat, Boston, have now brought out the 'Coues Check List of North American Birds' in the revised second edition which we announced last April. It is an eminently handsome book, with an old-fashioned garrulous title, and most carefully considered in choice of type, size of page, and the more precious details of literal accuracy. It opens with a dissertation on the use of names, and when the numbered check-list is reached, every name is repeated in a foot-note scrupulously marking its pronunciation (on the compromise system proposed by the author), and interpreting its significance. These notes are highly interesting, and imply a vast amount of labor, which has been shared by Mrs. Weston-Aiken. There is a list of the words defined, and a catalogue of Dr. Coues's ornithological publications. The scheme of this 'Check-list' seems admirably calculated to reconcile youthful naturalists to the scientific nomenclature, as well as to protect the untrained adult from egregious errors in orthography and orthoepy.

Our historical magazines being too prone to neglect everything later than the Revolution, it is refreshing to find a long defence of President Tyler by his son in the June number of the *Magazine of American History*. The paper is not the work of an historical mind, but it is worth reading. President Tyler's title to be the great original Texas annexationist, on grounds absolutely independent of slavery, and by means equally devoid of public morality, is asserted with a heartiness which only extracts can illustrate. "He [Tyler] was a man, indeed, . . . on practical questions always right" (p. 394). "If . . . success is to be attributed to the importance of the results achieved, what administration, from Washington's down, can compare with it?" (p. 398).

Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, have just issued an interesting catalogue of Shaksperiana and of books about the stage, most of which are still in print, but scattered about in the catalogues of various American and English publishers. A catalogue of 536 numbers of books relating to the theatre, music, and art has been put forth by the old book-store of Stoll & Bader, in Freiburg, Baden, and another of 603 numbers, relating to music and the drama, by Nijhoff, of the Hague. Both of these foreign catalogues are cosmopolitan and polyglot; the latter is especially rich in the Dutch drama.

The latest issue of the English Dialect Society, being the conclusion of Nodal and Milner's 'Glossary of the Lancashire Dialect' (London: Trübner & Co.) calls for no special comment. In the ninth annual report, prefixed to the volume, mention is made of the tracing of the lines between the southern and midland, and midland and northern dialects in England, based on the treatment, in each division, of the Anglo-Saxon short and long U in *some house*. This shibboleth, beginning in the South and ending in the Scottish Lowlands, is successively pronounced *sum house, sŏŏm house, sŏŏm hōōss*, and *sum hōōss*. "Of course," says Mr. A. J. Ellis, "the four districts above described are essentially of to-day; six hundred years ago all said *sŏŏm hōōss* [*i. e.*, Northern English]."

Part 16-23 of the new 'Brockhaus's Conversa-

tions-Lexikon' (New York: L. W. Schmidt) carry the work to and a little beyond the name of the great African explorer, Barth. The more significant articles are on Asia, Australia, Atlantic Ocean (all accompanied with maps), Ashantee, Ethiopia, Athens (with a plan, and with views of the Acropolis), Assyria (with a plate of antiquities), Architecture (with many plates), Banks, Baden, and Eye. Ethnographical plates also illustrate the articles on Asia and Australia. In biography this part of the alphabet is notoriously meagre.

Not content with annexing Alsace-Lorraine territorially, the Germans are proceeding to annex the Alsatian literature, beginning with Erckmann-Chatrian. The prospectus of a German translation of their romances declares that as these literary Siamese twins have a name half French, half German, their writings may be properly considered as German stories in a French clothing. The German publisher merely proposes to restore to them their proper habit. What will M. Arvède Barine say to this? Erckmann-Chatrian of all writers! Recall the 'Histoire d'un Paysan,' the 'Conscrit de 1813,' and the 'Invasion.' France some time ago lost Charlemagne from her list of great kings; if this new appropriation succeeds, Napoleon also must be surrendered to the enemy.

From the *Journal de la Jeunesse* M. Charles Joliet has reprinted in a neat little volume of 216 pp. 'Mille Jeux d'Esprit' (Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern), a collection of questions and puzzles—acrostics, rebuses, charades, square words, etc., cryptographic, alphabetic, and arithmetic curiosities, etc., *bouts-rimés*, and the like. Solutions are given in the second part. The book may be recommended to all children who are sufficiently advanced in French to be able to make use of it, and sufficiently fond of solving difficulties to enjoy it.

A discussion in *Nature* of the mildness of last winter in England justly ascribes it to the unusual violence of the southwesterly storms there prevailing. When this has been said often enough, geographers will begin to reflect that it is not the Gulf Stream that imparts to Western Europe its temperate winters, but rather its situation eastward (and therefore leeward) of an ocean which moderates, as do all oceans, the climate of any region fortunate enough to derive its prevalent winds from off the water.

—In the *Atlantic* for July Mr. Thomas Hardy carries the adventures of his astronomer and lady in "Two on a Tower" several steps forward, and introduces a page or two of conversation between Sammy Blore, Hezzy Biles, Nat Chapman, and Haymoss which has a queer echo of the talk of Shakspere's clowns and bumpkins. This has been a peculiarity of Mr. Hardy since he first made a success with it in 'Under the Greenwood Tree.' Notwithstanding what Mr. Matthew Arnold would call a note of falsity, there is underneath it a certain probability in the peasant types into whose mouths it is put, that makes it sometimes very entertaining. Mr. Hardy's characters in all classes of society, indeed, have much that is human in them, although their humanity has a strong literary cast. Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge, in a valuable article on "Naval Courts-Martial and the Pardoning Power," proves by indisputable statistics what has been merely surmised before, that the abuse of the pardoning power is beginning to have a shocking effect on the discipline of the Navy. For seventeen years since the close of the war sixty per cent. of the sentences of naval courts-martial have been reversed, set aside, or commuted, or in some way unexecuted; in the last few years the condition of things has become fairly deplorable. Down to 1877 the percentage of unexecuted sentences was reasonably constant—not far from fifty-four per cent. But in the last four years the percentage of sentences unexecuted rises to 79.4, while in 1880, of twelve cases of commissioned officers sentenced, every sentence was either set aside or remitted, or commuted to an extent equivalent to setting aside. Most of these cases were for drunkenness and scandalous conduct. Mr. Lodge evolves from the statistics a regular "law" with regard to the matter, that "high rank joined with a severe sentence is almost sure to bring some form of pardon." As the rank declines, the severity of the sentence has less and less apparent effect. "But low rank and a heavy sentence fare far better than low rank and a moderate or light sentence." The inference is inevitable that "in the majority of cases pardon or remission depends on the position of the culprit, the amount of pity excited by the weight of the sentence, and the quantity of influence which can be brought to bear." With these facts before us, it looks as if the petition presented to the Senate by some three hundred officers of all ranks in the Navy, praying that the practice of interfering with the sentences of courts-martial may be stopped, ought to receive some attention. Mr. Lodge thinks that the pardoning power itself should be restricted by law, but he does not explain how this can be done under the Constitution.

—Mr. William Henry Bishop's "House of a Merchant Prince" is continued through two chapters, in one of which is a more than usually clever conversation of the "platonic" variety—one of those conversations between a man and woman based on a professed friendship, but made interesting only by the tacit recognition of a sentiment of a different nature. Jay Gould, if he will take the trouble to read Mr. Henry D. Lloyd's article on the "Political Economy of Seventy-three Million Dollars," will find himself accounted for in a very different way from the simple explanation that used to be given by his partner, Jim Fisk. Gould's career, according to Mr. Lloyd, "illustrates what may be accomplished by a scientific devotion to the principles of competition, *laissez-faire*, desire of wealth, and self-interest, if not the harmony of interests." In other words, Gould's acquisition of his immense wealth is due to political economy, and political economy is all bosh. Such is Mr. Lloyd's contribution to the warfare carried on in England against the *laissez-faire* school. We fear, however, that even Ruskin will repudiate this volunteer. Gould is the product of corrupt courts and legislatures, and no economist of any school ever taught that the principle of *laissez-faire* covered the right to bribe judges or "gobble" railroads, any more than it does the right to rob and murder on the highway. Mr. Harrison continues his studies in the South, and discusses in an interesting manner the interference with the freedom of the ballot in the black districts of Mississippi, Southern Alabama, and Louisiana. About the facts there is no dispute. The whites prevent the negroes from voting, or else falsify the count, and thus keep the government in white hands. This was universally admitted, Mr. Harrison says, in conversation, and defended as necessary for the preservation of society. Black government would mean anarchy and chaos, the whites say, and advance many reasons for thinking so; none of these, however, are so strong as the character given the negro population by Mr. Harrison, himself a strong anti-slavery man:

"As to any knowledge, intelligence, or judgment, such as should equip a man, even in the lowest degree, for the exercise of the right or power of suffrage, I cannot see that they know anything about it, or possess it any more than sheep do. If by a vote we mean, according to the definition long ago enunciated by Horace Greeley, 'that by which the will, preference, or opinion of a person is expressed'; if we mean anything which is the voluntary and purposed act of a man, with the object of announcing a decision, choice, or judgment which he has formed or arrived at, then these negroes are not able to vote, and do not vote. They have the 'right' to vote under the law, but they have no real power or ability to vote. They do not and cannot choose; they have no knowledge of what is involved on one side or the other. They have no materials for an opinion or judgment, nor any ability to form a preference or decision regarding political matters. They know nothing of the position, doctrines, history, traditions, or aims of either party, and they have no idea or notion whatever of their respective merits or principles."

Mr. Longfellow's poem, "The Bells of San Blas," has an interest as being the last verse written by him.

—There are two musical articles in *Harper's* for July. The first is ostensibly on "Franz Liszt," but those who expect a sketch of interesting events in the pianist's life based on his recently published biography and collected writings will be disappointed. It is one of those flimsy articles whose chief aim seems to be to impress the reader with the fact that the writer met Liszt on a certain occasion, and talked to him, and was kissed on the forehead, and got a parting gift of violets. A specimen of the style needs no comment: "Was the master thinking of Chopin as he raised his superb hands, and let them fall, with a touch as delicately soft as rose-leaves, and weave, as if in dreaming, the memories of mountain lakes and pine forests into an improvisation full of starry minors from echoing Alpen-horns?"—whatever this may mean. The second article is on "Sailor Songs," and is much better. Although there are still sailors in abundance, the typical "Jack" of the pre-propeller age—the "packetarian" and the seaman of the clipper-ship fleet—has utterly vanished, according to the author, whose aim has been to secure for the benefit of posterity some of the wild melodies characteristic of the old sailors from the few specimens still lingering in marine museums or hospitals. The sailor songs are not like those of civilized men. "They breathe the wild freedom of the jungle, and are as elusive as the furrow left by a ship on the trackless ocean." Many of them are doubtless of negro origin, having been caught by the sailors from slaves working in Southern ships. "Dixie" is cited to give an idea of their proximate character, and more than a dozen of them are printed in musical notation, although "no true idea can be given on paper of the wonderful shading which shanty men of real genius sometimes gave" their songs, by their subtle variations of time and rhythm and expression. The songs are divided into two classes — pulling-songs and windlass-songs, the former being used as mechanical aids to work, the latter more elaborate and varied both in the solo part and the chorus. The illustrated articles are excellent in various ways. Mr. Henry W. Lucy touches off the characteristics of the leaders of the two parties in England from a Liberal point of view, but in a fair spirit, and with the aid of an extensive portrait-gallery. Another type of faces is reproduced in connection with Mr. G. W. Sheldon's article on "The Old Shipbuilders of New York"—an article not more entertaining than mortifying when one reflects that there are no successors to the Berghs, Steerses, Webbs, Browns, and Westervelts, and on the causes of the "fault" in the succession. The recent astonishing discoveries of royal tombs in Egypt are related by Miss Amelia B. Edwards; and the mummy-cases, the kingly mummy faces even, the funeral canopy, and much else, are shown in capital

engravings. Mr. Julian Hawthorne contributes some brief thoughts on the late Mr. Emerson, dwelling rightly on his essentially American character, on the rare quality of his oratory, and on the still rarer quality of his verse. A full-page woodcut by Closson, after Rowse's well-known crayon likeness of the poet, will go far to satisfy those admirers who have not been fortunate enough, and are not able, to procure Schoff's masterly steel engraving from the same original.

—Some remarks on "Our Geographical Nomenclature," by the retiring President of the Boston Appalachian Mountain Club, are printed in the first number of the third volume of *Appalachia*. With many of Mr. Fay's strictures all must agree; but his general dislike to descriptive, and preference for personal, names, especially in the case of mountains, does not seem wholly reasonable. He gives a black list of names of streams west of the 100th meridian, as combining "every shade of unsuggestiveness and poor taste"; yet, except for the possibility of repetition in so vast a country, we could not find it in our heart to object to one-sixth part of them. Grey Bull, Mussel-Shell, Bad Land, Red Willow, and Long Pine, for example, do not seem to call for any apology, and do, on the contrary, wear a prima-facie justification as being associated with natural features, or with incidents which are not ignoble simply because they are solitary and forgotten. A poet may build on Grey Bull River as surely as on Hartleap Well; and it is, in fact, a poetical feeling which applies such an epithet as "Jack-straw" to the region of confused dead timber on Pike's Peak noticed by Mr. Stearns on page 40 of *Appalachia*: the metaphor is perfect. Doubtless somewhere the name "Leadhole" occurs in our mining districts; and this is every whit as defensible, if not quite as euphonious, as the Buco del Piombo near Erba in Lombardy, visited by Mr. Henck, and described on page 14 of the present number. In short, the best as well as the worst names arise spontaneously, and the whimsies of the learned and fastidious are as much to be dreaded—witness the town nomenclature of Central New York, or the original hybrid name "Losantiville" proposed for Cincinnati—as the vulgarity of the miner and the frontier backwoodsman. The only safe censorship, on the other hand, is that of the Post-office Department, which can do something to reduce or to prevent the perplexing multiplicity of identical names. In saying this, we do not mean to deny the Appalachian Club the right to propose names for peaks hitherto undistinguished.

—There is hardly an article in the present number of *Appalachia* in which the general reader cannot take an interest. Besides the President's address, we may mention Mr. Henck's account of his visit to Milan as delegate to the fourteenth annual congress of the Italian Alpine Club; Mr. Stearns's "Ascent of Pike's Peak"; Mr. Ritchie's "Winter Excursion to the White Mountains"; Mr. Davis's "Little Mountains East of the Catskills," which, with its illustrations, will prove a very instructive guide to those who summer among these mountains; Mr. Edmands's "Mountains between Saco and Swift Rivers"; and Mr. Wm. H. Pickering's description of his new contour map of the Presidential Range. This important map also accompanies a handy little 'Walking Guide to the Mt. Washington Range' just published by Mr. Pickering (Boston: A. Williams & Co.), which opens with some capital advice to pedestrians, then enumerates the distant points visible from Mt. Washington, with compass bearings (the most distant is Ebene Mountain in Maine, 135 miles; the next, Mt. Whiteface, in the Adirondacks, 130 miles), gives a list of elevations, and describes eighteen different excursions, with approximate time of achieving them. It would be superfluous to predict that this guide-book will prove a great stimulus, as well as a great safeguard, to White Mountain pedestrianism, and indeed it should be a *sine qua non* to all tourists who wish to determine the innumerable peaks, valleys, and ravines seen from the more famous trails and summits of the Presidential Range.

—The celebration of Mrs. Stowe's seventieth birthday on June 14, in Massachusetts, by the publishers of the *Atlantic Monthly* and a number of her literary, philanthropic, and theological friends, was a graceful reminder not only of the rapidity with which the number of those who bore the brunt of the anti-slavery conflict is diminishing, but of the enormous changes, both social and political and moral, which they themselves have seen and been a part of. Since 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' appeared, the political and scientific world has undergone great revolutions, but hardly so great as the moral world. Anybody who takes up the book now, and has any difficulty in finding in it, as a piece of literary work, the reason of the enormous success which it achieved, may take it for granted that he knows nothing of the state of mind in which its earliest public received it, or of the mental and moral conditions of a society in which negro slavery had powerful defenders in every walk of life, and in which its ultimate abolition seemed too far off to be within the sphere of practical politics. The greatest peculiarity in the lot of the anti-slavery champions who are now so rapidly passing to their final rest, lies in the fact that while other reformers as well as they have seen their reform triumph, no others have seen the very beginning and the very ending of so stupendous a reform in their own lifetime. No others ever saw, within a single generation, the idea of a few "fanatics" take hold of the resources of a great nation, cover the waters with its fleets, and darken the land with its armies, and get itself proclaimed by the throats of a thousand guns. All this, however, Mrs. Stowe has witnessed. Her book was very fortunate in its opportuneness. It came into a world that was apparently waiting for it with such eagerness that it would probably have had a great success even if its literary charm had been less than it was. It is now probably about to achieve a second and no less remarkable success as an historical reminiscence. It is not simply, like most historical romances, a mere picture. It was really in itself one of the weapons in a great fight. Consequently, as long as the story of the fight is told, it will be read, not simply as a description of what caused it all, but as itself one of the causes. It must always remain one of the monuments of literature, and, perhaps, the only striking and enduring literary monument of the anti-slavery struggle. In other products of the anti-slavery pen, everything was sacrificed to the immediate effect on the contest. But Mrs. Stowe's book successfully recognized also the claims of art, and has thus secured for her a wider and more enduring fame than has fallen to the lot of the other writers in the same field.

—The Archæological Institute of America, if if had merely set an example of book-making like that of the first volume of its Papers (Classical Series), would have conferred a substantial benefit. We have not, indeed, in a long time seen a more tasteful and inviting book than Mr. Joseph Thacher Clarke's 'Report on the Investigations at Assos, 1881,' conducted under the auspices of the Society. The only fault we can find with it is the too glossy surface of the paper, but the error in this direction is very slight. Mr. Clarke's modest narrative of what has been achieved in the Troad is remarkable for its learning and for its literary quality, the one not overweighting the other. It is eminently readable, and nothing has been omitted in the way of maps and illustrations to make clear the site, the conditions, and the progress of the excavations. The historical preparation of the expedition has been most ample and intelligent, and topographically, artistically, and archæologically the little group of explorers seems to have been strong and capable. Mr. Clarke describes the inevitable Turkish obstacles to the work—the bad faith, the false assumption of authority, the attempts at blackmail by the authorities. He notes the growing ascendancy of the Greek population in the Troad, notwithstanding all adverse influences, and the steady retreat of the non agricultural Moslem. Both races were employed as workmen, and became emulous of each other; the Turks, though inferior on the whole, receive honorable mention, with pity for their exhausting fasts in the observance of the Ramazàn. The best previous description of the remains at Assos was found to be that of Baron Prokesch-Osten, whom Bismarck took such satisfaction in badgering at Frankfort. The French Texier, on the other hand, drew inordinately on his inner consciousness, and is the object of much censure and exposure on the part of Mr. Clarke. The delimitation and ideal restoration of the Doric Temple on the acropolis at Assos was the principal achievement of the expedition last year. Fragments of sculpture were discovered matching and supplementing those already in the Louvre, and sufficient remains, after Turkish spoliation, of the bases, capitals, and drums of the columns to determine that there was no entasis in these, as there was no perceptible curvature in the stylobate. In these particulars, and in some others, the divergence from the Parthenon was considerable. The carvings of the frieze and of the metopes were decidedly archaic, yet their age is variously estimated by scholars. Some primitive polygonal masonry occurs in a neighboring fortification known as the "Seaward Acropolis." Mr. Clarke ventures the suggestion that the Pedasos sacked by Achilles ('Iliad,' xx. 92) should be identified with Assos, not simply on the theory of phonetic decay, but in consideration of the geographical context of the passage alluded to. We have not room to carry further our synopsis of this highly interesting volume, so creditable to all concerned in its production. Mr. Francis Henry Bacon's delicate and picturesque delineations deserve all praise. An appendix contains the inscriptions found at Assos, the most important being that on a bronze plate celebrating the accession of Caligula; some lively notes of travel to the disputed sites of Troy, etc., Homer in hand, by Wm. C. Lawton; and, finally, a report on the geology of Assos (the acropolis is a crater) by J. S. Diller.

—Mr. Berens's 'Myths and Legends of Ancient Greece and Rome' (Clark & Maynard) possesses a good deal of merit. The stories are told with unusual spirit, so that this little book will be found attractive to young students; it is well illustrated from ancient sculptures (many of the illustrations being, however, rather too small); and it contains a very good account of Roman mythology—we know none so good in English. It would have been better to put the Roman mythology as a whole by itself. This would have enabled the student to obtain, what it is now so hard to get, a connected idea of this little-known subject. The arrangement followed in this book, on the other hand, has the advantage of affording an easy comparison of Greek and Roman mythology, where Minerva, for example, follows directly upon Athene. The text is generally very

correct. It is strange that the worship of Cybele (p. 18) is associated with Crete rather than Phrygia, as Rhea the Great Mother was worshipped in Crete, but Cybele (her name Berecynthia is not given), with the troupe of Corybantes and the myth of Attis, belongs to Asia Minor. Comus is given, p. 184, as a Roman god: if he was a divinity at all, he was Greek, not Roman, and but for Milton we should never think of him as belonging to the classical pantheon. There is a very good chapter upon the public worship of the Greeks and Romans, in which, however, hardly anything distinctively Roman is mentioned; and this deficiency is still more apparent in the chapter upon Festivals which follows, the only Roman festivals mentioned being the Saturnalia, Cerealia, and Vestalia.

—The Society for Photographing Relics of Old London has issued this year (its eighth) to its subscribers a series for the most part consisting of the architectural works of Inigo Jones. It has been moved to such a choice by the destruction during the past twelvemonth of Shaftesbury House, in Aldersgate Street, one of Jones's designs, which the Society had already photographed (No. 32), and by changes in and threatened demolition of other monuments by the same hand. It appears to have staved off the latter fate from Ashburnham House, until recently owned by the Dean and Chapter of Westminster, and meantime it has obtained views within and without of this interesting building, and now sends them forth, with the effect, it is to be hoped, of confirming the temporary arrest of the destroying spirit. Six of the twelve plates (62–67) relate to Ashburnham House, which, as is known from engravings and drawings of the last century and the first decade of the present, has had a second story added to it, and been otherwise altered in recent years. The south transept of the Abbey, the roof of the Chapter House, and the eastern wing of Ashburnham House, all enter into the view (No. 61) of Little Dean's Yard, Westminster, whose picturesque grouping recalls the view of St. Paul's from the court of the Oxford Arms. No. 62 gives the full exterior of Ashburnham House from the same yard. Nos. 63, 64 (the order should be reversed) show the staircase, the most notable feature of the house, for ingenuity and beauty alike; No. 65, the graceful doorway leading from the Anteroom into the Drawing-Room; No. 66, the Dining-Room, or rather the alcove end of it, the design of which is not Jones's, but probably Ware's (*ante* 1735); No. 67, the Garden, with its ancient boundary-wall, being that of the Refectory of the Abbey, which from Edward I.'s time was an occasional place of session for the Commons. Here a little summer-house, often figured, is the only memorial of Inigo Jones. His grand performance, the Banqueting House, Whitehall, is the subject of plate No. 68—a noble study in itself, and historically famous for the beheadal of Charles I. in front of it (it was built in 1619). The Water Gate of York House (No. 69), left high and dry by the Thames Embankment, has an archæological, but hardly an artistic, interest. Nos. 70, 71, 72 are views of the west side of Lincoln's Inn Fields, including Lindsey House and Newcastle House. The last was not Jones's work, but Winde's (about 1686). It is, despite the loss of some of its decorative motives, a singularly dignified and imposing residence. The series thus hastily enumerated proves anew the able direction of the Society. More than ever, now that a descriptive text regularly accompanies the photographs, the annual issues commend themselves to persons of antiquarian tastes, and especially, for professional reasons, to architects. Back sets can still, to a considerable extent, be obtained of the Honorary Secretary, Mr. Alfred Marks, Long Ditton, Surrey, to whom we owe the historic research bestowed upon every building in the letterpress. The permanence of the autotypes should not be overlooked.

—Perhaps no places stand more in need of electric light than libraries and reading-rooms. Hitherto many libraries have refused to submit their costly books to the risk of fire and the certainty of a slower but not less real destruction by heated air which the use of gas always involves. The discomfort to readers is equally great, and to brain-workers there is more than discomfort—there is danger, from a kind of brain-stewing which increases fatigue, impairs the working powers, and in the long run undoubtedly shortens life. From these evils, which we have not in the least overstated, the new light is free. No wonder then that its use is rapidly spreading. The Royal Library at Brussels is the last, so far as we have heard, to adopt it. Their "installation" is a "lampe-soleil" of MM. Clerc and Bureau, Belgian inventors. It is described as being much more steady than other arc-lights, of very agreeable color, not at all trying to the eye, but on the contrary soothing, and costing only one-fourth as much as its competitors. The hall is lighted by three of these lamps as well as it would have been by 125 gas jets of sixteen candle power. The difference in the heat evolved is enormous. The light is all thrown up on to the ceiling and thence reflected through the room. In this way the strong lights and shadows, which are usually the worst feature of arc-lights, are avoided; the light at the reading table is agreeable, and every alcove is sufficiently lighted to make it easy to find the books. The vestibule and cloak-room are lighted by a dozen incandescent lamps invented by M. L. Nothomb, a Belgian officer; the Belgians naturally think them superior to Edison's.

—Richard Fleischer, known through his connection with the *Deutsche Revue*, makes his appearance in the new capacity of editor of the 'Vierteljahresberichte über die gesammten Wissenschaften und Künste,' published by Gustav Hempel, of Berlin (New York: L. W. Schmidt). The object of this new enterprise is to issue before the close of every three months six brochures of the size of an ordinary magazine, containing, in concise and generally intelligible form, summaries of all the important recent discoveries, improvements, and novelties in pure and applied science, the industrial and fine arts, and literature. These summaries are intended less for specialists than for educated people in general, who wish to keep abreast of the times without being able to devote their leisure to a perusal of the numerous periodicals dealing with special subjects. In botany alone, according to Dr. Wiesner, some two thousand writings are published annually, thus making it difficult for even a specialist to take note of all significant facts. If the qualification of Herr Fleischer for the supervision of such an extensive scheme may give rise to some doubts, they are likely to be dispelled by the list of forty-five names of eminent professors who have promised their permanent or occasional coöperation. The first part of the first volume contains contributions on Physics, by Prof. P. Zech; Botany, by Dr. Wiesner; Anthropology, by Dr. Hellwald; Ægyptology, by Prof. Brugsch; Philology, by Prof. Mähly; and Geography, by Prof. Th. Fischer. Of these the first is almost entirely devoted to discoveries in the practical application of electricity, while the second is doubtless the most interesting of all, as it contains a lucid statement of the reasons which have induced Dr. Wiesner to reject Darwin's circumnutation theory as developed in his work on the 'Power of Movement in Plants.' Dr. Wiesner's treatise, of which he here gives a synopsis, has been critically examined in recent numbers of *Nature* by Mr. Francis Darwin, the whole controversy being an admirable illustration of the objective and impartial manner in which the Darwins conduct their investigations and scientific discussions. Descriptive ethnology has long been recognized as offering more entertainment than the average novel, and Dr. Hellwald's article does not belie this view. Among the strictly technical facts noted in his article, none is perhaps of more importance than the reference to the investigations of Dr. Emil Schmidt, of Essen, which confirm the opinion already held by Broca that the current classification of skulls into dolichocephalic, brachycephalic, etc., is imperfect, being based on only two of the three dimensions of the skull.

BANCROFT'S HISTORY OF THE CONSTITUTION.

History of the Formation of the Constitution of the United States of America. By George Bancroft. In 2 vols. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1882.

Mr. Bancroft has in these volumes attempted to "trace the formation of the Federal Constitution from its origin to its establishment by the inauguration of its President." The first volume treats of the Confederation and the causes which led to the Federal Convention, the second of the Constitution itself and its adoption by the States. Appendices contain a quantity of documents and letters bearing on the events narrated, which Mr. Bancroft has collected from various sources.

The story of the formation of the Constitution is so well known, and has been so often told, that Mr. Bancroft could, in the nature of things, add very little to it. Facts and documents may be accumulated—and he has shown great industry in this part of his work—but they do not substantially affect the conclusions which must be reached on the main points. The book is chiefly valuable as a full and connected narrative of the adoption of the Constitution, not only by the Convention, but by the different States. It contains absolutely no original discussion; in fact, Mr. Bancroft's historical system almost precludes anything of the kind. History is with him a chronicle of events associated with and caused by distinguished men. His natural taste is for the picturesque and dramatic, as the excesses of his style amply show; and this disposition of his mind diverts him from the discussion of the growth and development of principles of constitutional law. Moreover, he is never satisfied with a calm, dispassionate analysis, but is always longing for an opportunity to express his approval or disapproval. To his mind the adoption of the Constitution is a classically dramatic episode in the history of the race; it "has perfect unity," and "falls of itself into five epochs or acts." His history of the Constitution is, accordingly, divided into five "acts," something like the "fyttes" of an ancient ballad, to each of which he gives an appropriate name—*e. g.*, I. The Confederation; II. On the Way to a Federal Convention; III. The Federal Convention; etc. The most credulous reader will hardly persuade himself that the work fell "of itself" into them. Mr. Bancroft, in the retrospect with which the book opens, himself gives an account of his view of "history." He thinks that

"History carries forward the study of ethics by following the footsteps of states from the earliest times of which there is a record. The individual who undertakes to capture truth by solitary thought loses his way in the mazes of

speculation, or involves himself in mystic visions, so that the arms which he extends to embrace what are but formless shadows return empty to his own breast. To find moral truth, he must study man in action. The laws of which reason is conscious can be tested but by experience; and inductions will be the more sure the larger the experience from which they are drawn. However great may be the number of those who persuade themselves that there is in man nothing superior to himself, history interposes with evidence that tyranny and wrong lead inevitably to decay; that freedom and right, however hard may be the struggle, always prove resistless. Through this assurance ancient nations learn to renew their youth, the rising generation is incited to take a generous part in the grand drama of time; and old age, staying itself upon sweet Hope as its companion and cherisher, not bating a jot of courage, nor seeing cause to argue against the hand or the will of a higher power, stands waiting in the tranquil conviction that the path of humanity is still fresh with the dews of morning, that the Redeemer of nations liveth."

Now, admitting this to be all true, it obviously furnishes us with no fundamental principles of any value in the study of the history of institutions or the development of constitutional law. The American Constitution offers to the student some very interesting problems. It was the first written charter in the history of mankind in which the attempt was made to enact in the form of permanent statutes, unalterable by the legislature itself, those cardinal principles of government which the experience of centuries had shown to be essential to national prosperity, individual freedom, and the administration of justice. It was the first attempt to erect a judicial barrier between those principles and the encroachments both of the legislature and the executive. The Constitution is a document which can only properly be studied by a critic thoroughly versed in the history of the English institutions out of which it grew: the monarchy, which was destined to be Americanized as the Presidency; the two Houses of Parliament, which were to be transformed into our Congress; the great landmarks in the struggle between arbitrary power and individual right contained in Magna Charta, the Petition of Right and the Bill of Rights, which were on this side of the Atlantic to be given a more sacred character than had been accorded to them in the land of their origin. That Mr. Bancroft is not such a critic, any one may see by a very cursory examination of these volumes. With regard to the *Federalist*, the essays of which still constitute the most valuable discussion extant of the political problems supposed to be solved by the Constitution, all that Mr. Bancroft has to say is that "they form a work of enduring interest, because they are the earliest commentary on the new experiment of mankind in establishing a republican government for a country of boundless dimensions." That this failure to examine anew the questions discussed in the *Federalist*, or even to give any account of the nature of the problems discussed in it, proceeds from distaste for the work, any one may satisfy himself by turning to chap. i. of book v., in which Mr. Bancroft undertakes on his own account to go over the ground covered by Hamilton, Madison, and Jay, and show what the Constitution really is. Mr. Bancroft's established position as an American historian gives anything that comes from his pen an authority which, on such subjects as these, may be very misleading.

A few extracts will give a fair idea of his analysis of the Constitution. First, it "had its forerunners," for there were the colonial charters and "other precursors," but as to what these others were we get no more definite statement than that they were the "gifts of the ages." This is followed by two pages to show that the distinctive character of the American people is their "individuality," and that "the Constitution establishes nothing that interferes with equality and individuality." Especially is this so in religion, for the Constitution withholds from the Federal Government "the power to invade the home of reason, the citadel of conscience, the sanctuary of the soul." With all this individuality in matters of conscience, it looks as if labor ought to have been free, and Mr. Bancroft points out that the Convention "was careful to impose no new incapacitation on free persons of color; it maintained them in all the rights of equal citizenship; it granted those rights to the emancipated slave; and it kept to itself the authority to abolish the slave-trade instantly in any territory that might be annexed; in all other States and lands at the earliest moment for which it had been able to obtain power." This singular analysis of the manner in which the Convention disposed of the slavery question is followed by a bare allusion to the tripartite division of the Government into legislative, executive, and judicial, and the paramount authority of the Constitution over laws enacted by Congress; but how this latter is enforced is rather obscured than explained by Mr. Bancroft's treatment of it. The question of the relation of the Federal Government to those of the States he hopelessly confuses by a continual use of metaphor which, however beautiful in itself, is far worse than useless in a historical work of this kind. Thus we learn that the States are "the parents, the protectors, and the stay of the Union"; that the Union without "self-existent States" is "a harp without strings," while "the States without Union are as chords that are unstrung." State rights are necessary, for without them "the Union would perish from the paralysis of its limbs." Figures of speech may be, as is so acutely demonstrated in 'Father Tom and the Pope,' the "pillars of the Church," but that they are a very poor foundation for analysis such as that undertaken by Mr. Bancroft, no one will doubt after an examination.

The chapter from which we have been quoting has a great deal to say about the relations of the States to the Union. Mr. Bancroft leaves the matter exactly where he found it. His researches have evidently suggested to his mind the question how far the old difference of view as to the relations of the States to the General Government can be considered a permanent political force in the development of our institutions. No one writes upon the Constitution without approaching this at many points. We are frequently assured that the Federal origin of the Government necessitates the perpetual existence of two opposite political parties—one struggling for centralization, or Federalism, the other for local self-government, or State Rights. If the former carried the day, the country would be governed from Washington; if the latter, the central power would become less and less, and that of the States greater and greater. Neither, however, can obtain permanent control, because both forces act upon the Government under the Constitution, and beyond the confines of this instrument neither party can permanently carry us. This view of party dynamics has a fascination for many minds on account of its symmetry; and it is flattering to national pride, because it makes out a striking likeness between the Government of the United States and that of the solar system, the ingenuity and simplicity of which we are taught to revere from our cradles. The two party tendencies correspond to the centrifugal and centripetal forces, either one of which alone would be fatally destructive, while both together maintain the earth on its appointed—or, as we may say, constitutional—orbit. A little reflection upon the history of parties in the United States will serve to show at least that this analogy is misleading, and to suggest that the idea on which it is based is mistaken.

Undoubtedly, as the evidence collected by Mr. Bancroft shows, at the time of the formation of the Government, the States were still regarded as sovereign powers, and as calling into existence the Federal Government for certain definite objects, described and limited first in the Confederation, and afterward in the Constitution. In other words, the new Government was historically a creature of the States. So firm a hold had the original thirteen States upon the affection and allegiance of their subjects, that the Federalists had great trouble in getting the Constitution into working order, and, in the next generation, a politician appeared who attempted to establish the idea of State sovereignty as a fundamental political dogma which was to be a permanent guide in the interpretation of the Constitution. Calhoun's system was not logically consistent; for he juggled with it so that State sovereignty always yielded the General Government ample powers whenever they were needed for the defence of slavery, but none at all when they were required for the opposite purpose. Congress could secure the extension of slavery into the Territories and the erection of new slave States, because the States were sovereign, and the General Government is called upon to aid and foster their "domestic institutions"; so it could establish espionage of private correspondence to prevent the circulation of anti-slavery documents, though it was powerless to enforce its own laws against the veto of a State. There is no better proof of the heated and passionate condition of the public mind on all constitutional questions, during the slavery conflict, than the fact that Calhoun should have been able to persuade people that he was a great constitutional lawyer, or that his system had a consistent logical basis to rest upon. Calhoun's attempt, for a time successful, finally failed, and the centripetal force began to assert itself. But is it credible that the Calhoun theory of the Government should be regarded as anything more than an extinct force? Is there something in the nature of the Government which will compel history to repeat itself, and give us in the future other Calhouns, without slavery and with nothing but an abstract constitutional principle as their *raison d'être*? If there is, it is the business of constitutional historians to find it out, and explain it, and show how it works.

ROSENTHAL'S AMERICA AND FRANCE.

America and France: The Influence of the United States on France in the Eighteenth Century. By Lewis Rosenthal. Henry Holt & Co. 12mo.

It is not often that we have the pleasure of reading and reviewing so satisfactory a monograph as this. The subject is practically a new one. That American ideas had some influence on the course of the French Revolution is, indeed, generally admitted by the historians of that great upheaval; but no one of them has given to the subject more than a passing glance. Schlosser, Dahlmann, and Von Sybel have merely alluded to it, while Thiers, Mignet, Michelet, and Louis Blanc have been content to dismiss it with a paragraph. Laboulaye and Taine have disregarded it altogether; Lanfrey has given it but a cursory notice; and even Rocquain, the historian of the revolutionary spirit before the Revolution, has not thought it necessary to give to the subject more than a single page. But it was well worthy of careful study. Many of the political leaders of the movement had fought in

America, and had caught the American spirit. Some of them were of the old nobility. After the famous oath of the Tennis Court, it was for some days a question whether the division between the clergy and nobility, on the one hand, and the Third Estate, on the other, would be irreparable. On the 25th of June, a strong faction of the nobility solved the question by joining the commons. Among those going over were Broglie, Beauharnais, Lameth, Noailles, and Custine, all of whom had been soldiers in the American war. La Rochefoucauld, Duport, D'Aiguillon, Charles de Lameth, "Tonneau" de Mirabeau, and Lafayette remained behind, in order that they might the more readily persuade the nobles to yield to the popular wishes. It was very largely in consequence of this element that, two days later, the nobility and clergy decided to unite with the commons in the formation of a National Constituent Assembly.

Surely an influence so powerful as this was worthy of the historian's careful attention. The study was a difficult one, for it demanded new researches in the chaotic mass of the political literature of the time; but it has found a historian worthy of its importance. Mr. Rosenthal has carefully groped his way through the materials surrounding him, has noted his authorities at every step, has held the balance of probabilities with a level hand, has expressed himself at all points with critical moderation, has clothed his ideas with clear and elegant English—in short, has produced an exceptionally good specimen of critical historical work.

The volume begins by showing not only that the evils which overwhelmed France were evils from which America, under its new form of government, was absolutely free, but also that those evils were, in the opinion of many Frenchmen, the very ones which the American method was best calculated to correct. This belief was in every way fostered by Franklin in Paris, and by the French in America. Madame du Deffand wrote to Horace Walpole: "We talk of nothing but America"; and Soulavie declared, "I saw Franklin become an object of worship." When Adams arrived at Bordeaux he was received with a salute of thirteen guns, the city was illuminated in honor of America, and the inscription was put up, "God Save the Congress. Liberty and Adams." Lafayette wrote, from this side of the Atlantic: "Simplicity of manners, the desire to oblige, the love of country and of liberty, and a delightful equality reign supreme here among all classes of the people." In a word, the French were brought to see that the new government across the Atlantic combined order with liberty; and Mr. Rosenthal shows us, by a great number of quotations, that the desire for similar blessings for themselves and their country had taken possession of very many of the most prominent writers of the day. These good impressions were more than confirmed when, in 1783, a volume on 'The American State Constitutions' was published in Paris. It was of these that Sir Samuel Romilly wrote in his 'Memoir': "They certainly produced a very great sensation at Paris." They were generally noticed by the journals of the country. The *Mercure de France* but echoed the general sentiment when it declared: "The acts of the American Congress and those of the General Assemblies of the several States seem to be the handiwork of wisdom itself." In response to the interest felt, an enormous number of books and pamphlets on America sprang into existence. We are assured that they were to be found everywhere. The *Journal Général* said of them: "Ces ouvrages ont été accueillis avec une espèce de fureur." And yet the supply only answered to the demand.

When Jefferson went to France, he made his way at once to the hearts of the people. "You replace M. Franklin, I hear," remarked Vergennes. "I *succeed* him, your Excellency; no one can *replace* him," was Jefferson's happy reply. This *bon mot* gave him an immediate introduction to statesmen and philosophers, as well as to the fashionable world. We soon find him writing to Madison, of France: "Its inhabitants love us more, I think, than they do any other nation on earth." The Virginian's house at once became the meeting-place of many of the Revolutionary leaders. Duport, Lafayette, Saint-Étienne, Lameth, and others gathered around Jefferson's table to talk over the prospects of the movement, and to lay plans for the future. In this way Jefferson's influence made itself felt; and, a little later, it was carried into the National Assembly.

There is abundant evidence that the effect of American ideas on the proceedings of the Constituent Assembly during the early months of its session was very considerable. Soulavie expressed opinions generally held when he wrote: "The greatest part of the gentlemen Democrats who abandoned their order in 1789; who joined the commons; who proposed the Declaration of Rights; who directed the revolution against the *ancien régime*, had made their revolutionary studies in the United States." Jefferson himself relates how the Liberals of the movement, in one of the gravest crises of the Revolution, sought his advice, and how the interview, after continuing from four o'clock until ten, resulted in harmonious agreement. It is worthy of note, moreover, that the American Minister's counsels were uniformly in the interests of moderation. To such an extent was this felt to be the case that one of the Ministers of the French Government thought it worth while to write him and express the hope that he "would habitually assist at such conferences, inasmuch as he would be useful in moderating the warmer spirits and promoting a wholesome and practical reformation only."

But it was evident from the first that there was a very strong faction that would not follow the guidance of moderation. Of the three plans for a Constitution, the English and the American met with only partial favor, while the one that had received its principal features from the theories of Rousseau took strong hold of the Assembly. There is perhaps nothing in the history of the Revolution more interesting than the process by which the delegates were led at this point to reject the dictates of wisdom, and to adopt the policy of a political sentimentalist. At two points the Constitution adopted was fatally weak. The provisions for but one legislative chamber, and for giving to that chamber the power to change even the Constitution, were doubtless the most stupendous blunders of the Revolution. But what is here of especial interest to us is the fact that at the very moment when the decision of the momentous question was in doubt, the great name and authority of Franklin were invoked in behalf of the unicameral system. It is not a matter of satisfaction to reflect that at the most trying moment of the whole period the well-known views of the American philosopher were thrown into the wrong side of the scale. From the moment all authority was constitutionally vested in a single chamber, the more radical leaders of the movement began to acquire a steadily-increasing power, and the American influence began steadily to decline. During the ascendancy of the Girondists and the Jacobins there is no evidence whatever that a single movement or a single act was appreciably affected by the opinions of a single American. Thomas Paine lifted up his voice in behalf of moderation; but we all remember how he was condemned to the guillotine, and by what a curious incident he was saved on the very day of the fall of Robespierre.

FREEMAN'S WILLIAM RUFUS.

The Reign of William Rufus and the Accession of Henry the First. By Edward A. Freeman. Two vols. octavo, pp. 624 and 732. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1882.

Six years ago, in the preface to the last volume of his 'History of the Norman Conquest,' Mr. Freeman expressed the hope that he might some time be able to deal more fully with the important reign of William Rufus, the son and immediate successor of William the Conqueror, than it was possible to do in concluding a general sketch of the Norman kings. The fulfilment of the historian's purpose may at last be seen in two stout octavo volumes, now published in a form similar in every technical respect to the five volumes composing the 'History of the Norman Conquest.' Mr. Freeman says he is now done with this subject, although he still hopes to put forth the same story in somewhat briefer space, perhaps in a form intermediate between the seven large volumes and a very small one already published. From the vantage-ground of his completed work on the Norman Conquest of England, he will probably soon pass over to that broader, Continental ground of Norman conquests in Italy, Sicily, and Southeastern Europe. "The Norman in the great island of the ocean, and the Norman in the great island of the Mediterranean, naturally form companion-pieces." Mr. Freeman says he has already made some acquaintance with the Rogers and Williams of Sicily in their own home, which he well calls the meeting-place of the nations; and it is safe to predict that his story of these Norman vassals of the Church will assume even greater international significance than his account of the Williams and Rogers of Norman England.

William Rufus, thus familiarly known to his contemporaries by reason of his ruddy countenance, is graphically described by Mr. Freeman as "a man of no great stature, of a thick, square frame, with a projecting stomach." He appears to have been a caricature of his father, the Conqueror, both in body and mind. Freeman says William the Red may pass for William the Great with all his nobler qualities left out. Father and son were both ambitious to conquer and rule, but the one pursued determined ends with unyielding energy and unerring sagacity; while the other, though bent upon following his father's track of conquest and dominion, yet followed with unequal, uncertain steps. William the Conqueror conquered boldly and steadily, and he maintained his ground by blood and iron. William, the Red-faced King, conquered by fits and starts, often by bribery and intrigue instead of by force of arms, and frequently lost advantages which he had already gained. The Conqueror left England practically subdued by Norman power. The heir of the Conquest, forced by the rebellion of his Norman barons, fell back upon the support of his English subjects, and, while defeating Norman rebels, capturing their fortresses, and repelling another Norman invasion on the very spot where the Great William had landed, unconsciously reversed Norman ascendancy and ruled England as an English King. Of all the bad sovereigns whose reigns have proved for the good of the English people, William Rufus was perhaps the worst in point of personal character. He was oppressive, extortionate, and vicious to the last degree. His reign was called the reign of *unlaw* and *ungeld*, because, in his time, injustice and exactions were beyond all parallel in an unrighteous feudal age. Money was squandered

upon mercenary troops, who harried the land they were hired to protect. Twenty thousand Englishmen who came together at the King's bidding to invade Normandy, each man with ten shillings contributed by men of his shire, were fleeced of their money by the King's agent, Randolf Flambard, and then ignominiously sent home, while the base King used his ill-gotten gains to bribe the baser King of France. William the Conqueror had some consideration for religion and morality, but the Red King defied God and man. Such blasphemy and shameless indecency the Court of England never saw, even in the reign of the Stuarts. Mr. Freeman says William Rufus represented the habits of the ancient Greek and of the modern Turk. The chroniclers of the time said that he every morning got up a worse man than he lay down, and every evening lay down a worse man than he got up.

And yet the Red King had some qualities which, if not exactly virtues, leaned toward virtue's side. Among his redeeming traits was a kind of pious veneration for the memory and great deeds of his father. Whatever territory the Conqueror had won in England or on the Continent, that his faithful son endeavored to keep at any cost. Rufus showed the quality of mercy to rebellious Norman barons, "for the love of his father, to whom they had been faithful followers." Battle Abbey, which the Great William had founded, was treated with generosity by his degenerate son, even though the latter cared nothing for religion, and unscrupulously plundered other monasteries to enrich those patronized by his father. Besides these qualities, Rufus had a certain species of knightly honor. Although he thought it no crime to break his chartered promises to the English people and to violate his pledges to the Holy Church (for, as he bluntly said, "No man can keep all his promises"), yet he never dreamed of breaking his word as a knight, and, what is no less remarkable, he had implicit confidence in the knightly word of others. Perhaps the most striking example of this honorable side of the Red King's nature is his treatment of Helias, a noble count of Eastern Maine, who fell into the hands of Robert the Devil, and was handed over to William Rufus, by whom he was treated with knightly courtesy and at last set free, Rufus having promised it in case Le Mans should be surrendered. Helias, departing, swore he would win back his lost city, and defied Rufus to his face. The latter, though blazing with anger, told Helias to do all he could. Such an example of generosity and good faith in a man who sometimes mutilated prisoners, and who trod his own people under foot, is worthy to be compared with the chivalry of the Black Prince, who spared French knights, but murdered the defenceless citizens of Limoges, or with the honor of that knightly king, Francis I., who boasted that he never broke his word of honor except to women. As Mr. Freeman remarks, "He who cannot rise to the higher rank of an honest man had better be a knight and gentleman than a mere knave and ruffian."

Decidedly the most interesting and important portions of the present work are those describing the relations of Church and State during the reign of William Rufus. It is an historical point, never before made clear, that the first appeal from an English court to papal authority was made not by Anselm, that "holy man," Archbishop of Canterbury, but by Anselm's enemy, William of Saint-Calais, Bishop of Durham, who had joined in the Norman revolt against William Rufus upon his accession to the throne, and who appealed to Rome against the jurisdiction and sentence of the King's Court. "It was from the mouth of William of Saint-Calais that, for the first time, as far as we can see, men who were English by birth and settlement heard the doctrine that the King of the English had a superior on earth; that the decrees of the Witan of England could be rightly appealed from to a foreign power." Lanfranc, who was then Archbishop of Canterbury, stoutly maintained the old doctrine of royal supremacy in temporal matters, as he had done in the days of William the Conqueror. The Red King asserted the Conqueror's ancient right in forcible terms: "By the face of Lucca, you shall never go out of my power till I have your castle." And the Bishop of Durham left England despoiled of his stronghold and all his domains. Arriving in Normandy, he was honorably received by Duke Robert, elder brother of the King, and invested with the charge of that entire duchy, where he appears to have forgotten his grievances, and whence he returned at a later period to England and to the King's favor, only to persecute Anselm in the Witan of the nation for maintaining the same right of appeal to Rome which he himself had once asserted.

The death of Lanfranc in 1089, one year after the suppression of the Norman rebellion, marks the outbreak of the Red King's gross iniquity toward the Church and his people. Up to that time, Rufus had been under some moral restraint, but, now that the chief adviser of his father was removed, the King followed the counsels of his own heart and evil counsellors of his own choosing. Robert of Bellême, commonly known as Robert the Devil, became his chief guide in war, and the crafty Randolf Flambard his chief adviser in affairs of state. This satanic clerk and *Justiciar*, this later Bishop of Durham, who delighted in leading his own monks as well as his King into temptation, had the doubtful honor of systematizing the evil customs of feudalism in England, and of suggesting to the King the economic policy of keeping abbeys and bishoprics vacant in order to appropriate their revenues for the royal coffers. The Archbishopric of Canterbury was thus kept vacant, after the death of Lanfranc, for four years, although in this instance the King was actuated by the additional motive of securing freedom from all ecclesiastical restraint. The Red King would have no yoke-fellow in the sovereign administration of England. Not until Rufus fell grievously ill at Gloucester, in 1193, did he consent to name Anselm to the primacy of England—an office more ancient and revered than that of the Crown itself.

But, with the recovery of health, the King recovered his old habits of blasphemy and extortion. "God shall never see me a good man," he said; "I have suffered too much at his hands." He set about undoing his good works as far as practicable. He could not, and would not, undo his personal investiture of Anselm with the staff of office, for that act the King regarded as a matter of honor. On the very day, however, of Anselm's enthronement, Randolf Flambard brought a suit against the Archbishop, and from that time onward the latter's course was continually beset, by order of the King, with snares and difficulties. Now extortionate demands for money were made from Anselm in order to aid the King in war; now the King denied Anselm's spiritual authority, and refused to allow him to hold a synod or to undertake a moral reformation of the kingdom; and persistently the tyrant declined to fill the vacant abbeys and churches. But the greatest grievance to Anselm was that the King would not allow him to recognize the Pope and go to Rome for the *pallium*. Even the Conqueror had allowed the latter privilege to Lanfranc.

Anselm, as Abbot of Bec, had already acknowledged Pope Urban II. in preference to Clement, but Anselm, as Archbishop of Canterbury, found himself in a very embarrassing position; for, although personally pledged to Urban, he could not officially recognize him without the consent of the King of England, which consent Rufus steadfastly withheld, not because he favored Clement, but because he hated all papal authority and wished to have no representative of it in England. Anselm held that recognition of the Pope was not inconsistent with loyalty to his sovereign, and proposed to submit the question to the Witan of the nation. The wise men of the realm accordingly assembled, but the servile bishops, ignoring the main question as to whether the Archbishop did not owe a duty to the Church as well as to his King, treated Anselm as though he were upon trial for treason; and William of Saint-Calais, who, as Bishop of Durham, had himself once insisted upon the right of appeal to Rome, was now foremost in demanding that the ring and staff should be taken from Anselm, and that the latter be driven forth from the kingdom if he would not immediately recognize the superior authority of the King. But the lay nobles of the realm refused to consider such a proposition, likewise the equally shameful suggestion of the King that they withdraw all faith and friendship from the Archbishop. The King and his party were practically defeated when the Witan of Rockingham broke up.

"It was no mean day in English history when a king, a Norman king, the proudest and fiercest of Norman kings, was taught that there were limits to his will. It is like a foreshadowing of brighter days to come when the Primate of All England, backed by the barons and people of England—for on that day the very strangers and conquerors deserved that name—overcame the Red King and his time-serving bishops. The day of Rockingham has the fullest right to be marked with white in the kalendar in which we enter the day of Runnymede and the day of Lewes."

Some Experiences of a Barrister's Life. By Mr. Serjeant Ballantine. Henry Holt & Co. 1882.

THESE reminiscences are of a very rambling and often disconnected character. They are jotted down, however, in such a way as to disarm criticism. When a lawyer of Mr. Ballantine's distinction sits down at the close of his career to recall the memories of the past, and prefaces his remarks with such a very modest disavowal of any necessary claim upon public attention as is contained in his preface, we feel bound either to listen to him politely or go away; to find fault with him for having nothing of profound importance to tell us, seems a waste of time.

The most valuable part of his book relates to professional matters. His account of the Courvoisier trial will be found of interest by that large body of casuists who are fond of discussing the question of a lawyer's duty when he believes his client to be guilty. Courvoisier, who murdered Lord William Russell, in 1840, was defended by Charles Phillipps. During the trial it was discovered that a considerable quantity of plate which had disappeared from Lord William's house had been deposited by Courvoisier with some people in the neighborhood of Leicester Square. The prisoner, upon learning of the discovery, requested an interview with his counsel, and made a disclosure to him which, as was generally supposed at the time, involved a confession of guilt. Mr. Ballantine states, however, that the admission did not go to this extent, but merely amounted to a confession of facts which furnished "very stringent evidence" of guilt. Under these circumstances, what was Mr. Phillipps to do? Undoubtedly, says the author, something very different from what he did do—which was to communicate to one of the judges engaged in trying the case (Mr. Baron Parke) the

confession of his client, and ask the Judge's advice.

"It is probable that if Baron Parke had not been taken by surprise, he would have declined to express any opinion. I happen, however, to know that, having learned that the prisoner did not intend to relieve his counsel from the defence, the learned Baron said that of course he must go on with it. And, if he gave any advice at all, this was the only advice he could give, and ought to have been patent to the inquirer; and certainly no censure can be too severe upon the conduct of Phillipps, who, when assailed for his management of the case, violated the confidence that his interview with Baron Parke demanded, and endeavored to excuse himself by saying he had acted under the learned Judge's advice."

The author's remarks upon the delicate art of cross-examination contain nothing very new, but they come from him with authority. His first rule—that it is necessary for counsel to form in his own mind an opinion of the facts of the case, and the character and motives of a witness, before asking a question—elementary as it seems, is probably violated in nine out of every ten cross-examinations that take place. If a witness is suspected of an intention to commit perjury, he thinks that what ought to be done is to break him down, not on the main points of the case, with which he has probably made himself thoroughly acquainted, but on collateral circumstances, as to which he is likely to be imperfectly drilled. His own shrewdness in examining and in not examining witnesses is well shown in a little story he tells of an incident in a trial before Chief-Justice Erle. He had put a question to a witness as to what he was doing at a particular time, this being a matter important to the inquiry. He answered: "I was talking to a lady. I will tell you who she was, if you like; you know her very well." Serjeant Ballantine's method of dealing with this reply was to make no observation at the time, but to mention, when addressing the jury, that his experience led him to the conclusion that honest witnesses endeavored to keep themselves to the facts they came to prove, but that lying ones endeavored to distract the attention by something irrelevant. But the fact is, that, taking the story as it is told, the remark was not so much irrelevant as dangerous. If the lady's name had come out, she would have been a witness to prove the time, and if she had not been called by Serjeant Ballantine, the counsel on the other side would have argued to the jury that the omission was probably due to the unfavorable character of her testimony. In other words, the witness may very likely have been telling the truth, and yet, by the method pursued by the wily Serjeant, his alacrity was made to strike the jury as probable evidence of wilful falsehood.

Serjeant Ballantine's reminiscences of Thackeray are worth looking at in connection with the caricature of him in 'Endymion.' He says: "I never thought him an agreeable companion. He was very egotistical, greedy of flattery, and sensitive of criticism to a ridiculous extent. He may have possessed great powers of conversation, but did not exhibit them upon the occasions when I had an opportunity of judging." It should be said, however, that in his estimate of literary men the author is at his weakest. On the other hand, what he has to say about the members of his own profession is often amusing, and sometimes interesting. Of Lord Lyndhurst, he tells the story that when he became Chancellor, upon one occasion he stated the principles which he had adopted in determining the qualifications for a judgeship as follows: "I look out for a gentleman, and if he knows a little law, so much the better"; to which Serjeant Ballantine adds, with perhaps unconscious humor, "Sir William Bolland, who, I believe, was the only one he made, certainly fulfilled the former condition."

The author's vast experience in criminal practice is of course drawn upon liberally. An amusing illustration of the different ways in which expert testimony in poisoning cases may be used is given in an account of a murder trial before Baron Parke. A minute quantity of arsenic was found in the body of the deceased, which the learned advocate accounted for by the usual suggestion that poison had been used carelessly for the destruction of rats. Baron Parke, in summing up, dwelt pointedly on the small amount of poison found, and the jury without hesitation found a verdict in the prisoner's favor.

"Doctor Taylor, the professor of chemistry, and an experienced witness, had proved the presence of arsenic; and, as I imagine, to the great disappointment of my solicitor, who desired a severe cross-examination, I did not ask him a single question. He was sitting on the bench, and near the Judge, who, after he had summed up, and before the verdict was pronounced, remarked to him that he was surprised at the small amount of arsenic found, upon which Taylor said that if he had been asked the question, he should have proved that it indicated, under the circumstances detailed in evidence, that a very large quantity had been taken."

Most of the book is merely gossip of a very light sort. Of Charles Austin, whose great abilities as a lawyer were strictly devoted to money-getting, he mentions the fact that he was in the habit of accepting retainers in cases which he well knew he could not attend to. "Doubtless they were delivered by solicitors who were aware of the risk they ran, and preferred taking it to the chance of his being retained against them. I cannot, however, think the practice was honorable, or one that could be justified on any grounds whatever." Webster, if we remember right, laid himself open to the same charge. Under the code of legal ethics adopted in many quarters, Mr. Austin's example would probably be considered deserving of emulation. Being retained on one side, and then going over to the other for a higher retainer, would probably still be regarded generally by conservative men as of doubtful propriety. Theodore Hook's wonderful improvisations, Mr. Ballantine declares, were not really altogether impromptu; for his friend Hill, of whom no one knew when he came into the world, and the records of whose birth had been "lost in the fire of London," was generally at hand, and he often "might be detected furnishing a cue." Of the Tichborne case, in which he was counsel for the "Claimant," what he has to say is interesting. He thinks that if at the beginning of the proceedings the fact had been brought out that the real Sir Roger had indelible tattoo marks upon one of his arms, the Claimant would necessarily have broken down altogether. The volume also contains a full account of another *cause célèbre* in which Serjeant Ballantine played an important part—the trial of the Gaekwar of Baroda. Serjeant Ballantine's experiences have been those of an expert criminal counsel, and the list of his friends and acquaintances upon which he draws for his reminiscences is a long one. His mind, however, is too little critical to make his descriptions of the men he has known of much value; indeed, like most writers of the class to which he belongs, his best gift is that of narrative. His stories of crime, and of the singular circumstances which so often arise in connection with the prosecution of criminals, are very good.

Homiletics. By James M. Hoppin, Professor in Yale College. Dodd, Mead & Co.

If the quality of preaching does not soon begin to show signs of improvement, it will not be because the literature of the subject has not of late been copious. Very recently we have had Professor Phelps's 'Theory of Preaching,' and his 'Men and Books,' a continuation of the former work; we have also had Mr. Mahaffy's 'Decay of Modern Preaching,' already reviewed in these columns; and now last, but certainly not least in its material bulk, we have Professor Hoppin's 'Homiletics.' It is not entirely new. Much of it has been before the public and in use as a textbook in theological schools for several years, bearing the title 'The Office and Work of the Christian Ministry.' But the present work is much expanded, and it is to be followed by another work on 'Pastoral Theology,' an expansion of those portions of the original work which are not included in the present publication. 'Homiletics' is an octavo volume of 800 pages, handsomely printed. Professor Hoppin apprehends his subject far too solemnly to admit any element of humor into his treatment. He fails to apprehend, too, or to state simply and forcibly the characteristic quality of the various preachers who have done most for the fame of their profession. More than 200 pages are devoted to a history of preaching, and it is evident that Professor Hoppin has not neglected any available source of information; but one feels that the book would have been much more readable if it had been much less learned. It is overburdened with its weight of erudition. It bristles all over with quotations from the Latin and the Greek, and with references to ancient authors.

After the "History of Preaching" comes, in division second, "The Object of Preaching," then, "Preparation for Composing Sermon," and next, "Analysis and Composition of Sermon." The last-named division is exceedingly formal, and suggests a wonder whether any sermons are constructed in our time on this mechanical principle, and if so, what they amount to. In regard to the text, we are told that it should not be from any apocryphal writing, nor, in any case, of doubtful authenticity. As to the proper length of a discourse, the rule of Bishop Alderson, "twenty minutes, with a leaning to the side of mercy," is quoted with approval, and Edward Irving's sermon for the London Missionary Society, which was three hours and a half long, is held up as a fearful warning. Treating of incongruous divisions, a case in point is found in Cox's 'Recollections of Oxford'—a "Long Vacation" Sermon on the Character of Abraham: (1) Abraham as a patriarch; (2) Abraham as the father of the faithful; (3) Abraham as a country gentleman.

The fifth division, on the "Classification of Sermons," is the most practical part of the book. It treats with considerable fulness of the different varieties of preaching—from the manuscript, memoriter, and extempore. The advantages and disadvantages of the different methods are discussed with manifest desire to do ample justice to each. The conclusion to which Professor Hoppin finally comes is much more favorable to extempore preaching than the conclusion of Professor Phelps in his 'Theory of Preaching.' He accepts Coquerel's definition of extempore speaking as that "in which the speaker knows what he has to say, but does not know how he is to say it." "You may do it extempore, for it is nothing but roaring," says *Quince* to *Snug* in the play. Professor Hoppin is painfully aware that there is much extempore preaching which is nothing but roaring. To be truly excellent it requires as much preparation as the written or memoriter sermon. He advises that writing be not wholly given up, and that manuscript and memoriter preaching should be practised as well as extempore, but for the best effect he has no doubt that extempore preaching must be had. No doubt he

is correct, but unless our extempore preaching is going to be very different from what it habitually now is, we should pray for less of it instead of more.

The second part of Professor Hoppin's book is concerned with "Rhetoric Applied to Preaching." A first division treats of the general principles of rhetoric, a second, of invention, a third, of style. In this last there is a good deal of sound advice, especially under the head of "purity." The book is conceived in a very liberal spirit. The strictness of his own beliefs does not prevent the author from being fair toward men who differ from him widely. He speaks of "that giant, Theodore Parker," and gives unstinted praise to the ethical vigor of Channing and Walker and other liberal preachers.

Tarjuma-i-Alif Laila ba-zubân-i-Urdû. Romanized under the superintendence of T. W. H. Tolbort, B.C.S., and edited by Frederic Pincott, Member of the Royal Asiatic Society. London: W. H. Allen & Co. 1882.

INDIA, as a vast and compact aggregate of peoples, dominated by aliens, and holding constant intercourse with each other, naturally came to have its *lingua franca*, the language known as Urdû, or Hindustani. Originated, centuries ago, by the Muhammadan conquerors of the country, the Urdû has, by degrees, been expanded, methodized, and refined, until it has, at last, attained high comparative perfection. Though possessing a literature of no mentionable value, whatever its copiousness, it has the merit of being, for all ordinary purposes but the scientific, a most admirable medium of expression. As its very essence is composite, it is, however, quite probable that it may, in time, be brought to subserve every end of education among the teeming millions of Hindustan. But its potential utility is meanwhile seriously hampered by one circumstance: the character in which it is commonly written is the Arabic; and that character, besides requiring, for the complete preclusion of ambiguity, the incessant employment of diacritical points, is wholly unprovided, as to numerous foreign sounds, with expedients for symbolizing them. Success is, therefore, the just due of the effort, long since initiated, and still hopefully persevered in, to substitute, in Urdû books, the Roman character for the Arabic.

This laudable effort is exemplified in the comely volume of 480 pages, in charmingly legible type, which has been named above. The *Alif Laila* is the well-known 'Arabian Nights,' half of which, judiciously expurgated, is now offered to us, and in a form which leads us to wish for the remainder. The translation, which is made directly from the Arabic, exhibits the Urdû in its latest and highest development; and a very different thing is the Urdû of the present day from that of old-fashioned books like, for instance, the 'Bâgh-o-bahâr,' and the 'Khiradafroz.' Mr. Pincott, besides his critical editorship, has contributed a preface, in which he argues with great cogency for the Romanization of the Urdû. Already we have such a grammar of the language as leaves almost nothing to be desired; and we understand that its author, Mr. John T. Platts, will soon add to it an Urdû dictionary, in which we cannot but anticipate his usual scholarly workmanship. With command of the three helps here enumerated, students of the polite vernacular of India may be congratulated on enjoying advantages for acquiring it very far superior to those which were accessible to their forerunners.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abel, C. Linguistic Essays. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Aldis, Mary S. The Great Giant Arithmos. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Anecdota Oxoniensia: Texts, Documents, and Extracts, chiefly from Manuscripts in the Bodleian and other Oxford Libraries. Semitic Series, vol. i., part 1. Mediæval and Modern Series, vol. i., part 1. Classical Series, vol. i., part 1. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.
Beard, G. M. The Psychology of the Salem Witchcraft Excitement. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Benham, W. Catherine and Craufurd Tait, Wife and Son of Archbishop Campbell. Macmillan & Co. 90 cts.
Bowen, C. W. The Boundary Disputes of Connecticut. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $5.
Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexikon. 13th ed. Parts 19-23.
Burdette, R. J. William Penn. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Carlyle, T. Reminiscences of My Irish Journey in 1849. Harper & Bros.
Claiborne, F. The Unfinished Tale. W. L. Allison & Son.
Coe's First Studies in Drawing. John Wiley & Sons. 60 cents.
Coues' Check-List of North-American Birds. Second ed., revised. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
De Villegas, A. R. D. A Practical Method of Learning Spanish. W. S. Gottsberger.
Dial, The. Vol. ii., May, 1881, to April, 1882. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $2.
Drake, S. A. The Heart of the White Mountains: their Legend and Scenery. Harper & Bros.
Farrow, E. S. Mountain Scouting. Metropolitan Publishing Co.
Fleischer, R. Vierteljahresberichte über die gesammten Wissenschaften und Künste, etc. Vol. i., part 1. New York: L. W. Schmidt.
Freeman, A. C. The American Decisions of Cases in the Courts of the Several States. Vol. xxxiv. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.
Geikie, A. Geological Sketches, at Home and Abroad. Macmillan & Co.
Giles, H. Human Life in Shakespeare. Lee & Shepard. $1 50.
Gray, A. Z. Jesus Only, and Other Sacred Songs. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Harte, Bret. Condensed Novels and Stories. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Healey, Mary. A Mere Caprice. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $1 25.
Hill, T. The Stars and the Earth. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
History of the Voyage and Shipwreck of the *Jeannette*. De Witt. 25 cents.
Holland, J. G. Miss Gilbert's Career. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Holland, J. G. Nicholas Minturn: a Study in a Story. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Hyatt, A. Worms and Crustacea. Boston: Ginn & Heath. 35 cents.
Ireland, A. Ralph Waldo Emerson. London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co.
Ireland, J. N. Mrs. Duff. [American Actor Series.] Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Irving, P. Life and Letters of Washington Irving. Vol. ii. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2 50.
Johnson, Virginia W. An English "Daisy Miller." Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
King, T. Off the Rocks: a Novel. Chicago: Henry A. Sumner & Co. $1 60.
Latimer, Elizabeth W. Amabal; or, Amor Omnia Vincit. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Lippincott's Magazine. New Series, Vol. III. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $2.
Molesworth, Mrs. Summer Stories. Macmillan & Co. $1 50.
Morris, R. Specimens of Early English. Part I. A.D. 1150-A.D. 1300. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.
Mozley, T. Reminiscences, chiefly of Oriel College and the Oxford Movement. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Nordhoff, C. California, for Health, Pleasure, and Residence. Revised edition. Harper & Bros.
Parkhurst, C. H. What Would the World Be Without Religion? A. D. F. Randolph. 20 cents.
Pen Pictures of Modern Authors. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 25.
Pickering, W. H. Walking Guide to the Mt. Washington Range. Boston: A. Williams & Co.
Pollard, A. W. Sallust, Catiline, and Jugurtha. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Prairie Idyl, and Other Poems. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $1.
Reiss, W., and Stübel, A. Necropolis of Ancon in Peru. Part 6. Dodd, Mead & Co. $7 50.
Roe, E. P. Barriers Burned Away. New ed. Dodd, Mead & Co. 20 cents.
Sanborn, F. B. Henry D. Thoreau. [American Men of Letters.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Sidgwick, A. Æschylus's Agamemnon. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.
Simpson, M. C. M. Geraldine and Her Suitors. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Skeat, W. W. An Etymological Dictionary of the English Language, arranged on an Historical Basis. Part iv., completing the work. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.
Skeat, W. W. A Concise Etymological Dictionary of the English Language. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Smith, Prof. W. R. The Prophets of Israel. D. Appleton & Co.
Stanley, Dean. Sermons Preached in Westminster Abbey. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Steele, T. S. Paddle and Portage from Moosehead Lake to the Aroostook River. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Stephen, L. The Science of Ethics. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.
Stewart, S. J. The Gospel of Law: a Series of Discourses upon Fundamental Church Doctrines. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. $1 25.
Stoddard, R. H. Henry Wadsworth Longfellow: a Medley in Prose and Verse. G. W. Harlan & Co. $1 50.
Sweet, H. Anglo-Saxon Primer. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.
Taylor, D. T. The Reign of Christ on Earth. Boston: Scriptural Tract Repository. $1 25.
Vanderbeck, C. C. Hints for the Summer Months. Philadelphia: Baxter Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Woolson, Constance Fenimore. Anne: a Novel. Harper & Bros.
Ward, A. W. Dickens. Harper & Bros.
Yesterday: an American Novel. Henry Holt & Co. $1.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 29, 1882.

The Week.

THE *Herald* has published a facsimile of one of the disgraceful circulars issued by the Republican Congressional Committee to the officers of the Government, calling on them for blackmail in the guise of assessments for campaign purposes. This particular circular actually demands fifteen dollars from a day laborer with a wife and children to support, his wages being two dollars a day; and the *Herald* mentions another case in which three dollars and fifty cents are demanded from an errand-boy aged thirteen. It would be impossible to find in the records of any corrupt monarchy of the eighteenth century a trace of a proceeding so paltry and degrading on the part of persons holding a high, or indeed any, position connected with the Government. The members of Congress who have allowed their names to be put to this circular ought indeed, as the *Herald* says, to be ashamed of themselves, personally as well as officially. There are some things to which an honorable man ought not to stoop to procure money for any object, however sacred or respectable, whether church or party; and extorting small sums of money from poor men by leading them to think their livelihood will be imperilled by their refusal, is one of them. It is, apart altogether from any consideration of its bearing on the purity or efficiency of the public service, a most discreditable business, with which some at least, we feel sure, of the members of the Congressional Committee would not have allowed their names to be connected if they had given the matter any serious attention.

The Boston *Advertiser*, apropos of the same matter, asks very pertinently who authorizes this Congressional Committee to make itself the instrument of this extortion. The Republican National and State Committees are appointed by the party conventions, and are therefore empowered by the party to act in its name and on its behalf in doing whatever needs or ought to be done for the proper conduct of the party canvasses. If the party has a right to levy assessments on the salaries of Government officials for its own purposes, it is through these Committees alone that the extortion should be practised. It is they and they only who speak with the party voice, and hold out the party hat. The Congressional Committee is, on the other hand, a volunteer organization. It creates itself. It is in no sense a representative body. All the authority it possesses is what it possesses in its own right. Toward the campaign fund its members have an inherent right to contribute out of their pockets, each for himself, and to solicit others to contribute as a personal favor to them. But they have no right to demand money from the clerks on behalf of the party, and to enforce the demand with an intimation that it is viewed with favor in high "official quarters"; and still less to fix the amount which each victim should give. In fact, even from the spoilsman's point of view, their performance is a gross piece of usurpation, besides being, from the reformer's point of view, an invitation to commit a misdemeanor.

Government employees can put an end to this usurpation by simply taking no notice of the circular. In complying with its demands, they will not only certainly violate the United States statute, but encourage the formation of volunteer bands of what are called in city politics "strikers," for the purpose of extracting money from them of which no public account is ever rendered. To this last point in particular we beg to direct the attention of all concerned. There is no better way of promoting corruption and fraud than giving money to people in trust without exacting any account from them of the way they spend it. No body of men in the world has virtue enough to withstand temptation of this kind for any great length of time, and volunteer political committees are no exception to the rule. In fact, the inability of all political committees to resist it was plainly intimated by the late President Garfield when he said—

> "I ask these gentlemen what they think of the system of political assessments, . . . of issuing a circular calling for one, two, or three per cent. of the salaries of all the employees, . . . with the distinct understanding that unless they pay, others will be found to fill their places? I call the attention of gentlemen around me to that shameful fact. The practice affords a large so-called electioneering fund which in many cases never gets beyond the shysters and the mere camp-followers of the party."

The proper business of Congressmen is, in short, legislation and stump-speaking. The raising of money from clerks to carry their own elections had better be left to others, if it is to be tolerated at all.

Mr. Jay Hubbell, the Chairman of the Congressional Committee which is engaged in extorting money from poor men in the Government service (and who, by the way, is the same Hubbell who tried to obtain from General Garfield in the last Presidential campaign a direct request to Brady and the Star-route men to contribute handsomely to the campaign fund), has written a letter in answer to the circular of the Civil-Service Reform Association to the officeholders, recently published. He is naturally annoyed by this interference with his operations. Nobody was probably ever yet engaged in getting small sums of money out of poor men, widows, and children by threats, who did not object to the meddling of the bystanders and want them to mind their own business. He challenges Mr. G. W. Curtis, as the President of the Association, to unite with him in requesting the President to ask the opinion of the Attorney-General on the legality of the payments which he is engaged in extorting. He thinks this would be "both more manly and more honorable" than "an attempt to confuse the action or alarm the minds" of his victims. This is decidedly what Mr. Squeers called "richness." The appeal for more manliness and honor from a person engaged in what is essentially blackmail is not bad in itself; but the calling encouragement to the poor people whom he is stripping of their hard earnings at the beginning of the hot weather, with wives and children who need a breath of country air, to hold on to their money, "confusing their action and alarming their minds," is richer still. The course he suggests, however, has already been adopted. The Civil-Service Reform Association has called the attention of the Attorney-General to his performances, and asked him, if he considers their view of the law (which they support with authorities) well grounded, to confuse Mr. Hubbell's action and alarm his mind by proper instructions to the District Attorneys.

Mr. Curtis has answered by a short and severe but much-needed lecture on the honorableness and morality of getting money from poor clerks, laborers, errand-boys, and even women, by a thinly-disguised threat that their means of livelihood will be endangered if they do not pay, and of using for the extortion a self-constituted body which renders no account of the disposition it makes of the funds thus acquired. This lecture will do Mr. Hubbell more good, though it may at first daze him more, than the answer of Messrs. Wheeler and Whitridge, the Civil-Service Reform Association's counsel, for we do not believe that he feels half as strong as a moralist as he does as a lawyer. He must have been conscious when he wrote to Mr. Curtis about honorableness and manliness that he was thereby exposing himself to numerous and unknown perils. A collector of campaign assessments from poor clerks, he must have felt, cannot safely "knock round" as a professor of ethics, and give hints on duty to anybody he happens to meet. He should be sure he knows his man before opening his ethical mouth. There are doubtless many in the Hubbell "crowd" to whom even he can profitably give lessons in social morality, but he ought to confine his instructions to them.

As the assessment circular of the Congressional Committee has been sent into the Navy-yards, and is, we believe, even reaching the laborers for the first time in the history of political corruption, we beg to call the attention of commanding officers and all others whom it may concern to Section 1546 of the United States Revised Statutes:

> SEC. 1546. No officer or employee of the Government shall require or request any workingman in any Navy-yard to contribute or pay any money for political purposes, nor shall any workingman be removed or discharged for political opinion; and any officer or employee of the Government who shall offend against the provisions of this section shall be dismissed from the service of the United States."

The New York banks further augmented their reserve during the week, so that they hold over $9,000,000 lawful money more than is required. This gain was made notwithstanding that the Treasury took in much more money than it paid out. The foreign exchanges ruled against gold exports, but about $1,400,000 was shipped at a loss, for the account, it

was said, of the Italian Government. The serious turn which Egyptian affairs have taken influenced the foreign financial markets, and British Consols declined during the week from 100⅛@¼ to 99⅞@½, on the theory that such complications may result as to lead to a war in which the leading European nations will become involved. The weather throughout the country has been very favorable for the crops, and every interest which depends on the harvests has consequently improved. No important progress toward a settlement of the labor troubles has been made; the strike of the freight-handlers at the railroad stations in this and neighboring cities has caused heavy losses to business men. The railroad managers speak lightly of the matter. All the freight which is delayed until July 1 will go forward under the new schedule of advanced rates, so that however much the business public may lose, the railroads are likely to be gainers even if they grant the demands of the strikers. At the Stock Exchange the tendency of prices was upward, the favorable outlook for the crops more than offsetting other unfavorable considerations.

The bill extending the national-bank charters has passed the Senate, after a somewhat interesting discussion on the silver question, in which Mr. Sherman and Mr. Allison, of Iowa, took part. Mr. Sherman advocated a double standard, but insisted that silver should pass at its market value in gold, which is in fact the only way in which the bimetallic theory can be put in practice, and, we may add, ever has been put in practice. Mr. Allison, on the other hand, believes that the two metals can be made to circulate on equal terms if the Powers will all come to an agreement on the subject, and accounts for the failure of the late attempt to get them to come to an agreement by saying that they were not energetic enough. It is, of course, impossible to refute those who hold that silver and gold can be kept at equal value by international treaty, because the proposition is in the nature of prophecy, and prophecy cannot be refuted. The only way to meet a prophet in discussion is not to believe him. It is certain, however, that the probability of international agreement is now remote, and that in the meantime we must do something to deal with our share of the problem, and whatever is done ought to be done quickly. We are at present neither prepared to act alone, nor to wait for concert of action on the part of other nations.

The trouble which was sure to come from the bill restricting Chinese immigration has already begun to show itself in the protest sent by the Chinese Government to Washington. The objections urged against the bill are the length of the time during which it is to remain in effect—ten years—and the fact that it makes no distinction between skilled and unskilled laborers. The Secretary of the Treasury, in his instructions issued to Collectors of Customs to carry into effect the provisions of the bill, directs particular attention to the fact that by the term "laborer" is meant skilled as well as unskilled laborer. This, the Chinese Government points out, will interfere with the business of Chinese merchants and manufacturers now resident in the United States, and may in some cases actually break it up. Besides this, there are now some sixty thousand Chinese laborers employed in the West Indies, whose contracts expire next year, and who, if they cannot be allowed transit across the United States, will have to go home by way of England, which of course would entail upon them a heavy additional expense. In reply to all this, our Government had practically nothing to say, except that it will refer the matter to Congress, which will probably do nothing at this late day of the session. Of course the popular anti-American feeling excited in China is very intense. Recent despatches from San Francisco give an idea of the stories which are set afloat to inflame it by referring to the "irritation" produced by the publication of a letter, "attributed to Commodore Shufeldt," in which the Empress is accused of "criminality." Under ordinary circumstances, if Commodore Shufeldt had been doing anything of the kind, our Government might be called upon to discipline him, but it would not affect the friendly relations between the two countries. Now, however, it is proposed, or said to be proposed, that "China's assistance in the Corean negotiations" should be summarily withdrawn.

The worst of the matter is that, so far as the Chinese Bill is concerned, the Chinese are right. The bill was passed without any proper inquiry as to how it would affect existing contracts, and this, too, by a country which has a clause in its Constitution preventing the passage of laws by the States impairing contract obligations. Its provisions were subject to an existing treaty relating to a very delicate subject, the right of emigration; and as its progress through Congress was watched with the closest attention by the Chinese Government, there was something very hasty and outrageous in passing the bill without waiting for some expression from China, which was certain to come sooner or later, and did come three weeks after its passage. Now the matter will have to be called to the attention of Congress again, and that body will either refuse to reconsider it, which will be a flagrant act of discourtesy to China, or have to take it all up again and settle the "Chinese question" *de novo*.

The news of Secretary Teller's visit to the Indian school at Carlisle, and of the warm approval he expressed of the methods, as well as the results, of the instruction administered there to Indian children, has gone far to relieve the friends of the Indians of the somewhat hasty apprehension that the new Secretary would treat this class of Indian training-schools with disfavor. We have no doubt it will also turn out that the Secretary has been misunderstood by those who ascribed to him opinions unfavorable to the settlement of Indians in severalty. He may, quite reasonably, consider one Indian tribe less fitted than another for a step so little in accord with their traditional habits, but we are confident that Secretary Teller will not reject the severalty plan whenever an Indian tribe or individual Indians are willing to accept it. The Secretary holds that the gradual dissolution of the tribal relation is a prerequisite to the placing of the Indian upon an equal legal footing with other inhabitants of the country, and it is evident that their settlement in severalty is a prerequisite to the dissolution of tribal relations. The holding of lands in common by Indian tribes is one of the strongest bonds of their tribal cohesion.

There is a refreshing piece of news from the Mescalero Indian Agency in New Mexico. It appears that a band of Apache marauders, after a plundering raid, had taken refuge with a subordinate chief on the Mescalero reservation. The Indian Agent, Mr. Llewellyn, gathered his Indian police force and some friendly chiefs besides, attacked the camp of the marauders, and routed them after a lively fight, in which several of the hostiles were killed, and the Agent himself was shot through the left arm. The Agent presents this as proof of the determination of the Mescaleros to keep order on the reservation. The Indian police, which has frequently been attacked in Congress as a useless institution, has on this occasion once more demonstrated that now and then it can do the service of the Army, especially when the Agent is a courageous and active man. Mr. Llewellyn was formerly in the service of the Department of Justice as a deputy-marshal or detective, and he is said to have done excellent service on the Northwestern frontier in breaking up bands of mail robbers and "road agents," now and then taking a desperate character with his own hands, at the risk of his life.

The dilatoriness and general lack of system in making up, debating, and passing the appropriation bills in the two Houses of Congress has received another striking illustration. Here we are at the very close of the fiscal year, when all the appropriations made at the last session expire, and when the Government will come to a standstill unless sufficient appropriations are made at this session, to take effect on the first of July; and yet several of the most important bills have not even been reported to the Senate, and some of them will be subjected to long, if not thorough, debate before they can go through. To bridge over the period between the end of the present fiscal year and the time when the new appropriations can go into force, Congress will have to resort to the expedient of extending the appropriations of last year for the time being, so that the needs of the Government may be at least temporarily provided for. But this shows again the inconveniences arising from a lack of organic correspondence between Congress and the Executive branch of the Government. If the Executive were authorized or directed to submit to Congress at each session a complete and well-digested budget, the Appropriation Committees would find their work greatly facilitated, and they would be able to make their reports much earlier in the session. And if the two houses then adhered to the rule giving the appropriation bills precedence before other business, such cases as the present would never arise, and Congress

would be at liberty to adjourn the long session much earlier than it does now, and with the public business much better done.

The Chilian Congress was convened on the 1st of this month, and, according to the latest advices from Panama, it is expected to pass a bill for incorporating Arica, Tacna, and Tarapaca with Chili. Novoa, the Chilian Commissioner in Lima, with whom Mr. Trescot carried on his late abortive negotiations, has made a speech, in which he announces that the "spectre of intervention" has disappeared; and that Chili will settle the terms of peace herself. The Peruvians must by this time have abandoned all hope of active interference by the United States, and as the country is practically without any government, and dependent on the Chilian soldiers for the performance of ordinary police duty, it will have to be content with whatever is decided upon by its conquerors. Novoa's announcement that whatever government is "selected" will at once be "recognized," throws a flood of light on the condition of affairs.

President Santa Maria, in his message to the Chilian Congress, refers to our attempts to bring about peace, in terms which are barely civil. He says that Chili accepted our officious services, but this was on receiving an assurance from the American Envoy that no "intention of interference was entertained," and that we only desired to bring "a friendly and officious influence to bear on the question." President Santa Maria is, however, not willing to let us off even with this disavowal. He says interference from any quarter would not only "have been a violation of the eternal principles of international law and justice, but would call forth from all America a protest against the dangers inherent to such an act." Continuing in the same strain, he declares that such interference would have had no effect, and adds, maliciously, that "mediation, in order to be efficacious and beneficial, must be in answer to an invitation proceeding from the belligerents themselves." Of the great Blaine Pan-American Congress he makes no mention whatever, which seems ill-bred, considering that Mr. Blaine had very handsomely offered to pay the hire of the hall in which the meetings were to be held. In fact, it is plain that things in South America are not yet ripe for an American protectorate, although they may be when we have no social or political problems to occupy us at home, and are ready to give our whole minds to the reform of Spanish America.

The Bishop of Melbourne (Australia) has refused to accede to the request of some of his flock to direct a prayer for rain to be used in his diocese, on the plain ground that material phenomena are under the control of law, which will not be changed or interrupted in answer to prayer, and that prayer should be confined to spiritual blessings. We believe this is the first formal recognition by a clergyman of prominence of the soundness of the scientific view of the material universe. A prayer for improvement in the condition of Ireland has been ordered in the English churches by the Archbishop of Canterbury, at least in his own province, which—apropos of the Bishop of Melbourne's action—leads a correspondent of the London *Times* to call attention to the fact that this Irish prayer is to be used between two other prayers in the liturgy—one for the High Court of Parliament, and one for All Conditions of Men, either of which, if effectual, makes the Irish prayer wholly unnecessary, even if it were not objectionable on other grounds, one of which is that it contains unnecessary information about the state of Ireland. He suggests, therefore, that the same end can be attained by simply directing inwardly the thoughts to Ireland when praying for wisdom for the rulers and unity among the ruled. Somewhat the same question came up here during Andrew Johnson's impeachment. Some of the friends of impeachment urged, through the press, that prayers for a verdict of guilty on at least one count should be offered up all over the country, to which it was well objected that the proper prayer for the crisis was that wisdom should be given to the Senate to do justice. There is such a thing as surplusage in prayer.

There has been a great deal of droll as well as horrible news from Ireland during the last year or two, but the news that a number of "Irish noblemen and gentlemen" have formed a joint-stock company for the purpose of counteracting the schemes of the Land League, and occupying and working the farms of evicted tenants, and, we presume, buying up tenants' goods sold at auction for non-payment of rent, is undoubtedly the drollest of any. They are, it is said, offering the shares as a desirable investment. This is a reproduction in modern shape of a process which has been more than once performed on Irish land. A "Company of Adventurers" was formed in England during the Commonwealth, for the purpose of speculating in Irish farms, from which the occupants were to be ejected, and if obstreperous killed, and it had a fair amount of success for those times. But the present proposal looks rather to the production of the state of things which would have been witnessed in France if the Duke of Brunswick's army had succeeded in restoring the King's authority, and putting the seigneurs back in their châteaux. The Irish Company can only succeed by getting its agents guarded constantly by troops and police, or, in other words, can only succeed in a state of war. That commercial men should be invited to take stock in what is in reality a filibustering enterprise, is certainly highly humorous, considering how many tempting fields of speculation are now open to capitalists.

The highly-pacific rôle played by the British fleet at Alexandria, while British subjects were being murdered on shore, seems to have been more than even the most peace-loving Liberals could bear. The wound to national pride, too, has been deepened by a panic in "Egyptians" on the Stock Exchange, and the bondholder is lifting up his voice, and when he is angry he is a great force in politics. Moreover, Egypt is drifting rapidly into complete anarchy, which raises the question of the safety of the Suez Canal. If this has to be guarded by patrols either on land or water, as now appears to be the case, it would be clearly cheapest and safest in the long run, to strike at the root of the trouble by setting up a Government in Cairo competent to maintain order. That Arabi's Government is not capable of doing so is plain enough. The difficulty in dealing with him or his force hitherto, apart from the question of agreement between the Powers, has lain in the fact that the large body of Europeans in the country would be exposed to massacre on the first sign of armed intervention, and Arabi is playing on this fear in order to prevent intervention. But the Europeans are getting out of the country very rapidly, and a very small force will be sufficient to disperse or bring to reason the Egyptian Army. Arabi's performances furnish a new and striking illustration of the tendency of Egypt to fall under the rule of the Army, unless the Prince is a man of the strongest type, like Mehemet Ali and his son Ibrahim. What Arabi and his colonels are trying to set up is really a reproduction of the Mameluke régime, and the temptation to this is constant and peculiarly great, owing to the unequalled industry and patience of the fellaheen and the wonderful fertility of the soil. Military despotism exhausts most other countries rapidly. It has ruined Asia Minor, but the Egyptian peasant always seems to be saying to the man with the sabre: "Be as turbulent, ruffianly, and wasteful as you please; I am sure to have the taxes ready, and the corn, and the wine, and the oil."

Matters are rapidly hurrying on in Egypt to war between Arabi and England, at least, and perhaps both England and France. Troops are being despatched from Malta, Gibraltar, England, and even, it is said, from India; and Sir Evelyn Wood, who distinguished himself in the Zulu campaign, is to take the command of any force that may be landed. In the meantime, Europeans are flying rapidly from the country, the resident consuls are in despair, and Arabi is growing more saucy and warlike, and it is believed will fight. He now declines to continue any attempts to discover and punish the perpetrators of the late massacre, and there is talk of his making some kind of demonstration against the Canal. Unless all the ordinary indications as to the value of troops are at fault, his army is worthless, and will be speedily dispersed by any European force sent against it, but no force can at once prevent pillage and assassination, and there is a fair chance of a renewal of disorders in Alexandria and Cairo. Arabi declares that if he is driven to the wall, he will show by documents that he has been egged on by the Sultan, which is not at all unlikely. The Conference continues to sit and deliberate at Constantinople, but no one knows what conclusion it has reached. The British Envoy is probably demanding European authorization for active operations in Egypt, and the Porte is protesting vigorously that no Conference is needed. In the meantime, the first notes of dissatisfaction with England begin to be heard in the Paris press; and, in fact, the political sky is once more clouded over as it has not been since the last Conference, which preceded the Russo-Turkish war, broke up its sittings.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 21, to TUESDAY, June 27, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

CONGRESSMAN HUBBELL, Chairman of the Republican Congressional Committee, sent a letter to Mr. George William Curtis in reply to the Civil-Service Reform Association's circular warning Government employees against paying political assessments, in which he says he is willing to meet Mr. Curtis on the question anywhere and at any time, and to unite with him in requesting the President to ask an opinion of the Attorney-General; and, "if you desire any other form of action in any tribunal which can give an immediate consideration of the point, I will join you in testing the soundness of the circular." Mr. Hubbell concludes by saying: "The law is misstated in your circular, and the alarm which you seek to create is without justification in the law"; that he "disdains to seek shelter behind any cover," and challenges Mr. Curtis to a contest on the question. Messrs. Wheeler and Whitridge, counsel for the Civil-Service Reform Association, at once replied, saying that it would give the Association much satisfaction to have an immediate opportunity of testing the soundness of the circular, and suggesting the United States Circuit Court for the Southern District of New York, which is now in session, as a good place to bring a test case "of any one which you may select of the numerous payments which have been made to you in the district in response to your circular." In regard to asking the opinion of the Attorney-General, Messrs. Whitridge and Wheeler reply that they do not accept the proposition, since it is the official duty of the Attorney-General, upon the reasonable complaint of respectable citizens, to present that complaint in legal form to the court for its decision. "We have no right to ask his opinion. We have a right to ask his official action." Mr. Curtis has also written a reply to Mr. Hubbell, in which he exposes the silliness of the allegations contained in his letter in the sentence, "I invite you to this mode of settlement as both more manly and more honorable than your attempt to confuse the action or alarm the minds of the employees alluded to."

A meeting of the Republican State Convention of Pennsylvania was held at Harrisburg on Wednesday to complete the ticket by the nomination of a Congressman-at-large in the place of Mr. Marshall, who declined the nomination. Marriott Brosius was nominated by a unanimous vote. A resolution was adopted recommending "the Republican State Committee to adopt all honorable means to harmonize the Republican party," but there seems to be less chance than ever of harmony in the party; meanwhile, the Independents are said to be gaining strength daily.

The Vermont Republican State Convention met on Wednesday and nominated John L. Barstow for Governor. The platform tenders to President Arthur assurances of confidence in his Administration; deprecates the "one-term practice which generally prevails in the election of members of the Legislature," and earnestly recommends the voters of the State to choose good men, "and by successive elections retain them in the legislative service as long as may be compatible with the public good"; favors "such additional legislation as the condition and wants of the common schools of the State may require"; and expresses confidence in the present system of taxation. It is a well-known fact that the one-term practice complained of has sprung up since biennial sessions were adopted.

The Maine Democratic State Convention met on Tuesday, and renominated Plaisted for Governor. The platform denounces the purchase of votes by corporations and capitalists, and assessments upon the salaries of Government officers; calls for a reform of the civil service and the tariff; denounces bank notes, and favors the abolition of imprisonment for debt.

The California Democratic State Convention nominated General George Stoneman, of Los Angeles, for Governor on Friday, after balloting for several days. John Daggett was nominated for Lieutenant-Governor, and J. R. Glasscock and C. A. Sumner for Congressmen-at-large. The platform applauds the movements of the workingmen of the East, notably of Pennsylvania, in opposition to moneyed corporations, and to the "monopolists of the Chinese trade."

The Readjuster Democrats of Tennessee held a Convention on Thursday, and nominated General W. D. Bate for Governor. The platform declares the recent settlement of the State debt unwise, because it is not in accord with the views of the people. It also declares that there is a portion of the State debt, known as the State debt proper, with accrued interest, the validity of which has never been disputed by any portion of the party. "We consider it," the platform says, "a valid and sacred obligation of the State, and favor the payment of the same in full; and we tender to our creditors a settlement of the remainder of the State debt by paying one-half the principal and accrued interest by issuing the bonds of the State, bearing interest at the rate of three per cent. per annum." Upon the adoption of this platform the State-Credit Democrats withdrew from the Convention, and decided to call a Convention for July 11, to nominate another candidate for Governor.

At a Cabinet meeting held on Friday night, at which the President submitted the question of the advisability of interfering with Guiteau's sentence, it was decided not to grant a respite. The Attorney-General, to whom all the appeals and petitions presented to the President bearing on the case had been referred, submitted an elaborate report to the Cabinet, reviewing all the points presented in favor of a respite, and recommending that it be not granted, on the ground that the sanity of the prisoner had been fully established at the trial. This report was unanimously approved by the members of the Cabinet, all of whom were present. Guiteau received the news cheerfully, and repeated that he was "God's man, and in God's hands," and that he would die for his inspiration, feeling that God would justify him in the other world.

At a Cabinet meeting on Friday, Secretary Folger reported that 60,000 Chinese laborers, now under contract in Cuba, and desirous of returning to China, have applied for permission to pass through the United States. The question was discussed, and the conclusion reached that under the provisions of the recent Chinese Bill, the permission could not be granted. This forces the Chinese to go home by way of England.

The Navy Department has received advices from Engineer Melville, dated Lena Delta, March 25, in which he gives a detailed account of his operations up to that date, and full particulars of the finding of the remains of De Long and his comrades. De Long's note-book was found beside him. The notes made therein were begun on Saturday, October 1, 1881, and the last entry is dated Sunday, October 30. The record is most pitiful reading, but shows that, under the circumstances, nothing could have been done by Melville, or any one else, to help De Long's company. The last man must have died within a few hours after the last entry was made in the diary, and no relief party which Engineer Melville could have organized could have got to them in time to find any of them alive.

Engineer Melville telegraphs from Yakutsk, under date of April 10, that he has searched in vain for any trace of the second cutter or Lieutenant Chipp's party. He has buried the remains of De Long's party and has secured every paper pertaining to the expedition. He is now on his way to Irkutsk.

Lieutenant Danenhower had an interview with the Secretary of the Navy on Saturday with reference to having the remains of the *Jeannette* crew, found in Siberia, transported to this country for interment. The Secretary has referred the matter to a special committee to report upon the expediency of applying to Congress for assistance in the matter.

According to a special bulletin published by the Census Bureau, the number of males of voting age in the United States in 1880 was 12,830,349, of whom 1,487,344 were colored (blacks, Indians, Chinese, and Japanese). Other bulletins give the number of native-born and foreign residents in the United States, from which it appears that a very small proportion of the inhabitants of the Southern States are foreign-born in comparison with the proportion in any other part of the country. In the four States of Alabama, Mississippi, North Carolina, and Tennessee the percentage of foreign-born is only seven-tenths of one per cent.

The National Board of Health has elected the following officers for the ensuing year: President, Dr. J. L. Cabell, of Virginia; Vice-President, Dr. Stephen Smith, of New York; Secretaries, Dr. Thomas J. Turner and Mr. S. F. Phillips. Dr. J. S. Billings and Dr. P. H. Bailhache were elected to serve on the Executive Committee.

A caucus of the Democratic members of the House of Representatives was held on Thursday night, at which it was decided to vote against Mr. Kelley's Revenue Bill, unless certain amendments thereto were adopted. It was also decided, in case the proposed amendments were rejected, to offer a motion to recommit the bill to the Committee on Ways and Means, with instructions to report a bill abolishing all internal-revenue taxes except those upon whiskey and whiskey-dealers. The bill was passed on Tuesday by a vote of 127 to 80.

The Senate passed the bill enabling national banks to extend their corporate existence, by a vote of 34 to 13, on Thursday. The bill has undergone considerable modification since it came from the House, and three sections, embodying the Sherman three per cent. funding scheme, Mr. Beck's provision punishing the over-certification of checks, and Mr. Allison's gold-certificate proposition, have been added to it.

The Senate Committee on Foreign Affairs has prepared a bill providing for a complete judicial system in China, Japan, and other countries, where the United States by treaty, custom, or otherwise, exercises jurisdiction over its citizens.

A number of the leading Republican members of the House held a conference on Friday to consider the question of adjournment *sine die*. It was decided that the business of the House could be disposed of by the 10th of July, and that there would be no necessity for Congress to remain in session beyond July 15 at the latest.

The strike of the freight-handlers in New York and Jersey City continues. This strike has caused great loss to merchants, especially to those dealing in perishable goods. A number of mercantile firms of New York have signed an address to the general traffic managers of the railroads for the purpose of impressing upon them the necessity "of some action being taken to solve the present difficulty as speedily as possible." On Saturday the situation became serious, as the strikers began to interfere with men who continued to work. A large force of well-armed police was put on duty in Jersey City, and active preparations were made to put down a riot. On Monday, Governor Ludlow, of New Jersey, issued a proclamation calling upon the local authorities to use their power to prevent any disturbances, and adding that the military power of the State would be promptly used to aid the local authorities in their efforts to preserve the public peace and protect property.

Another storm of wind and rain passed over Iowa on Thursday. The damage to property

was very great, and several deaths are reported. On Friday, a tidal wave swept the lake front of Cleveland, Ohio, inflicting damage to property roughly estimated at $30,000.

During a heavy thunderstorm on Thursday at Columbia, S. C., the Confederate monument in the State House grounds was struck by lightning, and the marble statue of a Confederate soldier, which surmounted it, was thrown down and shattered into fragments.

The report of the Board of Visitors to the Naval Academy at Annapolis states that many of the buildings are unsafe, and liable to fall at any time.

Michael Davitt has been addressing large and enthusiastic meetings on the Irish question, in Boston, Philadelphia, New Haven, and other places during the week.

Edmund Benjamin, the coxswain of the Columbia College crew, was drowned while bathing at New London on Friday, and the Harvard-Columbia race, which was to have taken place on Saturday, has been postponed until July 3.

FOREIGN.

The programme of the new Egyptian Ministry includes the maintenance of the new *status quo* and the fulfilment of international obligations. On Friday the London *Standard's* Alexandria correspondent telegraphed that he was informed on the best authority that if France and England interfere actively in Egyptian affairs, Arabi Pasha will blow up the Suez Canal and the railway to Cairo, and oppose the landing of European troops in Alexandria. If beaten, he will retire to the desert, where he is promised the support of 30,000 Bedouins. The Egyptian Ministry, the despatch adds, are prepared to sanction the above policy on patriotic grounds. Dervish Pasha received a telegram from the Sultan instructing him to use his efforts to induce Arabi Pasha to go to Constantinople before the sitting of the European Conference, and stating that the Sultan is satisfied with Arabi's attitude. It is understood that Arabi replied to the invitation to Constantinople by saying that he was willing to go, but that the Army would not let him. Arabi is reported to have said that he would resist to the death every pretence on the part of the enemies of Egypt to interfere with her affairs, and that he cannot regard any settlement as satisfactory until the fleets have withdrawn. The report that he aimed at ruling Egypt without the Khedive he declared to be a base calumny. On Saturday the news came that the exodus of Europeans had begun again, owing to rumors of fresh disturbances. Admiral Seymour, the British commander, says that he can only land 1,000 men in case of a rising. The Khedive has written a letter to Ragheb Pasha, President of the Council, recapitulating the recent events in Egypt, which he describes as deplorable. He points out that foreigners continue to leave Egypt, that commercial affairs are at a standstill, that specie is being hastily withdrawn, that there is a complete absence of credit, and that enormous loss is thus caused to the country. He declares that a strict, searching inquiry must be held to find out the causes which led to the catastrophe in Alexandria, and that it is absolutely necessary that measures be taken for the reëstablishment of friendly relations between the natives and Europeans for the maintenance of order and the resumption of business, on which the prosperity of the country depends. The *Standard's* correspondent at Alexandria considers the Khedive's present position very alarming, and thinks he will be arrested on the first sign of foreign occupation.

On Tuesday it was announced that the British Vice-Consul at Alexandria had resigned. Arabi Pasha has declared that the natives implicated in the massacre at Alexandria on June 11 shall not be punished unless the Europeans who fired on the rioters are also punished.

The Conference of the Powers at Constantinople has been in session. The first sitting lasted several hours. The only differences revealed were with reference to the contingency of a military occupation and to the financial control. In the sitting on Sunday, during the discussion of the rights of the Sultan over Egypt, a tendency was manifested to confirm those rights on a basis precluding the idea of Egypt again becoming a Turkish province. The Porte continues to send circulars to its envoys abroad, declaring that the Conference is inopportune. Arabi states that if the Porte abandons him, he will publish correspondence proving that every step he has taken since September 7 last was instigated by the Porte.

On Thursday M. de Freycinet, in the French Chamber of Deputies, and Sir Charles Dilke in the House of Commons, made similar declarations concerning the basis of the Conference, which was: the reëstablishment of the rights of the Sultan, the maintenance of the rights of the Khedive, the preservation of the liberties of the Egyptians, and the observance of the international engagements of Europe.

There is said to be a growing feeling in England that the Government has acted without foresight or energy on the Egyptian question. A despatch to the New York *Tribune* on Sunday says that no one pretends to know what the Conference will decide, but that, in any event, the English Government will finally insist on Arabi's expulsion. A great meeting is to be held in London on Thursday to press upon the Government the necessity of taking effectual measures for the protection of British life and property in Egypt. Active warlike preparations are being made in England. The Press Association on Tuesday reported that the War Office had issued orders for 20,000 arms and accoutrements to be ready in four days, and it is stated that 1,000 marines will be sent to the Mediterranean to strengthen the British squadron there. The London *Times*, in a leading article on Monday, said: "It may be taken for granted that there is something more than empty sound behind the preparations at the dock-yards." Tuesday's despatches from England indicated increased activity in the War Department. The *Times* says that matters have been so arranged that there will be no difficulty, in case it should be necessary, in despatching 20,000 men to Egypt in a few days.

Clause 11 of the Repression Bill was discussed in the House of Commons on Wednesday. Mr. Gladstone stated that the Government proposed to introduce words limiting the power of police search at night to occasions where there is reasonable suspicion that a secret society is actually holding a meeting. The Irish members accepted this as a reasonable and important concession. This clause was then adopted by a vote of 259 to 45. On the same day, Mr. Trevelyan, in opposing various limitations to the right of search, appealed to the members to expedite the Repression Bill. Every day, he said, gave the Irish Executive fresh reason to regard the position of the country with deep and increasing anxiety, and added seriously to the responsibility of those who prolonged the discussion. On Thursday Sir Charles Dilke, replying to an inquiry, said that he believed there were still some American citizens imprisoned in Ireland. The House, in Committee, then took up clause 12 of the Repression Bill, which provides for the application of the Alien Act to aliens in Ireland. An amendment limiting the duration of the operation of the Alien Act was rejected. Mr. Morgan Lloyd then moved an amendment applying the Alien Act to the whole United Kingdom. This was finally agreed to by a vote of 228 to 51. Friday was spent in discussing various amendments to clause 12, moved by Irish members. These amendments were all opposed by the Government, and were finally withdrawn. During the debate John Bright said it was obvious that the condition of Ireland was made greatly worse by the subscriptions raised in America, and by those persons who came from America to participate in conspiracies. He did not hesitate to say that those subjects of the Queen who had taken part in the Chicago Convention were traitors to the Crown. The object of the clause under discussion was, he said, to prevent conspirators of the very deepest dye from exciting the people to disorder. The clause was finally carried by a vote of 132 to 30. Clause 13, defining the power of justices to summon witnesses, was then passed. Clause 14, for the apprehension of fugitive witnesses, was adopted on Tuesday.

It has been decided that the presentation of the freedom of the city of Dublin to Messrs. Parnell and Dillon shall take place on August 15, the occasion of the opening of the Exhibition and the unveiling of the statue of O'Connell.

On Thursday Mr. Gladstone, replying to a question, said that five weeks ago he made a communication to Sir Stafford Northcote that the Government, to accelerate the settlement of the procedure question, might accept an amendment for clôture by a two-thirds majority, but that now it reserves for itself liberty of action on the subject.

A London despatch on Thursday stated that Henry E. Abbey, the American theatrical manager, had signed a contract with Mrs. Langtry, the actress, for a tour in America, beginning in November next.

The French Senate has rejected the bill for the importation of foreign pork, on the ground that it did not offer sufficient guarantees against trichinosis.

The bill for the sale of a portion of the crown jewels and diamonds has passed the French Chamber of Deputies by a vote of 345 to 90, with an amendment that the proceeds shall be applied to the fund for disabled artisans.

The fact that the Emperor William did not accept the resignation of Herr Bitter as Minister of Finance until Tuesday, is regarded in Berlin as an indication that he does not entirely approve the fiscal policy of Prince Bismarck.

A circular prepared by Count Tolstoi, the new Russian Minister of the Interior, has been published, reasserting that officials who do not prevent outrages against the Jews will be immediately dismissed.

The London *Times's* correspondent at Berlin says it is now stated that General Ignatieff resigned the Russian Ministry of the Interior because he could no longer guarantee the safety of the Emperor. Credibility is lent to this view by the fact that since his resignation the political police have been revived.

At a Cabinet council in Madrid, on Thursday, the Minister of Foreign Affairs announced that Uruguay has refused to recognize the right of Spain to satisfaction for the murder of Spanish subjects in the dominions of the Republic. Four Spanish men-of-war will shortly arrive at Montevideo. The insurrection in Uruguay is spreading.

A monster meeting was held in Lisbon on Sunday, at which the Progressists and Republicans "fraternized." Violent revolutionary speeches were made.

A meeting was held in Rome on Sunday, in the grand hall of the Collegio Romano, to do honor to the memory of Charles Darwin. Professor Moleschott delivered an address, in which he reviewed Darwin's career. He said Italian history was a grand illustration of Darwin's theory of the struggle for existence.

A serious discussion is said to be going on in the Chinese Tsung Li Yamen upon the course to be pursued in regard to America's anti-Chinese action. It is generally thought that China's rights have been ruthlessly disregarded, and that the American Government has made itself liable to retaliatory action if such be deemed expedient.

GUITEAU AND THE "EXPERTS."

THE decision of the President on the application to reprieve Guiteau has been made known, and most properly refuses it, so that it is not worth while to discuss once more the question of his accountability. But the character of the "scientific" movement for his pardon on the ground of insanity deserves more than a passing mention. The "argument" which has been presented to the Attorney-General in support of this movement is enough to make one blush for the sane portion of the American people, who have, of course, to share the shame of the performances of some of their number. What it says is, that though the petition for the pardon on scientific grounds "is only signed by one out of 500 of the physicians of the country," "it is believed that the profession are fairly represented by it and by the explanations which accompany it." "It is believed," also, that "if the petition had been more thoroughly distributed, there is no doubt that thousands of signatures could have been obtained," and, "as it now stands, the signatures represent much of the best expert opinion of the country."

There are about 80,000 physicians and surgeons, good, bad, and indifferent, in the United States. One in 500 makes 160 medical signatures to the petition. That these are selected signatures we infer from the fact that the petition when first started was sent only to those who were known to believe in Guiteau's insanity. That they are representative signatures, in any proper sense of the term, is very unlikely. The assertion that "they represent much of the best expert opinion of the country," is that of the draughtsman of the argument, Mr. Reed, Guiteau's counsel. In fact, the whole superstructure rests on his affirmations. It is he who "believes" the signers of the petition "represent the medical profession, and that they constitute much of the best expert opinion of the country." There is no certainty that anybody else believes it except Guiteau himself. There is no other reason in the world why 160 doctors, selected at haphazard by the prisoner from 80,000, should be erected into a court of appeal to decide the question whether sentence should be executed on a murderer whose trial by the courts of law has lasted one year and been one of the most thorough on record.

We answer to this portion of the argument, and it is a sufficient answer, that "it is believed" that the opinions of these doctors, most of whom never saw Guiteau, are not worth a cent. We know of at least six persons who believe it, and we could, if time were given us, procure the written affirmation of "thousands of others" to the same effect. If the question of Guiteau's guilt has not been settled by the jury, but is still to be settled by a popular or professional vote of any kind, it ought not to be taken in this happy-go-lucky way, but at the polls at a regular election. Tens of thousands of votes in favor both of his innocence and his guilt can be obtained for five dollars apiece, or for a glass of whiskey. Signatures in great numbers in favor of his appointment to a collectorship, or a post-tradership, or even the pastorate of a Stalwart church, could be obtained in the same manner.

The absurdity does not stop here, however, for the argument maintains that Guiteau ought to be reprieved because his counsel did not examine "experts" enough; or, in other words, mismanaged the case. He did examine a great many experts, but unfortunately they testified the wrong way. They nearly all said that Guiteau was sane enough to be hanged. So the President has been gravely asked by a lawyer to suspend the course of justice because a prisoner's counsel did not keep on summoning doctors until he could find a respectable number to testify that his client was insane. If this is good ground for a pardon, however, no assassin ought to be executed until he has searched the medical profession of his country thoroughly, and picked out and produced in court such members of it as think from all they hear that he must have been crazy when he committed his crime.

Dr. Beard appears to play a prominent part in the movement, and we presume it is his connection with it which causes the appeal to be made "in the name of Science," but not, we are told, in the name of "Psychology," which "does not plead for Guiteau." Nobody has more respect for experts than we have, but they are fast becoming a great burden to the community, and largely through the habit they are falling into of thinking of themselves and calling themselves "Science," and "Psychology," and "Truth," and other fine names. A man who gives long and close attention to a subject is always entitled to be heard upon it with respect, but then there are subjects on which no expert can become scientific, or anything more than a good judge. There is no such thing as a science of insanity, any more than a science of health. No man can speak with scientific accuracy about the soundness of any mind. All he can say in any given case is: "I have seen a great many undoubtedly insane persons, and judging from these I should call this man insane." No doctor is, therefore, entitled to come forward and say, "Science demands so and so, or thinks so and so, about Guiteau," when what he really means is that G. M. Beard, or F. R. Jones, thinks or demands so and so. It is also very absurd for Mr. Smith or Mr. Brown to call himself "Psychology" in the public prints merely because he has been thinking or reading much about the operations of the human mind. He never can become Psychology by any amount of reading or cogitating, because Psychology is not one of the exact sciences. He might become Astronomy, or Chemistry, or Mathematics, but we observe that the successful cultivators of these sciences never call themselves "Science," or become obstreperous in their demands on the patience and good nature of the Government or the people.

We do not know whether there is any use in calling attention to the growing excesses of the bar all over the country in the defence of criminals, of which this Guiteau case furnishes another illustration, and which is fast making American criminal justice a byword all over the world, and increasing enormously the delays and uncertainty of the law. But the matter is one which calls loudly for some kind of reform. The advocates' duty, even if we accept the widest definition of it ever made, is a professional duty. In defending a prisoner, he remains a lawyer, and is bound to do for him all that a lawyer may properly and honestly do, by way of obtaining a full and fair examination of his case. But of late years the tendency of the counsel is to consider himself the prisoner's agent for facilitating his escape from punishment in any way that may suggest itself; or, if total escape be impossible, the utmost attainable postponement of the sentence. The result is thorough frivolousness in the conduct of the trial—frivolous exceptions, frivolous questions, unnecessary witnesses, endless applications for new trials, for stays of proceedings, for habeas-corpuses and certioraris, no matter how hopeless or absurd. If these fail, he goes to work to get up petitions for pardon, and the opinions of "experts," and articles for crazy and venal newspapers, and all the other machinery of "a movement." It now only remains to add assistance in breaking jail to the list of a criminal lawyer's duties, and then the last shred of the professional character will have disappeared from him; instead of being the prisoner's advocate, he will have become his "pard," occupied in getting him out of trouble by any device that comes to hand.

MR. JUSTIN McCARTHY'S APOLOGY FOR THE LAND LEAGUE.

MR. JUSTIN MCCARTHY, who is better known and, perhaps we may say, more trusted by the English-speaking world than any other member of the Parnellite group in the House of Commons, has written three very interesting letters to the New York *Tribune*, explaining and justifying the course of the Land League in and out of Parliament. He has a singularly modest, candid, persuasive way, which makes agreement with him almost seductive even to the most prejudiced. He has but little difficulty in excusing the action of the Parnellites in resorting to extraordinary modes of obtaining English attention to what they considered Irish grievances. No one who knows anything of the way in which the English mind receives the impact of Irish agitation, will greatly blame them for obstruction under the rules of the House. It was not an Irish device. The English Tories began it. It is, perhaps, in some cases a legitimate weapon of minorities. But Mr. McCarthy fails to excuse the extreme to which it was carried, and the coarse insults to members of the Government with which it was accompanied. Ireland is as much interested as the rest of the world in maintaining popular respect for parliamentary institutions, and for decision by discussion. That respect is the product of many ages of toil and endeavor, and perhaps one of the most valuable acquisitions of modern civilization. That the Parnellites in the struggle of last year did much to weaken or destroy it among their constituents, by the brawls which they got up in the House of Commons, and by finally compelling their expulsion by brute force, there is no

denying. Even Mr. McCarthy's skill in statement cannot put a good face on this.

In his account, too, of the arrest of Mr. Parnell and other Land Leaguers Mr. McCarthy is hardly fair to the Gladstone Cabinet. He describes Mr. Parnell as having made up his mind to give the Land Act a fair trial, at the moment when he was thrown into jail in order that it might have a fair trial. But if this condition of the Parnell mind was known to the initiated, it was not known to the general public. We can testify that in his reported speeches Mr. Parnell began by accepting the Act, and then denounced it as a fraud and subterfuge, and produced as a basis of a "fair rent" the prairie value of the land, which he well knew the Commissioners would not adopt, and began to make preparations for submitting test cases, the object of which, as fairly interpreted by his language, was to prevent the tenants from resorting to the Land Courts, and cause the failure of the whole scheme. This placed Mr. Gladstone between the horns of a cruel dilemma. He had to choose whether he would stand by and see a measure of pacification which he had passed with incredible labor and pains totally nullified, or lock up the chiefs of the League until it got fairly into operation; these chiefs being at the same time his Parliamentary opponents. He chose the latter, and when we say he chose wisely, we by no means excuse the lavish and reckless use of the power of arrest with which Mr. Forster followed it up. Of course the arrests were in a certain sense an act of war, but the war was begun by the Parnellites themselves in the House when they defied the Speaker and resorted to the use of such means as "God and nature had put into their hands."

Mr. McCarthy says nothing to defend the League against accountability for the murders and outrages. To superficial observers who know nothing of the Irish question, this is the most serious omission in his letters. It seems to them very much as the failure of the Northern people to be more impressed by the horrors of war seemed to Englishmen during the Rebellion. But the truth is that the Parnellites in Parliament were no more responsible for the outrages than for the weather. Outrages have been for many generations an expression of Irish discontent. If every Irishman who denounced English rule was to be held responsible for the agrarian crimes committed while he was talking, or soon after, nearly every Irish agitator, from Dean Swift down, would have to be counted a secret sympathizer with murder and mayhem. The Land League and the murders are both symptoms of the same disease. What produced the one produced the other. Doubtless Parnell and his friends might have been more profuse in their condemnation of the crimes, but it was human nature to refuse to be so in the presence of enemies who were fiercely denouncing them as the authors of them, and were using them to show that the production of crime was the only function of the League; the fact being that agrarian crime was a constant Irish phenomenon for nearly two centuries before the League was heard of. Moreover, there is no good reason for believing that the class which commits it would pay the slightest attention to Parnell's reprobation of it. We believe the twenty Molly Maguires who were hanged in Pennsylvania two or three years ago were good Catholics, but the teachings of the Church about assassination had made no impression on them.

SUMMER DINING

To every man compelled to stay in New York during any part of summer, the most serious problem presented by life is undoubtedly where to get a dinner. The class which has this problem presented to it is a large and increasing one, for although families who can afford it go out of town earlier and earlier, and remain out of town later and later, every year, the heads of families who find the means of keeping them out of town for several months have themselves to remain in the city a large part of their time and devote themselves to business. The husband, with his business headquarters in New York and his family established at Newport, Saratoga, Lenox, or some other "resort," is a familiar American type. Moralists may say that this is not the best kind of family life; the husband may himself think, if he be selfish enough to indulge such a thought, that marriage under such circumstances is not all that it might be; but for a very large number of New York husbands no other summer life is at all possible. The married man, thus situated, unless he is very fortunate, finds it out of the question to keep a town cook for himself alone, and he is therefore thrown on his club or on the town for a dinner for many a weary and lonely week during the summer. He is, to all intents and purposes, a bachelor, and helps to swell the large body of bachelors who are perennially in the same plight.

If there is any truth in political economy, the demand for good summer dining-places ought to create a supply. Of course, all the winter places are open, but these are all hot places; and what the summer restaurant-goer wants is a cool place. The clubs are for the most part as hot as any hotel or restaurant dining-room; and we believe there is only one in New York where it is possible to have a dinner *al fresco*. Besides this, everybody does not belong to a club, or want to. Even if membership in them at this time of year does not involve, as the stories of club scandals which get about from time to time give some ground for thinking it does, considerable risk to life and limb, many people care little for club life; and then the occasional reappearance in town of the ladies of the family on shopping excursions of one kind and another makes it desirable that the place should be one to which ladies can be taken.

Now, there is literally no cool summer dining-place of this sort in New York. It is idle to tell the diner that he may go down to Coney Island and dine there in comfort. It is true that he can do so; but he has to make a railroad and steamboat journey to do it, and what he wants is not a journey and a dinner, however good, but a plain dinner without any journey at all. What he wants is a place in the heart of the city where he can get such a dinner as he would have at home, or even a better dinner, to tell the truth, for he is entitled, in view of all the sacrifices he makes for the happiness of his family, to no less, and to have cool evening air blowing about him while he eats it.

Where can fresh air be obtained in such a city as New York? The extraordinary multiplication of what are called "gardens" seems to show that there is a widespread popular belief that fresh air in New York can only be obtained on the level of the ground. The New York garden, one of the advertised attractions of which is always its coolness, is merely a back-yard surrounded with a high boarding or wall. The passion for enclosure is very marked and curious. A garden was constructed by an enterprising hotel proprietor some years ago, and called a "jardin d'été," in which a most excellent dinner could be obtained, but in which the theory that the best air is nearest the ground was pushed to the point of sinking the garden below the level of the street. The result, of course, was the production of a mephitic atmosphere. The idea was carried out still further in Gilmore's Garden. Here, although the owners had an entire block, with which they could do what they pleased, they carefully preserved the walls and roof intact, and thus kept the external air entirely out of the building, and made the promenade inside one of the hottest and most suffocating in the world. This was not a dining-place, but the principle, so far as ventilation is concerned, is precisely the same.

The idea which has led to the development of the New York garden—that to get fresh air you must get as near the ground as possible and surround yourself with a high wall—is clearly a mistaken one. Experience shows that relief can only be obtained by going as high up as possible. To try to persuade people that they can get this by keeping as far down as possible and shutting out even the surrounding air, is a piece of imposture which it is painful to find so long successful. The thing to do is to go up to the roof. This fact has been pointed out over and over again in the interest of the summer restaurant-goer; and the reason why the roof is not utilized for him is hard to see. Any one spending an evening at the recently-opened Metropolitan Alcazar may see how it should, and also how it should not, be done. In this place of amusement an attempt has been made to turn the roof to account as a summer dining-room, but it is only a half-hearted attempt. The place consists of a huge concert-hall, round which, at the elevation of the third story, runs a platform, which may, architecturally, be part of the roof, but bears to the sides of the building the relation of a lofty shelf. This shelf in the evening serves both as a dining-place and a promenade. As it runs round the windows of the concert hall, its atmosphere is a mixture of the cool air surrounding the building and the hot, fetid air coming up from inside. As a restaurant it is, moreover, open to the objection that the tramping up and down of two or three thousand promenaders makes a quiet dinner out of the question. Repose of mind is essential to any real gastronomic enjoyment, and any violent excitement or irritation makes it out of the question. But the arrangement of the dining-shelf at the Alcazar is such as to arouse the guest's worst passions. The promenaders at the Alcazar outnumber the diners ten to one, and have the latter completely at their mercy. Of course, they show none. They crowd in upon the diners, crane their necks over them to see what is going on in the hall below, not infrequently draw chairs up to tables already occupied, and literally and metaphorically "make it hot" for any one who has come to have a quiet dinner and evening *al fresco*.

After dinner there is nothing to do but to suffer in this way at the hands of the promenaders, or to join the promenade and heat one's self by doing so, or to go inside the building, where the atmosphere is like that of a Turkish bath. Notwithstanding all this, the Alcazar shelf is nightly crowded; so great is the longing for a really cool summer dining-place on the roof, that a shelf is welcomed as better than no roof at all, and not even the announcement of the present

management that it will give half a pint of "Bodega sherry" with the dinner can keep people away. If there were any real trouble about getting up to the roof, the long delay in its utilization for the purpose of a summer dining-place could be understood. But there is none. The introduction of elevators has made it possible to have buildings of great height, and to get to the top of them without any exertion, and nothing could show our general devotion to money-getting more discreditably than that elevators have thus far been almost wholly brought into play in places of business or hotels; the use of the elevator in connection with the natural summer dining-room on the roof is still to come. The invention of the elevator, too, has been accompanied by the discovery that electricity can be used for purposes of illumination, and the difference between the electric and all other lights is that it is cool. The final cause of all this is so plain that it is something like impiety to refuse to see it. The climate is warm, and a large part of the population need a cool dining-place. The only place where this can be found is the roof. At the very time when this demand for the roof comes into existence, one invention appears which supplies a means of getting to the roof rapidly and without exertion, and another which gives us what seems like a contradiction in terms, and something almost beyond the power of nature to furnish—a cool yet brilliant light. No one who believes in human progress can doubt, when he looks at the thing in this way, to what it points.

ENGLAND IN THE EGYPTIAN CRISIS.

LONDON, June 15.

SERIOUS as the condition of Ireland still is, and slow as the progress of the repressive legislation regarding her is, the centre of gravity in our political affairs has for the time shifted from Ireland to Egypt. Though decisive events will probably have happened before these lines can reach you, still your readers may naturally wish to know how the Egyptian crisis presents itself to us in England, and in what way it is likely to affect the position of our parties.

The present position is the creation of the Government of Lord Beaconsfield. From the time of Mehemet Ali Pasha onward, the suzerainty of the Sultan over Egypt had become a very vague and shadowy matter, carrying with it no effective control. However, the Turkish Government had by no means lost the hope of recovering its rights, and Sultan Abdul-Aziz intended to do so, but was kept in good humor by Ismaïl Pasha, who spent a good part of the enormous loans which he raised in Europe in bribing the Sultan and his court. When the deposition of Ismaïl was resolved on by the Western Powers, the authority of the Sultan was invoked to effect it, and this at once brought back Turkish claims to the realm of practical politics. Even the Conservative English Government which was then in power did not much like such a recognition of the Sultan's sovereignty, but they thought it a less evil than the direct interference of an English and French army, and therefore accepted it. The Sultan saw how much he had gained, and watched eagerly for the next opportunity of reasserting his rights. He had also become possessed with the idea that he might recover that vast and undefined half-spiritual, half-temporal authority which the office of Khalif carries with it over the Mohammedan world, and fancied that through the use of his Khalifal pretensions he might recover in a new direction more than all the prestige which his defeat by Russia had taken from him. The conquest, for so one may call it, of Tunis by France has lately embittered him against the Western Powers, and made him all the more anxious to tighten his grasp on other Mohammedan lands.

Meanwhile, the financial protectorate of England and France, acting jointly, was going on. Many Englishmen, especially Liberals, regretted its establishment. As it was due to the action of France, and as the action of France was taken in the interest of the holders of Egyptian bonds, it seemed to them tainted in its source. What are these French speculators to us, they said, that we should, for their sakes, involve ourselves in responsibilities in a Mohammedan country, make ourselves parties to a system which squeezes taxes by cruelty out of a wretched peasantry, and enter a partnership with France which is almost sure to end in a quarrel? Far better to have annexed Egypt at once, which Lord Beaconsfield might have done in 1875, when France was in no condition to resist. We should then have become masters of the situation; might have governed Egypt so as to make it pay its way and yet improve the condition of the peasantry; might have had the Suez Canal all to ourselves instead of being merely the holders of some shares in it. It is indeed a little odd that Lord Beaconsfield, who was fond of bold schemes, did not try this one; but probably he feared the vehement opposition which would have proceeded from Mr. Gladstone, and was held back by Lord Derby and other timid or cautious members of his own Cabinet. Anyhow, he was content, conceiving it absolutely necessary not to let France get alone the mastery of Egypt, to act in company with her, and thus he left matters when he resigned office in 1880.

The Government of Mr. Gladstone accepted and maintained the *status quo*. They could not retire from Egypt, because to do so would be to leave France able to work her own will, and would seem to throw the Canal, our route to India through which a vast trade now passes, at France's mercy. Therefore they kept things going, and hoped for the best, endeavoring to maintain a friendly concert with the various French Governments, which unfortunately change so fast as to increase the difficulties of a steady and consistent diplomacy. Last September the revolt of the Colonels seemed for a time to threaten a complete break-up of the system, and ever since it has been clear that our position was extremely precarious. Those who know Egypt have been warning us to prepare for a catastrophe; but unluckily they have not had many useful suggestions to give as to the course we must pursue, and even now, when the storm has broken, it is wonderful how little prepared public opinion is to arrive at definite practical conclusions. There are of course the usual three courses, but none of them is satisfactory. The first is to withdraw altogether from Egypt, and leave her affairs to settle themselves. It is plain, it looks easy, it naturally suggests itself to a transatlantic observer. It is pressed upon us by two sections of politicians, but both are small, and one is insignificant. The party of non-intervention, who desire to see England keep wholly aloof from the internal affairs of all other countries, to have no diplomatic dealings except in matters which obviously affect our direct material interests, and never to draw the sword except in self-defence—this party would of course be glad if we should cut the Egyptian knot by abandoning Egypt altogether. However, it contains few persons of any weight or eminence, and has really no influence in Parliament. The other section can scarcely be called a party, for it consists only of a few writers, mostly Englishmen who have lived in Egypt and become interested in Mohammedanism, who urge that we ought not to interfere with the legitimate development of the country as a people and a state, who declare that a National party has grown up on the banks of the Nile, and that it will work out the happiness and greatness of the nation if left to itself. The answer made to these arguments is that this National party is a dream of enthusiasts, and that there are no materials for self-government in Egypt; while the non-interventionists are reminded that the general sentiment of England would never tolerate a Government which abandoned our highway to the further East.

At the opposite pole from these doctrines stand those who think it would have been better to, so to speak, take the bull by the horns, and, on the first symptoms of revolt against the Khedive and hostility against Europeans, land English and French troops, fortify Alexandria, and march on Cairo. Very few people have as yet ventured to advocate so daring a course. The Liberals don't like it, because it is the maximum of intervention, and because, remembering the issue of the Schleswig-Holstein occupation by Prussia and Austria, they think that England and France would sooner or later come to a quarrel, which would be a serious quarrel, over their prey. The Conservatives have not called for it, partly because they also feel these dangers; partly because they have a lingering sympathy with the Turks, and see that such a course would be strongly resented by the Sultan, whose rights over Egypt they admit. And the gravest objection of all is that such decided action by England and France would probably give grave umbrage to the other four Powers which signed the Treaty of Berlin, and might conceivably lead to a European war. This is a point on which one who does not know the secret diplomatic history of the question can hardly speak; but supposing it not to be a serious danger (and it may not be), the course of events during the last few days has gone far to show that the error of England and France has been not to have shown more audacity, not to have followed up their threats by an immediate display of overwhelming force. And it is quite possible that the Conservative leaders may before long take this line, and place upon this ground those charges which they are sure to bring against Mr. Gladstone's policy. Hitherto they seem to have been waiting to see what turn events will take, fearing to commit themselves prematurely to a view which might be suddenly refuted. This is the fair privilege of an Opposition; what is stranger is that among all our speakers and writers hardly any one has had any definite line of conduct to propose. Everybody is perplexed. Everybody feels that we are in a position theoretically indefensible, and almost sure to involve misfortune. Thus it happens that even the acquiescence of our Government in the action of the Sultan, who has at last found, and is using with true Oriental craft, the opportunity of making his claims effective, has excited less censure than might have been looked for. The Tories, of course, twit Mr. Gladstone with his asking aid from the "unspeakable Turk"; the Liberals see with disgust that the Sultan is likely to strengthen an authority for whose extinction they have been anxiously waiting. But no one has demanded that the Turkish claims should be disregarded and the solution sought by the armies of France and England alone.

It may, however, happen that the danger in which, as the events of June 11 at Alexandria show, the Europeans in Egypt stand, will, after all, compel our forces to land. It is not yet clear, but you will probably know before these lines are in print, how far the massacre of that day was due to distinctly political or religious motives, how far merely an outbreak of that vast population of ruffians who infest Alexandria,

and who would naturally seek an occasion for plunder and violence. But there can be no doubt that Europeans are unpopular in Egypt, and that, on the whole, they deserve to be so. Every country of Western and Southern Europe sends a great many of its least estimable children to make and lose fortunes in half-civilized regions like Egypt and other parts of the East; and Egypt, as the richest district, has had the largest share of this mischievous emigration. We are so much accustomed to dwell on the superiority of our own civilization, and the excellence of our intentions, that we do not quite realize that the impression produced on the Oriental mind may be different. Yet, whatever be the demerits of the Europeans in the Levant, they are entitled to the protection of their Governments; and if this is not speedily given by Turkish troops, there will be a loud call that it should be given by England and France themselves. Y.

LAST DAYS OF THE ITALIAN LIBERATOR.

MILAN, June 7, 1882.

As the cable will have brought you the fatal news, I did not intend to send you a letter until the last sad rites were over, but, owing to various obstacles, these are not yet performed, and certainly to-day there is no chance of their completion. Yet Garibaldi's instructions were very clear. On September 27, 1877, he wrote to Dr. Prandina directing him to perform the operation of cremation, as he had decided on having his body burned. The funeral pyre was to be raised 300 paces to the left of the White House, to the north looking seaward; here acacia, myrtle, cistus, and other aromatic faggots should be piled, the iron bedstead which had served him as a bed and carriage placed on top, and finally, on an open bier, his body, clothed in his red shirt; the ashes should be collected and enclosed in an urn, to be set in a niche in the wall behind the graves of two of his children—Anita, a beautiful young girl of seventeen, daughter of a woman whom he loved in Nice, and Rosa, a baby of eighteen months (born to him after Clelia), who died during the French campaign, and, the parish priest of Maddalena denying her funeral rites, the mother buried her in the island, and Garibaldi, on returning, was so pleased with the idea that he straightway decided on being buried there himself. In a letter to his present wife, written in 1881, he expressly enjoins on her to burn his body, as directed, before announcing his death to any one—a most characteristic injunction—accompanied by the promise to do the same for her should she precede him to the tomb. He assuredly would have kept his promise, nor would any government have dared to interfere with him; but the poor widow, with two young children, alone on the island, could not have taken on her shoulders such a responsibility. She had to wait for Menotti, summoned as soon as danger threatened, and even he arrived too late. Then he resolved to await his brother and sister—Ricciotti from Rome, Teresita and her husband, Canzio, from Genoa—and meanwhile the news had got abroad, and the prefect of Sassari, chief man in the island of Sardinia, stepped in to say that he could not allow any cremation without orders from the Government. Menotti warned him fairly that, at the cost of his life, he would see his father's behest obeyed; and meanwhile from all Italy, as the news sped with lightning rapidity, came a wail of woe, then the passionate entreaty: "Embalm him! Let us see his face once more, or let us at least have his ashes for the Pantheon or the Capitol." Menotti opposed a stern but sad refusal, promising, however, to have the body embalmed so as to be able to defer the cremation ceremony until the representatives of the King, of the two houses of Parliament, of every municipality in Italy, should be able, with the representatives of the press and other thousands of citizens, to reach the island. But when embalming was attempted it was too late, and too late for the erection of the simple funeral pyre as Garibaldi wished it. Such a step being distinctly illegal, it was clear that the Government could not sanction it by being personally present; so Doctor Pini, who superintends the crematory of Milan, erected on the Gorini system, went over last night with Deputy Crispi to prepare all decently and in order.

A special iron coffin has been despatched from Sassari, but as I write comes a telegram from the family: "Friday is the very earliest day that can be fixed for the funeral," and if this state of things augments the grief of all, what must it be for the family, who have to watch day by day and hour by hour "Decay's defacing fingers" gradually effacing the marble calm and luminous seraphic smile which overspread the face as soon as the death agony was over? That, indeed, was terrible to witness—terrible and unexpected. When we first saw Garibaldi after 1876, when he left Rome in tolerable health and could still use his limbs freely, save when periodical attacks prostrated him, we were shocked at the awful change. Still, he bore bravely the agitation of the inaugural ceremony at Milan to the martyrs of Mentana; then, when we were fearing the worst, alighted at Naples, seemed there to take a new lease of life, and performed the wonderful feat of travelling by land from Naples to Reggio; crossed the Faro, then again by land from Messina to Palermo. Though literally but the shadow of himself, his intellect was so clear, his smile so radiant, his interest in his *picciotti* so keen, that one grew to believe with the Neapolitans that he could never die. A somewhat sharp attack, however, at Palermo warned him that if he would breathe his last in his beloved hermitage he must return immediately, and this he did in the same Government frigate, the *Esploratore*, whose officers had borne him so tenderly from Caprera to Naples that he suffered not at all. They were only too proud, and the feat of securing to him a painless voyage from Palermo to Caprera was renewed. Once there he seemed to revive, so much so that toward the end of May Doctors Albanese and Sirletti left Caprera, enjoining solely on his family to prevent his being tired or excited by receiving people.

He led his regular life, getting up early and, when the weather permitted, going down in his little hand-carriage to the sea, always accompanied by his darling Manlio. Despite his age and infirmities (the malady known as deforming anthritis having twisted his poor hands and completely paralyzed his lower limbs), despite even a severe bronchial attack, his voice was still vibrating and sonorous. He would call the peasants from the adjoining fields, give them directions, ask after their families without even appearing weary, so healthy were his lungs to the last. At eleven o'clock he returned to the house to eat, preferring one special dish, which is the favorite dainty of the Neapolitans—a cake made of flour with onions and tomatoes, called "pizze"; then if still hungry he would call for a large piece of meat, have it thrown on to the fire, and, the frizzled part being cut off, would eat it, let the piece frizzle again, and so on till it was finished. The doctor who gives me these details expressing some curiosity, not unmixed with disgust, at this pre-Adamite cookery, Garibaldi answered, "I eat now from choice as I ate perforce during my long journey in South America, where I had neither cooks nor saucepans, and was only too glad to come across a wild buffalo to stave off hunger." The rest of the day he passed sometimes in a spacious room, where he had a window specially made, whence he could see the sea and the Maddalena; at other times in being drawn around the island. On the 24th of May the doctor, who had remained at home with Manlio, who was indisposed, saw that the General, who came in later than usual, was looking very sad and weary. Afterward he learned that he had been to visit the tombs of Anita and Rosa, where he had himself decided to be buried. Unfortunately, there were no signs that cold taken during that pilgrimage had fastened on the bronchial tubes, but it was so; difficulty in breathing and, later, difficulty in swallowing became excessive; and on the very day when letters reached Canzio at Genoa and Menotti at Rome saying that their father was better, came telegrams urging them to hasten if they would see their father yet alive. From that hour paralysis seized on the larynx, and not even a drop of water could the sufferer swallow. Manlio, his "Benjamin," was also ill, and he waited with patient but ever-increasing anxiety for the arrival of his favorite doctor, Albanese. "Is the steamer in sight?" were almost his last words; his very last, the name of the darling of his old age, "Manlio."

At six o'clock the surgeon of the Government steamer *Cariddi*, who was in attendance, pronounced life extinct, but it was a syncope, and the death agony lasted yet three hours. At five minutes to nine on Friday, June 2, the great champion of the oppressed passed away forever. For the first few moments, we are told, the face was awful to look upon, as are ever the faces of those who die by suffocation. Then, when life had relaxed her hold, it settled down peacefully, a halo of intense calm composing every feature. The sailors of the *Cariddi* were allowed to handle the beloved form, dress it in the red shirt and poncho, and lay it on the bed where it still lies—"a marble mask," writes our correspondent, "of what yesterday was Garibaldi." Very, very few have been permitted to enter the illuminated hall. Poor Sgarallino, one of Garibaldi's favorite officers, wounded on the Volturno in 1860, who spent a great deal of his time at Caprera, and had helped the General with hammer and chisel to scoop out an old millstone which was to serve as the basis for the funeral pyre, fainted across the threshold. This grief is but a type of that universally felt. Never could I have imagined such scenes as I have witnessed. It seems as if the pulse of the nation had ceased to beat. All the Government and communal schools are closed, and though some private clerical schools attempted to hold their classes as usual, and the parents also sent their children, a regular rebellion occurred, the young ones refusing to carry on their usual avocations with Garibaldi lying dead. I have witnessed the national mourning for Cavour, Mazzini, Victor Emmanuel—sincere, as far as it went, in all cases, and for Mazzini among many the grief was passionate and deep; but now it seems as if every one had lost his or her nearest and best. Here in Milan it is no exaggeration to say that when, on Sunday, all the associations formed in procession, with banners at the head, all Milan accompanied them to the cemetery as they bore the bust of Garibaldi. And when, for fear of being shut out from the gates, as only the members of the associations were to be admitted, confusion occurred, and worse was threatened, it sufficed that Colonel Bruzzesi, one of Garibaldi's veterans, said, "For Garibaldi's sake, be still," and a hush fell over the crowd that was unbroken until the end of the ceremony.

But I should never end if I were to recount all the manifestations of this intense universal national grief. You know that Parliament at once voted 60,000 francs annual pension—that is, 10,000 francs for each of the five children—Menotti, Ricciotti, Teresita, Clelia, and Manlio—and 10,000 francs for the widow; this because Garibaldi's pension of 50,000 francs a year expired at his death. Enormous sums are already subscribed in each town, city, and village for a monument to Garibaldi to be erected *there*, so that each man, woman, and child can see it beside his own special belfry tower. The King's grief was heartfelt, his letter to Menotti most graceful:

"My father taught me, when a boy, to honor in Garibaldi the virtues of the citizen and soldier. An eye-witness of his glorious deeds, there grew up within me a profound affection mingled with the deepest gratitude and admiration. All this doubles for me the weight of his irreparable loss. I share the supreme grief of the Italian people and of the family, and I beg you to be the interpreter of my condolences, of my participation in the sorrow of the entire nation."

The conduct of France, as a whole, and of the French Chambers especially, has poured a balm into the recent wounds inflicted on Italy by French Chauvinism, but—will you believe it?—the French consul resident in Milan refused to float the national tricolor here where every other nation has floated its flag, veiled in mourning. The workingmen, exasperated already by the ill treatment of their comrades by Frenchmen, were for attacking the consul's office, and were with difficulty restrained by their leaders, all old Garibaldians. These gave the consul twenty-four hours to explain or apologize; then, as he still kept silence, addressed to him a dignified yet indignant letter, denying him the character of a French representative, and a copy of the letter has been sent to Mancini, Minister of Foreign Affairs.

I conclude by sending you what you may have forgotten—a splendid letter written by Garibaldi to friends in the United States, when the question of the *Alabama* was pending between England and America:

"My friends: I have ever held from the first moment that the American question was one of those which interest the entire world, all humanity; and it grieved me to the quick to see that a fraction of the English public was opposed to the reëstablishment of the Union of the great republic. This opposition, as no one can be ignorant, is the result of old rancor lurking still between England and America. It was indeed a sad thing to see thus astray the good sense of that people which was the first to affirm the principle of the emancipation of slaves. One would have expected them unanimously to applaud the Americans of the North, whom Providence has chosen as executors of this sublime idea, but I would fain hope that these lords of the ocean will make up their quarrels and come to terms for the benefit of oppressed humanity. Sons of the same mother, they ought to comprehend that their noble race to-day forms the bulwark of the rights of nations, and that dissensions are expressly sown between them by the upholders of despotism. Despots fear them, knowing that as long as they remain on terms of friendship, it will be impossible for them to carry out their designs, ever fatal to liberty.—Ever yours, G. GARIBALDI, Caprera.
"May, 1865."

P. S.—Just as I was mailing my letter I receive the following telegram from Caprera: "Garibaldi's body is not to be burnt, but the remains will be transported to the Janiculum." Your readers will remember that the Church of San Pietro in Montorio, on the summit of the Janiculum, was the centre of Garibaldi's military operations during the siege of Rome in 1849. The belfry tower was shattered by French bombs. Just below it are buried the remains of Ciceroacchio and other victims shot to death by the Austrians, who captured the thirteen fishing boats in which Garibaldi hoped to reach Venice after his flight from Rome, saying: "Venice is still left to die for." It was then that Anita, the mother of his children, faithful wife, nurse, fellow-soldier, friend, died in his arms. The Austrian soldiery hung, drew, and quartered the peasant who had harbored her in her dying hour. Thence, as soon as the body was buried in the hole dug by Garibaldi himself and one Leggero, he escaped to Chiavari, was imprisoned, and took refuge at Tunis. Driven thence and refused protection at Gibraltar, he received hospitable shelter in New York, and earned his living with a tallow chandler on Staten Island. He returned to fight against the Austrians in 1859.

GARIBALDI AND THE MOVEMENT OF 1848.

LONDON, June 8, 1882.

THIS is not the season for analyzing Garibaldi's character, or for weighing against his greatness faults which in so far as they had a real existence were little else than his virtues looked at from the wrong side. No one who belongs to the generation whose day-dream was the unity of Italy, would care to sit down in cold blood and criticise the hero who has breathed his last at Caprera. It is sufficient for those who feel that the romance of politics is for them buried in Garibaldi's tomb to know that their hero was, whatever his petty foibles, worthy of the admiration which more than thirty years ago he kindled in the hearts of all that was youthful and hopeful and generous and high-minded throughout Europe. The cause for which he fought and suffered, and with which he triumphed, was noble, and he was worthy to be the hero of the cause of Italy. But though this is no opportunity for criticising the defender of Rome and the liberator of Naples, Garibaldi's death affords a fitting occasion for pressing on public attention one or two reflections which belong rather to the field of history than of politics, and which, if in one sense obvious, have nevertheless a certain permanent importance. His death marks the close of an era. A few veterans of the revolutionary struggle still linger on the stage. Kossuth is alive, but the Hungarian patriot is himself a memory of the past, not a living power. Of the men who came to the front in 1848, scarcely one of any eminence is still found among us, and if any statesman or revolutionist of that era yet survives, we feel instinctively that he belongs to a past age. The nationalist movement of 1848, of which the watchwords were nationality and liberty, has run its course. We can regard it with something like historical impartiality, and can draw from its successes no less than from its failures at least four more or less important conclusions.

First. The visionaries or fanatics who, fifty years ago, began to trouble the repose of all sensible and respectable persons with their clamor about the rights of nations and the tyranny of kings, understood or felt the wants of the time far more truly than did even the most moderate and far-seeing of the politicians who honestly denounced the revolutionary movements which disturbed Europe. Any one who thinks it worth while to do so, may denounce the recklessness or the criminality of the men who conspired and plotted against the Emperor of Austria, the King of Naples, the King of France, or the Princes of Germany. The one thing which no sane critic can now venture to assert is, that these conspirators did not understand the tendency of the time. All the main objects of revolutionary effort have now, in fact, been achieved. Italy is independent, France is a Republic, Germany is united, the Constitution of Hungary is restored. For good or for bad, the cause of nationality, and in France at any rate the cause of republicanism, has triumphed. Enthusiasts have turned out—not for the first time—more keen-sighted than men of sound sense and educated judgment. Nor need this excite any surprise. To know the feelings of the world, to enter into the prevailing sentiment of an age, to experience in one's own heart the suffering which harasses or the hope which cheers thousands of one's fellows, is precisely the gift of men and women who are blessed or cursed with a capacity for enthusiasm or faith. No one can now doubt that the passion for Italian unity which devoured Mazzini was shared by all his countrymen high and low. The career of Pio Nono is proof enough that hatred of foreign oppressors had in 1848 entered the Vatican; the whole life both of Charles Albert and of Victor Emmanuel proves that zeal for Italian independence had found a home in the palace of an Italian prince. Nor can any one now hesitate to say that enthusiasm for nationality was not confined to Italy. The soldiers and the statesmen of Germany were compelled at last by the very spirit of the age to adopt that belief in national independence which had been preached for more than half a century by rebels and zealots.

Secondly. The faith or passion which leads men to understand or feel the wants of their age, is no guarantee for their ability to point out or practise the method by which these wants may be satisfied. The revolutionists of 1848 were for the most part the victims of a prevalent delusion fostered by a misreading of the history of the last French Revolution. They all placed unlimited trust in the miraculous effects of insurrection. The "people" rising in their might were, it was supposed, capable of routing the strongest and best disciplined armies. Mazzini to the end of his life, or at any rate till very late in his career, cherished the idea that the war of the peoples could accomplish miracles not to be achieved by the armies of kings. There is the less reason for wondering at the tenacity with which a man of his genius clung to this notion, because it is pretty plain that in 1848, at least, monarchs really shared the belief of rebels. The way in which one crowned head after another yielded during the revolutionary year to the demands of mobs which could have been scattered by a regiment of soldiers, is explainable by nothing but the panic caused by the very idea of insurrection. The basis of fact which gave a certain support to what, after all, must be pronounced a mere delusion, was that occasionally, though by no means so often as is generally supposed, the army "fraternized" with the mob, and further, that trained soldiers are at some disadvantage when called upon to resist citizens in the midst of narrow streets, where military manœuvres are impossible, and where every house may be turned into an improvised fortress. This belief in the transcendent power of insurrection was a delusion which, in one instance after another, proved the ruin of revolutionary efforts. Whenever, during the last thirty-four years, a government has been able to count on the support of a trained army, it has invariably succeeded in putting down every force which enthusiasm or courage could enlist in support of the popular cause. At Paris, at Naples, at Berlin, at Dresden, at Vienna, in every large town throughout Europe, the people have at one time or another come into serious conflict with the army; and on every occasion on which the army stood faithfully by the Government and the Government did not yield to panic, the people have been totally defeated. In February, 1848, Thiers proposed to Louis Philippe to retreat with the army to St. Cloud. If the King had taken the advice of his Minister, he would assuredly have returned in triumph to Paris. The experience of 1871 throws light on the policy which would have saved the

crown in 1848. The essential weakness of mobs is the most important though certainly by no means the most cheering lesson of 1848. That Mazzini never learned it was the secret of at least half his failures.

Thirdly. The Italians, and notably Mazzini, who preached the doctrine of nationality, never in their own minds dissociated the belief in national independence from the belief in personal freedom. Their tendency, indeed, was to believe that republicanism had an essential connection with the belief in national unity. The association between ideas of national independence and individual liberty was in their case perfectly natural, for in the case of Italy the two notions were practically inseparable. The petty princes of the country were tyrants, and their tyranny was supported by the bayonets of Austria. To expel the Austrians was to establish free institutions. Any system of free government was sure, as was seen in the case of Piedmont, to come into collision with the domination of the hated foreigners. The despots, moreover, of the Continent owed their power to treaties which had violated every national sentiment. In this instance, a few revolutionists and kings almost of necessity fell into a common error. The oppressor and the oppressed both believed that aspirations for national independence of necessity involved the desire for republican freedom. We now see that this belief was erroneous. Italy gained her unity under the guidance of an Italian prince, and Germany has been united into an empire under a ruler who in 1848 was prepared to support the authority of the Prussian crown by pouring grapeshot on the mob of Berlin, and through the instrumentality of a Minister who has throughout life been the sworn foe of parliamentary government. The error of conceiving that there was some natural connection between the so-called doctrine of nationality and the dogmas of liberalism or republicanism led, like all errors, to unfortunate results. Mazzini, to whom Italy owed her new birth, was not able to recognize in the country which preferred the monarchy of the House of Savoy to a renovated Roman republic the work of his own labor and self-sacrifice, while Germans have proved far too ready to sacrifice every security for unity on the altar of national liberty. Nor have the practical ill results of a speculative mistake been confined to Italy and to Germany. The sentiment of nationality has in one country after another been substituted for the desire for good government. The nineteenth century has in this, as in other cases, preferred sentiment to reason. Utilitarianism has nowadays a bad name, but the world would gain a great deal if the standard of utility could be once more made among thoughtful politicians the acknowledged test of good government. The notion that a national despotism is better than good government under foreign rule is one which, if pushed to extreme limits, may well become fatal to the liberty and to the progress of mankind.

Fourthly. The revolutions of 1848 bear an unmistakable impress of romance. Whoever reads with intelligence and sympathy the letters of A. H. Clough, the correspondence of George Sand, or the work in which Daniel Stern has left a permanent record of a transitory phase of sentiment, must perceive that even in Paris the tone of the time was one of generous if of childish enthusiasm. The absurdities of the day, the trees of liberty, the processions, the harangues, the general expressions of philanthropy, the rhetoric of Lamartine, the magic influence exercised for a moment by a poet who suddenly found himself the most conspicuous politician in Europe, the advances made by the Church to the democracy, the hopefulness with which democrats welcomed the idea that the Pope might be the restorer of Italian independence and the patron of human liberty, the confidence or simplicity which led statesmen and patriots to believe that the oaths of Ferdinand of Naples could be anything else than the mask of treachery—these and a thousand other signs are all evidences of the spirit of confidence and enthusiasm which for a moment spread from one end of Europe to the other. What lent a peculiar tinge of romance to the nationalist movement was, that, unlike the revolutions of the eighteenth century, it was or appeared to be an effort not only of reformation, but also of restoration. Its leaders, if they looked with hope toward the future, gazed also with reverence and sympathy on the past. To renew in a nobler form the glories of the Holy Roman Empire, to reëstablish and reform the Constitution of Hungary, to make Rome the moral centre of the world, to restore the unity of Italy, were aims which it seemed to the men of 1848 might be accomplished by devotion to the spirit of freedom and of nationality. The notion, in fact, of nationality seemed to its devotees to solve the problems of the age, and to make it for the first time possible for reformers to unite admiration for what was good in the middle ages with adherence to the doctrines of human equality and of universal philanthropy which inspired the true heroes of the great French Revolution. The romance which had been learnt from the pages of Scott and Manzoni might, it seemed, be combined with the democratic creed of the *Contrat Social*.

The romance which colored the whole movement of 1848 had, from the nature of things, more influence in Italy than in any other country of Europe. Misfortune and oppression had robbed Italians neither of their talent nor of their grace. To those who can still recall the time when the "cause of Italy" excited the sympathy and warmed the imagination of every youth who had a heart to feel pity for the victims of oppression, or a brain to imagine the beauty and nobility of Italy when at last restored to her place among the nations, it is impossible not to feel that the Italian exiles and leaders possessed a charm of character and of manner not to be found in the men of other countries. This idea is possibly a mere trick of memory. To the youths of to-day a Bulgarian or an Armenian may, for aught I know, be as interesting as was a Greek or a Pole to the enthusiasts of 1830, or as was an Italian refugee to the generation who came to manhood between 1848 and 1860. However this may be, it is a simple historical fact that the glow of romance which colored all the movements of 1848 shed a special halo of glory round the cause of Italy. Here it was far more easy than elsewhere to blend the romance of mediævalism with the romance of revolutionary republicanism. The history of the land lent itself to republican ideals. To call the movement which ultimately achieved the unity of Italy romantic, will seem to many persons to be equivalent to calling it fantastic or Quixotic. Nothing, however, is further from my intention than to speak in any other language than that of fervent admiration for a cause which has none the less claim on our sympathy and respect because it has now been crowned with success, and stands no longer, I rejoice to think, in want of foreign help or of foreign good-will. The consideration which has led me to dwell on the romantic aspect of the Italian revolution is that persons who have witnessed the triumphs achieved by the policy of Bismarck and the strategy of Moltke are very much prone to underrate the salutary effects of romance and enthusiasm. It is perfectly true that every page in the history of 1848–9 illustrates the dictum, "Enthusiasm runs away." Time after time proof was given that enthusiastic volunteers could not in the long run compete with disciplined soldiers. The force of an insurrection drove Radetsky out of Milan, but in a few months his soldiers brought him back as a conqueror.

This fact and all that it suggests should never be forgotten; the glory of Cavour is, that he learned, and made others learn, the true lessons of Italian defeat. But the admirers of big battalions have a good deal to learn from zealots. Garibaldi would at any time have been defeated by generals of far less competence than officers trained in the school of Moltke. But Garibaldi and the men of whom he is the representative achieved feats which could never have been performed by Bismarck, or by all the collective generalship of Prussia. You must judge of men such as Mazzini or Garibaldi as you would of prophets and apostles. They are the teachers, in different forms, of a new faith. Looked at in this point of view, their very defeats are often triumphs. Garibaldi's entrance into Naples was not his greatest act. If he is to have a tomb, it is quite right that his tomb should be placed on the Janiculum, for the noblest service he ever rendered to his country was the defence of Rome. When the French troops entered the city under Oudinot, France was disgraced and had already merited the *Coup d'état*. As Garibaldi retreated, Italy triumphed, and her cause became for the first time the cause of every man throughout the civilized world who loved justice and freedom. The mere material advantages of European sympathy to Italy cannot be easily overrated. But Garibaldi and the men with whom he was associated achieved far more for Italy than merely enlisting in her favor the sympathy of mankind. They made it impossible that the country should gain unity without gaining liberty.

Cavour's scorn of governing by means of a "state of siege" has become a sort of proverb. The refusal to achieve temporary success by a kind of violence which, even when it answers for the moment, makes success hardly worth attaining, is characteristic of the noblest side of the Italian revolution, and, I may add, of the noblest side of the whole movement of 1848. A great deal of ungenerous and inconsiderate sarcasm is constantly directed against the professors and others who during the revolutionary year sat in the German Parliament at Frankfort. Their weakness, their indecision, their failure, is contrasted by every devotee of force with the strength, the resolution, the success of Bismarck. The contrast is impressive. One fact ought not, however, to be forgotten. The professors or pedants who failed at Frankfort aimed at giving to their country both unity and freedom. The Prussian Minister fixed his eye on a far inferior object. He sought for and attained unity, but he sacrificed without regret the hope of combining union with liberty. The leaders of the Italian revolution were more fortunate or more skilful than either the professors or the generals of Germany. Italy is united and Italy is free. At the present moment Bismarck and Bismarck's system receive the indiscriminate admiration which the world lavished thirteen or fourteen years ago upon the French Emperor and the Imperial régime. It is hardly rash to anticipate that the time will come, and at no distant date, when the world will esteem the imperialism of Germany not much higher than the imperialism of France, or will at any rate perceive how much Germany has lost by the fact that her unity was secured through means fatal to her freedom. Italy, it may well be conceded, has suffered much from want of a general like Moltke, and still more

from want of armies like those which Moltke directed. But the day will assuredly come when acknowledgment must be made that Germany has suffered much from the failure to produce any hero like Garibaldi. Romance and generosity are powers no less than discipline and strategy. A. V. DICEY.

Correspondence.

THE HOMŒOPATHS AND THE REGULARS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An editorial in your issue of June 15, headed "Doctor and Patient," is so inaccurate and superficial in some respects that it should not go uncriticised. A constant reader of your journal for fifteen years, I am thoroughly convinced of your earnest desire to give expression only to the best thought and its results upon any and every subject, and I trust that you will allow me to try to show you that in this editorial you have fallen into grave error.

You say: "We have the medical profession thus divided into two bodies, both of which believe equally in the value of professional training and the possibility of treating disease according to rules derived from experience; both of which possess a high degree of skill, training, and education. They differ as to a dogma of the truth of which laymen have hardly any means of judging. . . . He [the layman] does not regard, and never can be brought to regard, a highly educated and trained physician as a 'quack' merely because of a difference between him and his rival around the corner on a recondite matter like that which divides homœopaths from allopaths. The enormous growth of the homœopathic body in the last fifty years shows that the rule does not prevent what the regulars regard as medical error from spreading," etc.

Now, I submit that the difference between scientific medicine and homœopathy is not one of a big *versus* a little dose, of dissimilars *versus* similars. The real and vital difference lies here: the regular school (we repudiate the nickname "allopath," which implies that we also have an infallible theory for the selection of our remedies) starts with no theory with which its practice must be made to accord; avails itself of every honest means, no matter what the source or method of application, which is or may be of service in the relief of human suffering; collects facts, and, making use of theory only in its true sphere, holds itself in readiness to discard any theory the moment the facts belie it. Homœopathy, on the other hand, does start with a theory with which its practice is made to accord, and this cherished theory is one which, during all the years since it was promulgated, the vast majority of physicians the world over have not been able to reconcile with the facts of observation. In short, the position of the regular school is non-dogmatic, broad, and truly scientific; that of homœopathy is dogmatic, narrow, and eminently unscientific.

Next, with regard to the "enormous growth" of homœopathy: it is but lately that one of its journals was lamenting the fact that it is not growing at present. It is true that it has grown in this country—so has Spiritualism, for that matter—but in the land of its birth and in France it is almost extinct, and in England it has made comparatively little headway. If homœopathy is merely another way of arriving at truth, how does it happen that it is unrepresented in the state universities of Germany? Surely no one can accuse the Germans of any lack of intellectual radicalism. I have no hesitation in adducing foreign examples to the *Nation*, which has so often given its readers reason to think that it does "care for abroad," and does believe that even we Americans may learn something from the "effete European despotisms."

You imply that there is nothing to choose between the two schools as regards "skill, training, and education." There are skilful and well-educated homœopaths, and there are, unhappily, unskilful and half-educated members of the regular school; but, if you would give yourself the trouble to investigate the facts, you would find that the average of attainment is decidedly higher in the regular school. What physicians prominent in science have been homœopaths? How large a proportion of the graduates of our leading colleges who study medicine enlists in the homœopathic ranks?

I believe the main reasons for the spread of homœopathy in the United States—the state examination in Canada is so severe that homœopathists religiously avoid that portion of America—are briefly these: First, the superficial character of much of the education in this country (a point on which the *Nation* has often dwelt); secondly, the American doctrine that one man is as good as another, and perhaps a little better (a doctrine which has also incurred your criticism, especially when it is illustrated in appointments to office for which special training is desirable); and, thirdly, the popular sympathy which is always enlisted in behalf of any man or body of men supposed to be persecuted in any way.

A physician who has had any experience knows perfectly well that, in order to succeed in making money by the practice of medicine, only one thing is absolutely necessary—a good knowledge of human nature: so easily can the non-medical public be imposed upon, and so ignorant are even the most enlightened people as to what constitutes evidence in any problem of physical science.

Homœopathy will die in this country just as it has died in Germany, and would die rapidly but for the active opposition of the regular school. Consequently, although I disagree entirely with your premises, I am inclined to think that the action of the New York State Medical Society is wise, and that the best course for all parties concerned is to permit consultations wherever the interests of the patient would seem to be furthered thereby. When Mr. Kelley, of Pennsylvania, or Senator Jones, of Nevada, expounds finance, or when a Western newspaper instructs Mr. Gladstone on the Eastern question, the *Nation* derives much the same kind of amusement from their utterances that those of its readers who love medicine and its progress are afforded by your article on "Doctor and Patient."—Yours truly, S.

BOSTON, June 19, 1882.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Many constant readers of the *Nation* regret that the article, "Doctor and Patient," in the issue of June 15, presents such a very local view of the question discussed. Thus, the assertion that the homœopaths "constitute an important and growing branch of the medical profession" is true only of certain localities where medical science is not in the most flourishing condition. Homœopathy is decidedly on the wane where scientific development is most active. We must content ourselves, in this note, with a simple reference to the status of homœopathy in Germany and in America in proof of our assertion. No one conversant with German medical literature can deny that it is only the German homœopathic medical journals that are filled with selections from American medical literature, consisting almost wholly of loosely reported cases, while it is just as evident to every reader of English and American medical literature that much of our scientific material is copied from original articles published in German medical journals.

But it is not our purpose in this note to preach against homœopathy; we are contented with the better preaching which the facts are doing for us. We can see and appreciate the sophism of the "regular" who states that "no possible good could result from consultations in which there could by no possibility be an agreement." We recognize the fact that there is a radical difference between homœopath and regular in views as to drug-action only, and that drugging is but an insignificant part of modern therapeutics. We will go further in allowing that "nihilists" among the regulars and the "irregular" majority of the homœopaths may meet with every advantage which a consultation offers; but, after allowing all of this, we insist that there is a true principle of medical regularity which it is beneficial for the profession and the laity to recognize. (In parenthesis, we regret that this principle has been hidden to a great extent under senseless codes, and by laws created by the bigoted and prejudiced "stalwarts" of the regular profession.) This principle, in short, is that of allegiance to science, to truth as a whole. The regular physician must always consider members of an organization supporting any dogma or "pathy" as irregular. There is no need of debating as to the degree of error or of truth embodied in the dogma. If a given dogma were all true, it would not be all of the truth; and history teaches us that allegiance to a part of the truth even is liable to cause a dislike of other parts of the truth, especially if they apparently conflict. This position, then, of allegiance to a dogma is not favorable to that catholic love of, and ardent search for, truth which should characterize the medical man above all others. The foundation of our profession is science; the history of the progress of medicine is the history of the development of science. Humanity, including the laity, and the profession have been blessed together by this progress, so that the principles of a regular hold him to the highest good of every layman or unit of humanity.

This view we believe to be that of those reformers in New York who have repealed a law that interfered with individual rights of opinion. This action was not wild or visionary: it was merely a step toward following the precedent established by the most regular practitioners of Germany, of deciding for themselves with whom they will associate in matters of practice or trade. Their action marks the dawn of true medical liberalism in America. May we not hope that its day will shine upon a more united profession and a solid campaign of the educated physician against the uneducated—of the honest doctor against the quack?

Very respectfully yours,
DAVID HUNT.

BOSTON, MASS., June 17, 1882.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the last issue of the *Nation* there was an article upon the late action of the American Medical Association that, in some respects, did great injustice to the medical profession. That this should be so does not so much reflect upon the *Nation* as it indicates the general misapprehension of questions that are of fundamental importance in medicine. In the article the

word "allopathy" occurs as the proper designation of the practice of the great body of the profession. Now, there is no such thing as "allopathy," nor are there "allopaths." These terms, as applied to practice and to medical practitioners, are positive insults, just as much as infidel, atheist, pagan, etc., are when thrown at the leaders of modern thought. They are unwittingly used by the non-medical public; by the pathists of all sects they are deliberately shouted, to cover their own reputations. Worcester's Dictionary aids the imposture by defining "Allopathy" by an alleged quotation from the standard medical authority, Dunglison. The "quotation" is a deliberate falsification, absolutely misstating the authority. The 'British Encyclopædia' gives the following, which expresses the sentiment of the profession throughout civilization:

"Legitimate medicine is catholic and eclectic; it has neither exclusive dogmas nor creeds; it requires its members to seek knowledge from every available source, and apply it in every available mode as may be demanded by the circumstances of the practitioner or the patient; the object of the exercise of the art being the relief or cure of the patient as promptly, safely, and pleasantly as possible, without any formal restriction as to the means or mode."

There is no "pathy" of a certainty. The public will be immensely advantaged when its eyes are opened to this device of sectaries to throw the odium of dogma upon the medical profession.

The *Nation* finds the explanation of the hostility toward homœopaths, who are the most prominent sect, in professional jealousy. This is a common opinion, but none the less erroneous. When the New York State Society was punished by the National Medical Society, it was not because the former had attempted to do away with immaterial differences, but because it had desired to destroy a barrier that the profession had determinedly maintained for the protection of the public. We declare openly and positively that the practice of medicine, according to a dogma, is not only false, but dangerous; that while we freely acknowledge that the utmost of human knowledge is miserably deficient, we also assert that blind adherence to an undemonstrated principle must be disastrous as it is irrational (an assertion that on its face would seem superfluous, but human credulity appears to be unlimited in matters pertaining to medicine). Statutes being unavailing, to afford what protection it can to the public against quacks and sects, the profession has always refused to consult with "irregulars," and thereby remove all distinctions in the public eye. Many have been the covert attempts to break this fundamental and humane rule, but it has been reserved for the New York State Society to make the first open and organized attack upon it. Happily, New York itself promises to repudiate those who have thus betrayed it.

Very respectfully,

CHARLES A. TODD, M.D.,
Sec. Missouri State Medical Association.

ST. LOUIS, June 20, 1882.

[The foregoing three letters largely answer each other. We must, however, point out to "S." that he denies nothing of consequence that we have asserted. He acknowledges that the regulars and homœopaths "differ as to a dogma," but says that the dogma belongs to the homœopaths, and is a poor article. We say nothing to the contrary. To our assertion that homœopathy has grown enormously, he opposes the assertions that one of its journals lately lamented that it was not growing at present; that Spiritualism has grown here, but not in France or England; and that homœopathy is not recognized in German universities. To our remark that both bodies possess a high degree of skill, learning, and education, he answers that if "we would give ourselves the trouble to investigate 'the facts,' we should find that the average attainment was higher in the regular school." We think it is, but how does this conflict with our original statement? And where are "the facts"? Does "S." know where to find them? Has he ever investigated them himself? As to the value of the homœopaths as curers of disease, we take it that the public makes up its mind on this point precisely as it does on the value of the regulars, and there is no use in ascribing their success to popular ignorance or superstition. They are employed by all kinds and conditions of people—more, we think, by the educated than by the ignorant—and in every case the reason why they are employed is that the patient believes they cure disease. If this belief be destroyed, or weakened by experience, he discards them just as he would discard a regular and employ another. This is the hard fact of the matter. No degree or school does much for any doctor. No matter what a doctor calls himself, he gets the practice of people who pay fees solely by persuading them that they get well in his hands, and they cannot be argued out of their belief in him.—ED. NATION.]

POLITICAL ECONOMY AND THE GOULDS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me a word in behalf of some of the critics of that method of political economy which, as Mill says, assumes competition to be the exclusive regulator of its subject. Their views, as given in the recent article on the "Political Economy of Seventy-three Million Dollars" in the *Atlantic*, are not quite fairly treated when you translate them into the expression that "Gould's acquisition of his immense wealth is due to political economy, and political economy is all bosh." What they criticise is obviously not the study of the industrial welfare of man in society, but one method of that study; not the political economy of Maine, Laveleye, Cliffe Leslie, and Roscher, but that of Mill, his English followers, and their American imitators—the sect which glorifies self-interest, competition, and an imaginary freedom of contract. One who criticises Mormonism does not thereby declare that "religion is all bosh."

You say also that "Gould is the product of corrupt courts and legislatures, and no economist of any school ever taught that the principle of *laissez-faire* covered the right to bribe judges or gobble railroads, any more than it does the right to rob and murder on the highway." The class of corporation, trust, and stock-jobbers of which Mr. Gould is the most brilliant representative cannot be explained away on the "bad man" theory which the *Nation* has taught us to disbelieve in. Bad men we have with us always; but why have the "bad men" free course? A deeper cause than the depravity of individuals must account for the most dangerous fact of our social condition, the sudden development of a caste of overgrown wealth and power. If the theories of *laissez-faire* and exclusive regulation by competition do not permit these men to rob and murder by retail on the highway, they cause society to leave them to rob and murder by wholesale, by all kinds of "corners" and combinations, and by legal methods of oppressing the people, betraying trusts, and deceiving the community. This class must be controlled, but they cannot be overcome by the political and industrial philosophy under which they have been suffered to grow up.

HENRY D. LLOYD.

CHICAGO, June 24, 1882.

[Who are "Mill's English followers and their American imitators—the sect which glorifies self-interest, competition, and an imaginary freedom of contract"? We know of no such persons or sect. Mill did not do these things himself, and it is therefore not likely that "his followers" do them. A few names of "the followers," and one or two of the "glorifying" passages from Mill, would be useful to Mr. Lloyd at this point. Mr. Lloyd denies our explanation of Gould, that he is "the product of corrupt courts and legislatures," and says that this is the "bad man" theory. But unfortunately it is in no respect distinguishable from Mr. Lloyd's own. He says that Gould is due to "society," which "leaves him to rob and murder by wholesale," besides "betraying trusts and deceiving the community." Of course society in this matter acts through corrupt courts and legislatures. Whenever a man robs and murders with impunity, and betrays trusts, it is because courts and legislatures do not do their duty; society has always prohibited robbery and murder and fraud. As to the cause of the neglect on the part of society, we shall not argue with Mr. Lloyd. If he thinks that it is "the laissez-faire theory" which makes it tolerate wholesale robbery and murder, he is welcome to his opinion. The ultimate cause of all human wickedness is an obscure subject, but it is one which does not concern economists or politicians, and we advise him to let it alone.—ED. NATION.]

LAND QUESTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* of June 22 has editorially this: "The cause of the land troubles in Ireland has been for three hundred years that the tenure was not Irish but English"—the English system being "large landed proprietors living on rent," and the Irish system "the lands of the tribes held in a sort of commonalty with the chiefs."

Wherefore, unless I quite misunderstand the *Nation*, Mr. Davitt's "new Henry George, or Communistic, idea that the land is a great national domain," and Mr. Parnell's proposition "to lodge the ownership in the farmers"—600,000 of them, according to Mr. McCarthy—must be quite as much opposed to "Irish ideas" as even the present unsatisfactory "English" system.

Whose is the "Irish" idea of going back to the tribal system of "*a sort of commonalty* with the chiefs?" And who may be the chiefs?

I hope I am not unfairly straining the *Nation's* arguments; but I state fairly how they impress me, and respectfully ask for further enlightenment.

ANTI-LANDLORD.

[There is nobody who has "the Irish idea of going back to the system of a sort of commonalty with the chiefs." There are no chiefs. You do quite misunderstand the *Nation*. The "Irish idea," which has survived the tribes, the chiefs, and the commonalty, is that the tenant is part-owner of the soil with the legal owner of the fee, makes the needed improve-

ments in it, and has a right to stay on it as long as he pays a reasonable rent. This has been explained at least one hundred times during the past three years—about one thousand times during the past twenty-five years. The English idea is that the tenant hires a farm as he hires a town house, makes no improvements in it, and has no shred of title to it except what his lease gives. Henry George's idea is that neither landlord nor tenant, chief nor tribe, has any property in the soil whatever; that it all belongs to the state, which is to pay all its expenses by renting it.—Ed. Nation.]

TOMB DISCOVERY NEAR CORINTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I find in the last number of the *Parnassos*, of Athens, the description of an ancient vaulted tomb with painted wall decoration, excavated recently near Corinth. This discovery is of considerable interest, as a tomb decorated in this manner has not, I believe, been discovered before in Greece proper—although, as is well known, tombs of similar character exist in great numbers in the Crimea, and to some extent, at least, in Lycia.

The tomb, according to the detailed report of the Ephor of Antiquities, Mr. P. Stamatakes, lies to the eastward of old Corinth, at the point commonly known as the Great Gate (Μεγάλη Πόρτα). It was found upon the southern slope of a knoll, near its summit, by workmen engaged in building the carriage-road. Unfortunately, these men destroyed most of the vaulted ceiling of the tomb, and three of its sides with the paintings upon them, before their superiors interfered to save what remained—the northern side-wall, and some inconsiderable pieces of the other walls, with a part of the vault. The tomb was in the shape of a parallelogram; its length was 3.52 metres, and its breadth 2.92 metres. The surviving northern wall is 2.60 metres high, and about 65 centimetres thick. The walls of the tomb were built of rough stone and bricks or tiles, laid in mortar. Their inner surface was covered with cement, forming a smooth field for the paintings. Upon the surviving wall this field is divided, by lines, into four horizontal bands or zones, each one, after the first, being a little broader than the one above it. The upper band is divided by vertical lines into squares, in which are painted birds and bunches of grapes. The second zone, of which the decoration is the most elegant of all, presents, apparently, three different scenes, although these are not separated in any way from each other. The principal subject is that in the middle, which represents the funeral banquet—a subject commonly represented upon tombstones and upon ancient vases. About the table are several reclining figures, of which one is perhaps a general, for he wears a helmet. This man reclines supported on his left elbow; his body is naked as far as the middle, below which it is covered with white drapery. Upon the front part of the couch is seated a second figure, unclothed also, and barely distinguishable, but evidently taking no part in the banquet. Other figures can be made out indistinctly; their violent gestures seem to indicate that they are giving expression to grief. On the right-hand side of this scene can be made out with difficulty a large vase or other vessel, beside which are a woman and two men, of whom one rests one foot upon a sort of pedestal or bench. Upon the left-hand side are two other men in vigorous action, but to what end does not appear. All these figures are represented in a row much in the manner of those of a sculptured relief.

The third band contains three small niches, and in the spaces between the niches and at either end are four standing male figures wearing the chlamys. Three of these figures are in better preservation than any of the other paintings. Their height is about 35 centimetres. The drawing is well executed, and the color remains sufficiently fresh. In the fourth and lowest zone are represented various kinds of fruits and flowers in baskets, with birds eating the fruits or drinking water from other vessels.

The floor of the tomb is formed of a plain layer of cement. In the earth which had collected upon it were found abundant remains of human bones. Against the eastern wall of the interior was found the lower part of a sarcophagus of tufa, 2 metres in length, and 67 centimetres in width. Between the sarcophagus and the wall were discovered a number of fragments of a large glass vessel, and of lamps of burnt clay. Against the northern wall were found the remains of a similar sarcophagus. The tomb bears traces of having been rifled—most probably in ancient times, but possibly during the Middle Ages.

Immediately upon the announcement of this discovery, the Council of the Archæological Society despatched to Corinth a painter to make accurate copies of the surviving frescoes. These copies have been made, it is said, with great care and exactness. They will be exhibited in the Museum of Antiquities at Athens. The paintings, according to the *Parnassos*, are characterized in a marked degree by harmony of coloring and excellence of design and execution. No conjecture as to the age of the monument appears in the article from which I quote. I think, however, that until we receive more exact information we can infer safely from the details given of the construction of the tomb and of the system of decoration employed, that it cannot date earlier than the Roman restoration of Corinth in the time of Julius Cæsar.

I am, sir, very respectfully,

Thomas W. Ludlow.

Cottage Lawn, Yonkers, N. Y., June 21, 1882.

Notes.

S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, announce for speedy publication 'A System of Mental Philosophy,' by Professor Asa Mahan, ex-President of Oberlin College. It is designed as a text-book. Also, 'A Practical German Grammar,' by Professor W. C. Sawyer, of the St. Lawrence University, Wisconsin; and 'The Development of English Literature and Language,' by Professor A. H. Welsh.

Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, will have ready in July 'Celebrated American Caverns, especially Mammoth, Wyandot, and Luray,' with maps and illustrations, by Horace C. Hovey. An appendix will contain a complete list of the subterranean fauna so far as known.

A. Williams & Co., Boston, have just published a third edition of Chief-Engineer King's 'Warships and Navies of the World'—an unmistakable tribute to the value of this important work. Already beyond the need of praise, it has received additions bringing it down to date, and the illustrations have been both increased and improved.

No. 23 of the Professional Papers of the Corps of Engineers, U. S. A., consists of Lieutenant-Colonel Henry L. Abbot's report on experiments toward a system of submarine mines for harbor defence. Diagrams and instantaneous and other photographs illustrate this work in a way to make it attractive even to the general reader, who is certainly concerned in the result of the experiments.

Among the various topics of the Report of the Chief of Ordnance for the year 1881 are the Spencer line-throwing gun and the Hunt life-saving projectile. On pp. 370-375 is a noticeable list of synonymous terms in English, French, and German relating to filing, file-cutting, files, and rasps. Favorable scientific reviews of Captain Dutton's report on the geology of the high plateaus of Utah are quoted on pp. 173-184.

We have received the twenty-ninth volume of *Lippincott's Magazine*, which calls for no remark unless it be in commendation of the typographical neatness of this periodical, and of the illustrations as compared with those of earlier volumes.

Vol. ii. of the *Dial* (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.) marks the hold on life and on popular favor which this "monthly index of current literature" has deservedly obtained at the West.

'The Mother's Record' (Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.) is not quite "unique," as the publishers allege. It differs from the 'Mother's Register' (*Livret Maternel*) of Dr. J. B. Fonssagrives in being confined to the first fifteen years of childhood, and in being an unscientific tabulation of "physical, mental, and moral growth." It is useful as far as it goes, and will measurably serve as a help to the physician as well as to the youth who forms the subject of the record, when he endeavors to know himself. The arrangement by years instead of by topics, as weight, growth, teeth, etc., is unfavorable to comparisons and general views. The book is prettily made.

"The Last Years of the Roman Republic" and "University Education in Germany" are bibliographically treated in the June number of the Providence Public Library's *Monthly Reference Lists*.

In emulation of the *Privat-Docent* system of the German universities, the Trustees of Columbia College have established three prize lectureships in the School of Political Science. The designated lecturers must be graduates either from the above School or from the College Law School. They will hold office for three years and be reëligible. For twenty lectures per annum they will receive $500. The appointments are to begin in June, 1883. The expectation is that these lectureships "will tend to raise up a body of trained, educated, and competent instructors," fitted to supply vacancies in faculties of the historical and political sciences.

The second annual announcement of the School of Political Science in the University of Michigan states that the scope of the school will be enlarged during the coming year so as to include instruction in the principles of finance, in the financial history of the United States, in the history of diplomacy, in the history of political ideas, in methods of local government, in theories and methods of taxation, in political ethics, in social science, in the historical development of educational systems, in the economic development of mineral resources, and in public scientific surveys.

Dr. Charles Waldstein, a graduate of Columbia College and native of this city, has just received the honorary degree of Master of Arts from the University of Cambridge, England, where for two years he has been the lecturer on Greek art and archæology, with eminent success.

A Concord (N. H.) magazine with which we tardily make acquaintance, as it is already in its fifth volume, is called the *Granite Monthly*, and is "devoted to Literature, History, and State Progress." Its main feature is a steel portrait of some New Hampshire worthy, accompanied by a biographical sketch; but in other ways, also, it serves as an historical medium, and is interesting if unpretentious reading.

A paper read before the Philadelphia Social

Science Association on June 1, by Mr. Addison B. Burk, has just been published by the Association. It treats of "Apprenticeship as it Was and Is," and is noteworthy for its computation as to the number of mechanics among our country and city population respectively—nearly three to one in favor of the former; and for its revelations as to the greater prevalence of apprenticeships, even of the indentured kind, than is commonly believed. Mr. Burk does not think our modern conditions compatible with a revival of the system, and his paper recommends industrial schools in the place of it.

Students of the perpetual conflict between man and nature will find something to their account in Dr. E. Reyer's paper on changes in the alluvial districts of Venetia and Tuscany in the historic period, printed in No. 98 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Zeitschrift*, with bibliographical references. Dr. R. Kiepert catalogues and criticises the African cartography of the past year. The principal map of the number defines, on a liberal scale, the military border between Chile and the Argentine Confederation, at the head-waters of the Rivers Colorado and Neuquen, as surveyed by two officers of the latter nation and described in a translation.

Le Livre for June is more than usually rich in full-page illustrations, one of which is from the album of designs by Victor Hugo, recently privately printed by his friends. It represents the wreck in the 'Travailleurs de la Mer,' and, like fifty others of the designs, originally decorated the MS. of this romance. Among the leading articles, Champfleury satirizes the dramatic sins of Charles Nodier. A second instalment of Paul Lacroix's unpublished memoirs continues the account of Balzac, whose egotism is now the theme, and concludes with Balzac's *critique*, or rather *éloge*, of his own 'Physiologie du Mariage,' prepared by him for the *Mercure du XIXe. Siècle*, where it was printed verbatim. *Le Livre* announces that a 'History of the Life and Writings of J. J. Rousseau,' in French, by A. Jansen, is in preparation, and that Ruggero Bonghi is engaged upon an edition of the unpublished works and letters of Manzoni.

The French publishers' *Chronique* records a contract for 10,000 copies of Michelet's 'Histoire de France,' and 'Histoire de la Révolution Française,' with illustrations by Vierge, market value 1,960,000 francs, and, contrasting this with the small number printed of the first editions of these works, draws favorable conclusions as to the present historical taste of the French.

—*Lippincott's* for July opens with an article on "Black-Bass-Fishing in Sungahneetuck," by Mr. Rowland E. Robinson; and it has also an article on "Shark-Fishing off the Florida Coast," where the sport appears to involve considerable risk, and to be certainly productive of much excitement. According to a humorous negro quoted by the writer, Mr. C. F. Holder, a "right smart busniss in sherk-oil" is done along the coast. What use the oil is put to is a secret of the trade; it is one which the Northern invalid who goes to Florida in search of health may be interested in, if the statements of old Alick on the subject are to be credited: "Dis yer sherk-oil goes to Jacksonville, dat's sartin sho', an' dey say dere's a right smart call fo' cod-liber oil on account of dese yer inwalids a-flockin' dere. Jes' where de oil goes, I can't say: you can draw yo' own influences." The stories and poems which fill up the number are not so noticeable as the dastardly attack on the "Mt. Desert girl" in the "Monthly Gossip." The writer of this, who is evidently a woman, declares that in the many studies of the American girl which have been given us of late, one of her most marked traits has been wholly omitted, and that is, her "indifference to the beauty of nature." For instance, at Mt. Desert, where "there is beauty of natural scenery enough to satisfy the most exacting," what do the girls occupy themselves with? They become, it seems, either "piazza girls," or "jolly girls," or "cottage swells"—names sufficiently descriptive to make further definition unnecessary. Of real knowledge of, or interest in, nature, not a trace is to be found. But few have the slightest acquaintance with botany, beyond the names of "a few hot-house and garden flowers"; and the writer gives a shocking instance of this ignorance by telling of an "enthusiastic botanist" who brought to one of the hotels a specimen of the common sun-dew: "The astonishment of the feminine element, old and young, was extreme and unfeigned; they had never heard of insectivorous plants." Many an illusion has been torn from us since the war, but we still clung to the idea that the American girl could tell an insectivorous plant as far as she could see it. The contrary may be true, but should it be told? The reputation of the American girl has stood the test of foreign criticism better, perhaps, than that of any other American institution, and we had rather cherish the pleasing fancy that piazza girls and jolly girls, or even cottage swells, knew as much of botany as they ought to, than to have their ignorance exposed in this rude manner.

—Our degraded fellow-citizens in Alaska, known as the Thlinkits, are described together with their country by Mr. C. E. S. Wood in the July *Century*. They are, in spite of their vices, interesting objects of study: their marriages are determined by the totemic system, and their manufactures exhibit genuine artistic capacity. Rugs of their weaving are occasionally to be met with here at the East, resembling in pattern the chief's cloak pictured on p. 330. Examined closely, the ornamentation here will be seen to be derived from the human face in a manner exactly analogous to that employed by the Peruvians, as evidenced by the mummy-cloths from Ancon. Mr. Benjamin's entertaining paper on "The Evolution of the American Yacht" is complementary to that in the current *Harper's* on the old race of New York shipbuilders. Portraits of Eckford and George Steers may be compared in both magazines. Col. Waring gives a précis, with the aid of cuts, of Stillman's 'Horse in Motion,' and adds some judicious criticism. In regard to the artistic representation of the animal, he concludes that "we must see him on the canvas as we see him in life, not as he is shown when his movements are divided by the five-thousandth part of a second." At the same time, he admits that long familiarity with these instantaneous views has made some of them very satisfactory expressions of motion. Mr. John Burroughs has a long and sympathetic article on Thoreau, of whom a likeness is given. Mr. Burroughs notices that the hermit of Walden Pond, though ever watchful of Nature, possessed but imperfectly the naturalist's vision. "He was looking too intently for a bird behind the bird—for a mythology to shine through his ornithology." The editor and Miss Emma Lazarus have each something to say about Thoreau's greater townsman, just departed; Mr. Kruell, too, speaks forcibly with his graver, following French's bust of Emerson.

—The 'Constitution and Membership' of the National Academy of Sciences, recently issued by the Home Secretary, Washington, shows that there were, at the close of the late meeting, April 21, 1882, ninety-six ordinary members (of whom three, General Barnard, Admiral John Rodgers, and Professor William B. Rogers, have since died), four honorary members, thirty-five deceased members, and twenty-one foreign associates of the Academy (of which latter twelve are deceased). By the original act of incorporation, approved in 1863, the Academy consists of not more than fifty ordinary members, but this act was so amended in 1870 as to remove the limitation of the number of ordinary members. The membership is, however, by the constitution of the Academy, restricted in effect to one hundred. Of the meetings of the Academy, there are two annually: one stated session in Washington, on the third Tuesday of April, and another at such place and time as the Council may determine—usually held in the month of November, in either New York or Philadelphia. It being the duty of the Academy, in compliance with the act of its incorporation, to "investigate, examine, experiment, and report upon any subject of science or art," whenever called upon by any department of the Government, a number of committees have been appointed, those of more general interest at present in force being (1) to confer with the honorable Secretary of the Interior on the subject of reserving portions of the public lands on and near Mount Whitney, California, for scientific purposes; (2) to confer with the Chief Signal Officer on questions of meteorological science and its applications; (3) to report on the Coast Survey Triangulation to connect the Atlantic and Pacific coasts; (4) to coöperate with the National Board of Health. The organization of the Academy is as follows: President, William B. Rogers; Vice-President, O. C. Marsh; Foreign Secretary, Alex. Agassiz; Home Secretary, S. Newcomb; Treasurer, J. H. C. Coffin.

—A correspondent writes us from Ann Arbor as follows, concerning the production, on Saturday evening, June 17, of Terence's "Adelphi" by the students of the University of Michigan:

"'The first Latin play ever given in America,' as the handbills announced it, was listened to by an interested audience, and received almost with enthusiasm. Love of novelty, and local pride, no doubt, partially explain the marked success of the evening; but no competent and impartial judge could fail to recognize the genuine dramatic excellence of the performance. It was given under the supervision of Mr. C. M. Gayley, instructor in Latin in the University, and to him most of the credit it due, aside from the acting itself. He had received suggestions in regard to the scenery, the costumes, etc., from the Head Master of Westminster School, in England, where it has been the custom for many years to give a play of Terence annually. The details, of course, had to be worked out alone, and the great pains taken, even in minute particulars, were rewarded by admirable stage effects. The stage was as faithful a reproduction of the ancient stage as was possible under the circumstances—every one was ready to overlook the two or three intentional anachronisms brought in for the sake of perspicuity; the costumes were accurate in design, worn with ease, and so chosen as to form harmonious effects in color when grouped upon the stage. The greatest surprise for the spectators, however, came from seeing genuine acting. There had been no attempt at *réclame*, and the audience expected generally a cold and probably correct recitation of the Latin, which would be intelligible only by the aid of Colman's rather free translation printed opposite the text in the libretto. Warmth and naturalness of delivery, and a proper attention to stage 'business,' were, on the contrary, the results of the pains taken with the young men. *Demea*, the most difficult and important part, was probably, upon the whole, best given, though *Micio* certainly was not far behind. The scenes between the two brothers in the first and fifth acts—which, taken together, illustrate so well Lessing's requirement that contrast of character in comedy should arise solely from the accentuation of previously existing differences—were admirably given. *Syrus*, the confidential and tricky slave, was probably the most successful part with the audience generally, and certainly there was an abundance of comic force, an endless supply of knavish good spirits and ingenuity. But his 'make-up' was faulty: a slave who could speak of holding *Æschinus* and *Ctesipho* in his arms when babies should not have ap-

peared a handsome youth of nineteen. *Sostrata* did what she had to do excellently, and the buxom matron deservedly won the favor of the audience. Almost the only criticism of the performance was that some parts were overdone. This was certainly true according to our taste nowadays; but it is doubtful if Cicero, who seems to quote with approval a reproach addressed to Calidius, that there was *nulla supplosio pedis* while he was pleading, would have thought this criticism well founded. A juster criticism could perhaps be made of the apparent attempt to reconcile the retention of the Terentian metres with the supposed requirements of a popular audience to-day. The performance will probably be repeated in the autumn, and possibly be given then in Detroit as well as in Ann Arbor."

—One can imagine the surprise of the Hon. Jay Hubbell on taking up the *Strict-Constructionist*, a Boston "Evening Daily devoted to Civil-Service Reform," of which the first number appeared on June 22. There is no association behind it, no syndicate, apparently no capitalist. Of its conductors all that can be learned from its pages is that "every writer engaged on this paper is a Harvard graduate." Concerning its principles there is no mystery or obscurity:

"The business habits of officeholders are of more importance than their opinions are. This doctrine supersedes altogether what the Stalwarts understand by politics, or, rather, what they wish their dupes to understand; and, so far as it prevails, it will take the ground away from under the Machines. Civil-service reform should be advocated by specific measures instead of by high-sounding declarations which do not bind the one who makes them to any efficient action."

Mr. Hubbell will not fail to discover other damnable heresies in this remarkably outspoken sheet. We cite further two or three paragraphs from the negative column entitled "The News":

"Postmaster Pearson, of New York, although his promotion was a flagrant violation of the principles of Civil-Service Corruption, has not yet been removed to make room for a manager of votes."

"The Speaker of the House has not yet done the expelled stenographers the justice of informing the public what was the cause for which he so suddenly took away their employment, and branded them as unfaithful."

"Since the Lamson affair, there has been no fresh interference by our Government with the course of justice in England."

For the rest, the *Strict-Constructionist* is as original in its make-up as it is independent and pithy in the expression of its sentiments.

—The death of Joseph Lemuel Chester in London, on May 26, removed the acknowledged head of English genealogists. It should be a matter of pride that Col. Chester was an American, born April 30, 1821, at Norwich, Conn., and that he was almost as well informed in American family history as he was in English. The first thirty-five years of his life were spent here, and he attained some little reputation as a writer, publishing a volume of poems under the title of 'Greenwood.' Not long before the Rebellion he went to England, desiring to verify the traditional descent of his family, in common with many others in New England, from John Rogers, the protomartyr. Although his researches completely destroyed the fond illusion, he became deeply interested in the subject of the life and work of that great pioneer in religious liberty, and the result was a volume of 452 pages, printed in 1861 by Longmans. The book attracted much attention in England, not only from the interest felt in the subject-matter, but on account of the method of its treatment. Not only was it exhaustive, but the wealth of the manuscript collections preserved in the mother country was shown in a most attractive form. Colonel Chester continued to reside in England, and from the taste of the delights of genealogical study thus received, he became a confirmed and enthusiastic genealogist. He acquired a perfect mastery of the handwriting of the last six centuries, and he devoted his time to an exploration of those vast accumulations of documents still preserved in the State Paper Office, the Universities, the Will Offices, and the church registers. He sought no other pleasures, but wrought on, year after year, giving often sixteen hours a day to his labor. He was a rapid penman, and his elegant chirography brought many welcome bits of information to his correspondents here. Of course, he made many special hunts for the English origin of many of our settlers; but, besides that, he scrupulously and systematically collected every item that affected any of the emigrants to this country in the seventeenth century. His most noted work in this direction was in regard to the Washington family, whereby he destroyed the idle guesses of Sir Isaac Heard, without, to his regret, being able to supply the true pedigree. At one time he examined, copied, and indexed some forty thousand of the matriculations at Oxford; at another he copied, annotated, and published the registers of Westminster Abbey—glorious contributions to the history of the land of his adoption.

—It was not long before Colonel Chester's labor was appreciated. As an American he was allowed privileges, in the way of access to private papers, which an Englishman would not have enjoyed. But beyond that, he carried to his work an enthusiasm and fidelity which had been long wanting in English antiquaries. He relied but little on printed works. He did not copy the fables of successive peerages or county histories, but sought the facts from contemporary records. He was the acknowledged leader of the new school of investigators, and inspired his followers with his own impatience of error. He was, moreover, imbued with that spirit of order and attention to details which made our best American genealogies the wonder of our English friends. That he did not print more is a great misfortune, especially to his reputation; but his great collections, carefully arranged and indexed as he kept them, will be a lasting monument to him. Colonel Chester was naturally a member of many historical societies, both here and abroad, and at least one college had honored him with a degree. He was a model correspondent—prompt, intelligent, and sympathetic. It is to be regretted that no statement can easily be made of the amount of valuable antiquarian results thus communicated by him to his friends throughout the country. He married, in 1839, Catherine H. H. Shepherd, and had one son and three daughters. We are under the impression that he lost some portion of his family before his own decease; but the survivors can feel assured that his name will be long remembered, and will always stand high on the roll of earnest and successful students. He was an honor to his country, and we vainly look for his successor.

—Since the law against the Socialists came into force in Germany over 700 Social-Democratic publications have been prohibited. Their names were published, as the law requires, in the *Reichs-Anzeiger*; but as the publication was spread over a considerable time, it was very difficult for an officer of the Government to ascertain whether any given Socialist tract which he found circulating in his district had been forbidden or not. The President of the Department of Police has therefore caused an alphabetical index to be made reaching to March 1. This new *Index librorum prohibitorum* is to be distributed to all Police, Custom-house, Revenue, and Post-office employees, and will probably prove as effectual in extirpating Social-Democratic doctrines as the *Index* of the Romish Church has been in suppressing Protestantism and other heresy.

—Of writing many (lists of) books there is no end. Even the no doubt important, but to the vast majority of mankind entirely uninteresting, subject of notaryship has not only its bibliography but bibliographies. The first of these, by Korndörffer, a librarian, appeared in 1875 in a Dutch periodical, *Regt en Wet;* it enumerated 724 works. The next year another librarian, Torres-Campos, wrote his 'Estudios de Bibliografia Española y Extrangera del Derecho y del Notariato.' Finally, Dr. Vladimir Pappafava, in his 'Delle Opere che Illustrarono il Notariato,' published at Zora in Dalmatia, has collected more than 500 titles in Italian, French, Spanish, Dutch, Russian, and other languages, with occasional notes. Perhaps, after all, the notarial art is not a less suitable stimulus to the industry of the book-recorder than the civil law, fossil insects, Italian geology, the evolutionary theory, electricity, angling, perfumery, free-masonry, copyright, shorthand, the pamphlets of the French romantic school, microscopic editions, and lost books, all of which have been issued in the last nine months, to say nothing of the numerous personal bibliographies—Mai, Browning, Dickens, Thackeray, Tennyson, Carlyle, Ruskin, and the many shorter lists that have not attained an independent existence, but have appeared within the covers of some periodical like the *Literary World*, the *Library Journal*, *Il Bibliofilo*, the *Neuer Anzeiger*, or in the columns of a journal or the pages of a book devoted to the subject of which the bibliography treated. The materials for the "universal bibliography," of which certain English scholars are continually and unavailingly talking, are accumulating. Has any library had the thought of getting together all these fugitive subject-bibliographies, and so making a universal bibliography, for its own use, at least? We doubt it. There is no trace of any such idea in the list of bibliographies lately issued by the British Museum. If the best library in the world has not done it, it is not likely that any other has. And yet it would require only a little money, and some watchfulness.

—Financial success did not attend Director Neumann's first experiments with Wagner's Tetralogy in London. He made the mistake of charging too high admission prices—almost double the amount asked at the Italian Operas, which have always been famous for their exorbitance. That this was the principal reason is proved by the fact that when, at the end of the regular cycles, extra performances were given of the "Walküre" and "Götterdämmerung" at reduced prices the house was crowded to the roof. Richter, who directed another series, including Wagner's early operas as well as the "Meistersinger," "Tristan and Isolde," Weber's "Euryanthe," and Beethoven's "Fidelio," for which he charged more moderate prices, has, on the contrary, been very successful. All the critics, even the most hostile, bestow the most unqualified praise on "Die Meistersinger," which the *Athenæum* thinks will ultimately prove the most popular of all his works. Even the *Telegraph* admits that "there is hardly a dull bar in the opera." The choruses are the most difficult ones ever written in an opera, but they were superbly sung by the Hamburg choristers, showing Londoners, by their own admission, for the first time what good operatic chorus singing is. The *Academy* says: "The score is anything but noisy; it is full of the most delicate effects, rich combinations, marked and wonderful contrasts. Wagner shows at times in his orchestration the grace of a Mozart, the grandeur of a Beethoven, and the ingenuity of a Berlioz." *Truth* says: "I have nothing but praise

for 'Meistersinger.' Wagner was quite right—it was bound to take the English people." The *World* remarks: "At every new performance the audience leaves delighted, and, the natural consequence being that they send other audiences in, the future of German opera in this country seems to have a much more brilliant chance than it ever had before. To the English public the 'Meistersinger' is a revelation: . . . music sometimes for forty minutes without brass—full of melody, chorus, and concerted music—music not only learned and a most interesting study of counterpoint, handled with an ease delightful to behold, but music amusing to make you roar. The whole house burst out laughing at that mock serenade and at the competition of the singers." The *St. James's Gazette* says: "Wagner is master of every mood. He was already known by his critical writings as a keen satirist; and his mediæval comic opera shows him to be as rich in the humor of every-day life as in the more spiritual qualities to which the beauty of his music is chiefly due." This list might be indefinitely extended. It shows that if an attempt is to be made in this country to produce an example of Wagner's latest and best style, it should be "Die Meistersinger."

—Joseph Joachim Raff, whose death was announced by cable on Monday, was born at Lachen, on the Lake of Zürich, on May 27, 1822. His early years were a continual struggle against poverty, which compelled him to abandon his studies and devote himself to teaching, without, however, neglecting music. Through the medium of some MS. compositions he became acquainted with Mendelssohn, who recommended him to the publishing house of Breitkopf & Härtel. In 1846 Mendelssohn invited him to come to Leipzig and become his pupil. The proposal was accepted, but before it could be carried out Mendelssohn died. The same ill luck attended him later when Liszt, who had already done him other favors, gave him a letter to the publisher Marchetti in Vienna. While en route for that city Raff heard of Marchetti's death, which induced him to remain in Stuttgart, where he devoted himself to composition and practice on the piano and violin, with the object of becoming a virtuoso. His efforts to secure a public performance of his works failed, owing to the hostility of the conservative Lindpainter, who was then in power in that city. Finally Hans von Bülow came to his rescue and paved the way for the popularity which his works at present enjoy. Raff's merits were at once recognized by Schumann, who had "discovered" so many composers and heralded them as rising stars. At a later date Raff was a contributor to the journal founded by Schumann, the *Neue Zeitschrift für Musik*. In a brochure on the "Wagner question" he came forward as an enthusiastic advocate of the new tendencies in music, the strong influence of which on his own compositions is everywhere apparent. He wrote three operas, one of which, "König Alfred," is still occasionally performed at Stuttgart, although none of them has ever obtained a general success. Of his ten symphonies several are well known in this country, especially the third ("Im Walde") and the fifth ("Lenore"). His list of works is of formidable length, embracing over 200 compositions in almost every branch of his art, but including also many paraphrases of other composers' works. Among the orchestral composers of the day Raff might be ranked as the sixth after Wagner, Rubinstein, Liszt, Saint-Saëns, and Brahms. Some of his works are, in melodic and harmonic invention, of first-class merit, but the form of his longer compositions is often as clumsy, unpolished, and unsymmetrical as the style of Kant and Jean Paul, and many of his movements are flimsy and vulgar. The first and the slow movements of his complicated compositions are almost invariably the best. Over-productiveness, diffuseness, and lack of self-criticism were the three faults which prevented Raff from taking the highest rank among composers. At the time of his death he was director of the Frankfort Conservatory of Music.

PERRY'S HISTORY OF GREEK AND ROMAN SCULPTURE.

Greek and Roman Sculpture: A Popular Introduction to the History of Greek and Roman Sculpture. By Walter Copland Perry. With 268 illustrations on wood. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882. Square 8vo, pp. xxx.-700.

THIS is a useful book, which supplies a need that has been distinctly felt. The progress of knowledge in respect to antiquity during the last fifty years has hardly been more rapid or more interesting in any branch of archæology than in that of ancient art. Not only has the knowledge of facts been immensely extended and increased, but the illustration afforded by the fine arts of the life and thought of the ancient world has become so vivid, precise, and comprehensive as to compel the recognition of the importance of their history to the proper understanding of the nature and development of the civilization of the Old World. It is, indeed, only of late that their full significance as the most intimate and trustworthy expressions of human character and dispositions has become apparent to students of history. The fact is not even yet admitted by such thinkers as are attached to traditional modes of investigation. English students especially have been slow in acknowledging the just claims of the arts as not only great social powers, but still more as the means by which the securest judgment could be formed concerning the moral and social conditions of a race. Mill was perhaps the only great English thinker of the last generation who fully comprehended their importance. Grote could write his 'History of Greece' and pay but the scantiest attention to the most brilliant manifestation of Greek genius. And the recognition that the arts hold an equally important place with philosophy and science as agents of civilization, and that Greek history in particular cannot be correctly apprehended or interpreted without a knowledge of Greek art, is still so imperfect that Mr. Perry himself, though he writes the 'History of Greek Sculpture,' fails to grasp this conception vigorously, and fails, consequently, to secure for his work its highest interest as a record of the productions in which the sentiment and emotions of the noblest race of men the world has seen found one of their most beautiful and most instructive expressions. He treats his subject for the most part with little reference to the course of events of general history; and though it is impossible to overlook the relation between the incidents of Greek history in the fifth century B.C. and the splendor of the arts, he does not exhibit their mutual dependence in such a way as to bring out its real nature.

This is the main defect of a book otherwise distinguished by ample acquaintance with the subject, by good judgment, by sensible criticism, and a clear and unpretending style. As a compend of correct information concerning the sculptors and the sculpture of Greece and Rome, it deserves very hearty praise. The contrast between it and Mr. A. S. Murray's pretentious and inaccurate 'History of Greek Sculpture' is striking. The student who desires to know what is known about the topic can have no better book of reference. It is an excellent hand-book, opening the way to the study of the more elaborate and original works of German investigators, such as Brunn, Overbeck, and Michaelis.

Although Mr. Perry's remarks are generally judicious, he occasionally lays himself open to adverse criticism. What he says, for example (pp. 442–43), in speaking of Praxiteles as the sculptor of women, concerning the position and character of Athenian women, shows that he, student as he is of ancient sculpture, has missed the instruction which it affords in respect to this very matter. He fails, like most writers upon the subject, to make the discrimination of time which is essential in judging of the place held by woman and the character achieved by her at Athens. In a sentence that displays a curious confusion he says: "The aristocratic bearing of many female statues proves the reality of the high position of women at an early period, and these have their parallels in the Calypsos and Circes of poetry. A great change for the worse, therefore, and one for which it is difficult to account, must have taken place between the heroic and historic ages." Now, Mr. Perry certainly cannot mean that these statues which prove the reality of the high position of women were works of the heroic age, nor can he suppose that the Calypsos and Circes of poetry are types of women of high character. He is plainly writing without thought. The first statue of a woman in which individual characteristics were sharply defined—the first, at least, concerning which we have direct testimony—was the so-called Sosandra of Calamis, which stood on the Acropolis at Athens, and of which Lucian has described the delightful traits. His ideal figure, created of every statue's best, was to have the modesty of Sosandra, her grave and hidden smile, her orderly and becoming dress. These few words tell much. But it was for Phidias, in the generation after Calamis, to give to us innumerable portraits of the maidens and matrons of Athens which afford testimony absolutely incontrovertible to the grace, the charm, the dignity, the elevation of Athenian women, while he set these women in such position as to show their equality with the men who represented the highest development the race has attained. Even if this convincing testimony were wanting, it would be absurd to believe that the women of Athens were morally far inferior to the men. It is contrary to nature that there should be a wide moral disparity between men and women of one generation. The men who made Athens the mother and gracious nurse of the arts, "the most shining city of all upon which Zeus looks," came of no inferior mothers, and were wedded to no unloved or unworthy wives. In the Pan-Athenaic procession those mothers and wives appear before us in their living forms—forms and features the evidence of character which has impressed its image on those "faultless productions," as Shelley calls them, "whose very fragments are the despair of modern art, and has propagated impulses which cannot cease to ennoble and delight mankind until the extinction of the race." Sophocles, and even Euripides, but confirm the evidence of Phidias. Is the character of Antigone drawn from a low source? or that of Alcestis?

It may be said that these are all ideal representations; but how often must it be repeated that all true ideals are drawn from nature, and only through their accordance with nature possess their life and exert their influence? Beauty, nobility, excellence of whatever sort, must be realized in life before it can be expressed in art. The position of woman declined with the decline of Athens. Her character sank as the character of the men of Athens grew lower and lower. The figures of Praxiteles are not of the same virtue as those of Phidias. But even in the

period of decline Niobe and her daughters show us how much loftiness and loveliness were still retained by the women of Greece.

Mr. Perry's book contains an excellent account of the recent discoveries at Olympia and Pergamon; and the information on these and other subjects is well up to date. In a new edition, which must speedily be called for, the remarkable additions which have been made to our knowledge of archaic sculpture by the expedition to Assos of the Archæological Institute of America will demand notice. A careful revision of some minor details is requisite. On page 312, for "Lapith" read Athenian; page 346, note 1, the citation ascribed to Pausanias should be ascribed to Strabo viii., 372; page 356, note 5, the reference to Plutarch should be not to *Quæst Conviv.*, but to *de Profect. in Virt.* 17; page 493, for 375,000 l. read 305,500 l.; page 511, line 2, for "cella" read opisthodomos; page 516, line 8, for "beginning" read end; page 567, for "Aule Metelli" read Aulus Metellus. There are too many such small errors, and especially in the changing of Olympiads into the years B.C. to which they correspond the mistakes are numerous and annoying.

PULSZKY'S MEMOIRS.

Életem és korom [My Life and My Time]. By Francis Pulszky. Vol. iii. Buda-Pesth. (German ed., Presburg.) 1882.

THIRTY years ago, on April 27, 1852, the defeated chief of the Hungarian revolution, Louis Kossuth, made what may be called a triumphal entry into Boston. It was a grand day for all New England, and a bright day in the checkered life of the now octogenarian exile, the fiftieth anniversary of whose birth it happened to be. Most noticeable among his Hungarian companions were Francis Pulszky, in this country as well as in England called by courtesy Count Pulszky, and his wife. The latter was already at that time known as an English authoress, having published in London 'Memoirs of an Hungarian Lady' and 'Tales and Traditions of Hungary.' Her husband was no less proficient in English, and his free conversation in that language was admired even by those who had listened to the addresses of the ex-Governor of Hungary. An object of still greater admiration was the vast store of his encyclopædic knowledge. History, languages, ethnology, and archæology were his favorite studies. He and his gifted wife had an ample share in the ovations bestowed on Kossuth throughout his American tour. On his return from New England to New York, he found, among other papers received by mail, a number of the official gazette of Vienna, which contained the sentence passed on him, *in contumaciam*, by the military tribunal of Austria, for acts committed in furtherance of the cause of the Hungarian revolution in the two preceding years. He had been condemned to the gallows, and his estates confiscated. Returning to England, where he coöperated with Kossuth in all his endeavors in the Hungarian cause, he sustained himself and his family by diligent contributions, political and literary, to the British and foreign press, including the New York *Tribune*, for which, for a number of years, he wrote a weekly letter on "The State of Europe," remarkable for accurate information on affairs in the eastern parts of that continent.

During this period the Pulszkys were in constant friendly or political communication with Mazzini, Louis Blanc, Ruge, and other leading exiles from all parts of Europe, but at the same time also enjoyed an extensive intercourse with the higher classes of London society, noble or learned, such as the British metropolis rarely accords to foreigners. Kossuth's attempt to revive Hungarian independence by an alliance with Napoleon III. and Cavour in 1859 caused Pulszky to follow the ex-Governor to Italy, which, after the collapse of their hopes by the peace of Villafranca, became the home of both —Kossuth to this day residing in Turin. Pulszky, however, after partaking in Garibaldi's venture of 1862, which caused him to be arrested in Naples, turned toward less revolutionary paths, entered into an understanding with Hungary's great parliamentarian, Deák, and in 1866 was allowed by the Austrian Government to go to Buda, where his wife and daughter were lying sick, having gone there for the recovery of the family's estates. On his arrival he found both dead, and not many days later one of his sons followed them to the grave. The bereaved exile now remained in his fatherland, and the re-establishment of the Hungarian constitution in the following year restored him to ease and honors. He became again a member of the Hungarian Diet, in 1869 director of the National Museum at Pesth, and in 1872 superintendent-general of the public libraries and galleries of the kingdom, which latter two positions he still holds. In 1879 he began the publication, in Magyar and German, of his memoirs, the third part of which is now before us. His tour through the United States he had previously described, jointly with his wife, in 'White, Red, and Black' (3 vols., London, 1852).

Patriotic, liberal, and learned, Pulszky has nevertheless been an easy-going revolutionist, politician, and writer. His memoirs are much more remarkable for breadth and correctness than for keenness of observation or depth of reflection. He talks pleasantly on a great variety of things seen in his country and abroad, on a vast number of persons eminent in modern history and literature with whom he has come in contact, and he adds interesting lines to the already extant pictures of those things and men. But he shuns the labor of analysis, is too kindly disposed to indulge in piquant revelations of foibles or hidden springs of action, is too thankful for humane attentions experienced in exile life to attempt incisive delineations of foreign manners, and altogether too much bent on imparting plain, sound information to his countrymen not to make his narratives occasionally commonplace. On the other hand, he is never dull, he passes rapidly from topic to topic, and his anecdotes are often both amusing and characteristic. American readers not sufficiently versed in Hungarian history to be interested in the minor details of its later periods, will find the third volume, which is devoted to the author's days of exile in England and America, and forms a separate whole, well worth reading. The chapters descriptive of men and things in the former country are much richer, because based on much longer experience and wider associations, than those filled with reminiscences of the United States; but the latter sections are specially interesting as combining impressions received by a liberal although charitably disposed foreigner in the palmy days of pro-slavery reaction, with reflections matured after the downfall of the slave system and a wonderful expansion of the Union's power among the nations of the earth.

Some of Pulszky's remarks appear almost naïve in their (so to say) antediluvian coloring; others serve to complete, however slightly, our knowledge of the conditions and men of that time. It is interesting, for instance, to read how both Seward and Sumner advised Kossuth never to touch the question of slavery in his speeches, in the North or South alike; how an unfavorable current set in against Kossuth's republican agitation, chiefly in Democratic quarters, on receipt of the news of Louis Napoleon's successful *coup d'état*, because of speculations unfavorable to England based upon that event; how in Boston, in spite of the fierce divisions created by the slavery agitation between its leading families, all shades of opinion vied with each other in honoring the eloquent Hungarian chief, while of all the cities of the South, New Orleans alone had the political courage to invite him as its guest; with what noble oratory Winthrop combated the Magyar's pleading for American intervention in behalf of the downtrodden nations of Europe; or how—some years later, in London—the subsequently notorious Saunders, American consul, tried to bring about an understanding between "the leader of the American Democracy," James Buchanan, then United States Minister at the Court of St. James, and the leaders of the European democracy, by a *soirée* given in honor of the ambassador, who was soon to become President. This *soirée* was a curious gathering: near the hostess, at the table, sat Buchanan, near him Kossuth, and opposite them Ledru-Rollin and Mazzini; elsewhere Hertzen, Orsini, Garibaldi, Pulszky, Sickles and his wife, the host, and others of less fame or notoriety.

The style of the author in the original Hungarian, which we have before us, is not free from Germanisms; the numerous misspellings, chiefly of American names—some of them as bad as "Delavare," "Sparcks," and even "*Jova*" (for *Iowa*)—we are loath to ascribe to slips of a memory of the once famous retentiveness of which these very volumes still afford ample evidence.

The Graphic Arts: A Treatise on the Varieties of Drawing, Painting, and Engraving in comparison with each other and with Nature. By Philip Gilbert Hamerton. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1882.

IN the two representative arts, painting and sculpture, there are many varieties of artistic aim, and a great variety of processes, but, correctly speaking, there is but one art in each. Painting is the art of representing the forms and colors of things on flat surfaces, and sculpture is the art of producing forms in solid substance. The employment of different materials in painting—as water-color on wet plaster, water-color on paper, oil-color on canvas, etc.—or the employment of different materials, or of different methods in drawing (which is only a part of painting), does not constitute so many different and separate arts: these various methods and the use of various materials are simply different processes of one art. The varieties of purpose in drawing, even, to which the various processes lend themselves—as the securing of simple proportion in line, of finished contours, or of outline and solid form—do not make so many distinct arts of drawing. All possible varieties of aim and of process in drawing do but concern themselves with the elements of form. Good drawing, according to the conditions of material and purpose the normal conventions of which an accomplished draughtsman instinctively feels and obeys, is the one quality with which a draughtsman should be concerned. If a man can draw, all the minor technical matters pertaining to the different materials and aims will take sufficient care of themselves.

Mr. Hamerton, in the book before us, makes, we think, rather too much account of these minor matters. He does not take a sufficiently comprehensive view, nor consider enough the subject of graphic art in general, to convey an entirely right conception of the normal characteristics of design in the various processes of painting, drawing, and engraving. This ten-

dency to overlook the primarily important qualities of art, and to give undue prominence to mere processes, is characteristic of all Mr. Hamerton's work. It was so in the otherwise delightful book, 'The Painter's Camp'; it was markedly so in his 'Etching and Etchers'; and it is so again in the present book. In consequence of this tendency, he is not so good a guide to students of art as he might otherwise be. He is not discriminating enough in regard to what is essential. This is shown not only by his writing, but also by the illustrations to his books. The work on 'Etching and Etchers' hardly contains a single example of exemplary delineation considered as such. The illustrations to his 'Life of Turner' possess none of the fine characteristics of Turner's drawing; and the illustrations to the English edition of his present book are very ill-chosen from this point of view. Nevertheless, what Mr. Hamerton says of the various graphic processes contains a great deal that is highly interesting and instructive, though the interest and activity which it is calculated to excite will be out of all proportion to the use which most students of art are just now qualified to make of these processes.

In an early part of the book Mr. Hamerton reiterates the doctrine, which he has for some time held and taught—enunciating it most distinctly and fully in his 'Life of Turner'—that the business of an artist is to give æsthetic pleasure without necessary regard for truth to nature. He teaches that an artist may utterly violate all laws of truth with impunity. We hold this to be a very mistaken view of the matter. We agree with the proposition that it is an artist's business to give æsthetic pleasure; and we go so far, also, as to hold that if he does not give æsthetic pleasure, a man is not entitled to rank as an artist at all. But we entirely dissent from the doctrine that any æsthetic pleasure which does violence to nature can be worthy pleasure, or that any form of representative art which is not truthful can be good art. The limitations, or conventions, to which all art is more or less subject, are by no means of the nature of untruths. Against the idea that art should concern itself simply with physical facts Mr. Hamerton has very justly contended; but we think he has been led too far, and that his present doctrine is calculated to cut the arts adrift from their proper moorings quite as effectually as ever the narrowest pre-Raphaelite doctrines did. He says: "Poetic art is strangely independent both of science and of veracity" ('Life of Turner,' p. 319). In contrast to this, we may quote an admirable passage from the introduction to the 'History of Greek and Roman Sculpture' reviewed above. Mr. Perry says:

"There can be nothing arbitrary or irregular in true art. It can only affect us, it can only do its work, so long as it remains in alliance with nature and acts in strict conformity with her laws. But the artist is by no means limited to a mere reproduction of what he sees around him. Working on the lines which external nature has laid down, he transcends her bounds and passes into the ideal; he becomes, as it were, a creator, and his work is a new creature, not exactly corresponding to anything in external nature, yet not unnatural."

In the course of the work, Mr. Hamerton says many good things. Thus, speaking of the value of drawing in education (p. 47):

"Practical art has one distinct advantage over all purely intellectual pursuits, which is, that it does not educate the mind only, but also the eye and the hand. I am well aware that a foolish prejudice, which, if it is dying out, is dying too slowly, considers this training of eye and hand a mark of degradation, because the skilful use of these physical organs assimilates the artist to the artisan. Some people—but not the wisest—are as proud of having idle and useless hands as Chinese ladies are of their useless feet. With these all reasoning would be a waste of time, but to others who have no such prejudice I may offer a few remarks in favor of this ocular and manual education. Let it not be supposed that the education which we gain from the graphic arts is by any means limited in its effects to the actual practice of those arts themselves. The eye which is trained by drawing discerns form everywhere and in everything; the hand which is skilled to use pencil or brush will be generally superior in delicacy and accuracy of touch to the hand which has never been taught. The question, therefore, is not simply whether we care to be skilful in drawing, but whether we prefer a keen eye to a comparatively blind one, and a ready hand to a clumsy one."

On pages 333 and 334 are some good remarks on what the author calls the over-ripeness of some forms of modern art. He says:

"The over-ripeness of art is indicated by the excessive predominance of fragmentary appearances in the mind of the artist, when a glance of light upon a leaf or a twig and a bit of broken dark shadow seem to him more important than the growth of the tree; when the sparkle of a jewel attracts his attention more than the shape of the arm that wears it; when the texture of a cow's horns and that of the hair between them is the subject of greater painstaking than the arrangement of a group of cattle. Finally, this over-ripeness leads to a kind of dexterous sketching, generally done with the palette-knife, which jumps from sparkle to sparkle, from spot to spot of shadow, like a wren in a hedge, without caring in the least about modelling a form, or about painting anything steadily and seriously with the brush. The French Salon of 1881 abounded in work of this flickering kind, and it appears to be the final development of French painting. There are still, of course, many exceptions—men like Landelle and Bouguereau, who do not allow themselves to be disturbed by the prevailing fashion; but Landelle is considered out of date by the new school, and Bouguereau a Philistine who paints for grocers. They are both a little primitive in paying more attention to line and less to texture than the best men of the present, but then they really do draw and paint; they use the brush, and can follow a line or model a limb, which, if the present tendency works to its ultimate results, nobody will be able to do in the next generation. In landscape this tendency may be less offensive, but even here it is unpleasant to see that plastering with the palette-knife has replaced fair painting with the brush."

Montesquieu's Considerations on the Causes of the Grandeur and Decadence of the Romans. A new translation, together with an introduction, critical and illustrative notes, and an analytical index. By Jehu Baker. Being incidentally a rational discussion of the phenomena and tendencies of history in general. 12mo, pp. 526. D. Appleton & Co. 1882.

Mr. Baker has made a mistake in translating the title of Montesquieu's book. The French *Grandeur* is not "Grandeur" but "Greatness," and although this is a matter of slight importance in the title, the error is repeated on p. 182 with a real loss of sense. Montesquieu, in this important chapter (Chap. IX.), undertakes to point out "two causes of the ruin of Rome," and these two are given in the translation as "the grandeur of empire" and "the grandeur of the city." But this conveys a total misconception of the argument. It is the *extent* of the empire, and the *size* of the city, to which the inherited institutions of the Romans were no longer adequate, that are discussed in this chapter. The civic institutions of Rome were not equal to the government of a great empire: only the principle of representaton could have remedied this defect. Further, even these civic institutions broke down in their immediate exercise in the city itself, because the governing body was no longer a manageable, homogeneous body, but a great mob of varying elements.

In general Mr. Baker's translation is not only correct, but remarkably free from idiotisms. It is hard to see any difference in style between his translation and his original work, which makes up nearly half the volume. The author shows moreover a good, accurate knowledge of the history and antiquities of Rome, so that we are really puzzled by two or three expressions which are hard to reconcile with his usually accurate scholarship. "A troop of seditious persons were called by the name of *comices*" (p. 184). What are "comices"? The word is neither Latin nor English, but the French for *comitia* (elective assembly). Again (p. 198), we twice have mention of "the law *curiate*." This, too, wholly unmeaning here, is a French word lugged into English; the *lex curiata de imperio* is meant. It might be called "curiate law," but certainly not "law *curiate*," as if *curiate* were a proper name. A similar blunder is "*Conjuratione de Catiline*" (p. 209), a phrase which is neither English, French, Latin, nor Italian. Montesquieu wrote *Conjuration*, and his phrase, instead of being translated, is copied with an error added. On p. 169, *Cœritium* stands as *cœrtium*; and on p. 208 *Sulpicius* as *Sulpitius*—Montesquieu's own mistake. These would be serious faults if they were characteristic of the book; as it is, they are blemishes upon a really good work—the author evidently nodded at these points.

Montesquieu's observations upon Roman history have so far become a commonplace of historical science, that it is difficult to judge them fairly in the light of the more advanced knowledge of the present day. But in general it may be said that the points in which most change has been made by Niebuhr and his successors are such as to make very little difference with Montesquieu's discussions. He speaks of the power of the state as exercised by its lawful heads; while the structure of the government, the details of the Constitution, the internal history even, hardly concern him in treating of the establishment of the imperial dominion of Rome. Again, when he comes to speak of internal relations—for example, in the contests of plebeians and patricians, and in the decay and overthrow of the Republic—he confines himself for the most part to large political causes, and pays little attention to social causes. Here is the defect in the ninth chapter and those which go with it. The two causes of ruin mentioned above are purely political; an even more powerful cause, the most fundamental of all, he hardly touches upon, and even Mr. Baker passes it over in equal silence—the collapse of free society. Free institutions fell because free society had dissolved, and the cause of this was slavery. Free society cannot exist without free industry, and free labor can no more exist side by side with slave labor than good money can circulate along with bad money. *Latifundia perdidere Italiam*, not, as Pliny supposed, because they were large estates, but because they were given over to slave labor. The freeholds of the Italian peasantry were absorbed in great plantations, and the peasants themselves either rushed to Rome to swell the number of the proletariat there, leaving their places to be taken by slaves, or were themselves converted into serfs. This most important revolution is hardly noticed by either Montesquieu or his translator.

If the earlier chapters of Montesquieu's work hardly miss the results of the investigations of the nineteenth century, this want is felt more seriously in the closing chapters, upon the fall of the Empire. His observations are good so far as they go, but his point of view was very incomplete. The relation of the barbarians to the Empire is far better understood now than at that time: here, therefore, his political style of treatment fails to find a complete solution for the problem. M. Fustel de Coulanges's 'Institutions,' if somewhat one-sided, and itself incomplete, affords, nevertheless, just what earlier writers were not in a condition to give, and is by far the best single account of this great revolution. In conclusion, we will say again that Mr.

Baker has done very well the task which he proposed to himself, but that it was somewhat more narrow than we should have desired. His author's work should have been supplemented. Adopting in the main that author's point of view, he has added much material, all of which is good, and much of it excellent, without on the whole bringing Montesquieu's analysis up to the standard of present scholarship.

Myth and Science. Tito Vignoli. [International Scientific Series.] D. Appleton & Co. 1882. Pp. 327.

MYTH, according to the peculiar sense in which it is used in this volume, begins in animism, and culminates in the "entification of sensations and ideas." A number of facts are collected to show that animals are animistic, differing, however, from man only in the fact that, with the former, the illusions do not outlast the sensations, while in the latter they occasion fetishes, which are gradually organized into mythologies and theologies, only to be subtilized into more subjective myths, called ideas, will, etc., in systems like those of Hegel and Schopenhauer. Not only do we speak of "wild ground," "a threatening sky," "the thirsty earth," the "foot of a mountain," "the arm of the sea," a "conflict of ideas," but speech, music, weight, color, love, number, and even equality, identity, etc., are either incarnated, personified, or, in a word, entified by a spontaneous instinct psychologically identical with that by which a child grasps at a soft or flexible thing as if it were hard or rigid, or at a sunbeam as if it were palpable. A number of curious hypnogogic illusions to which the author is subject are given to show that dreams also are included under his law of the entification of images, as is also the artistic faculty. Although the function of science is the dissolution of myth, the former will long continue to be the unconscious victim of illusion, so far as the entification of its fundamental ideas is concerned.

The great fault of this book is its size. The author writes in a prolix and cumbrous style, exceedingly like that of Comte; pays ceremonious respects to many writers, especially to Herbert Spencer, the "modern Aristotle"; quotes himself for eighteen pages at one time; repeats facts by the score from Tylor and Gubernatis; and takes up much space with résumés of what he has done, and with plans for future chapters. In one-third the room the matter would have seemed more valuable.

The Old Régime—Court, Salons, and Theatres. By Catherine Charlotte, Lady Jackson. Henry Holt & Co. 1882. Pp. 546.

THE reign of Louis XV., like that of Charles II. of England, is infamous for debauchery in society and ignominy in public affairs. A picture of such a court is not a pleasant subject to contemplate, and one is ready to ask, To what purpose rake in these records of shame and preserve the memory of what had best be forgotten? When we remember, on the other hand, that the age of Louis XV. was also that of three men who exercised a wonderful influence upon the human mind—Voltaire, Rousseau, and Diderot—we must admit that it is worth while to acquaint ourselves with the society in which these men played a part. The sketch of this society given by Lady Jackson is vivid and entertaining, and—for so foul a period—unobjectionable in tone. There is another point of view in which we may recognize a high value in the book. Louis XV. is called (p. 520) "this worthless king"; and no doubt there is no king in history whom this epithet better describes. But somehow it is impossible to turn over these pages without a certain sympathy for this worthless creature, and a recognition of the pathos in his fate. He was a beautiful child, a remarkably handsome man; and he reached the age of twenty-four without reproach. Not kingly, he had no liking for the cares of state—he was fond of gardening and of hunting, and showed absolutely no inclination for the vices which surrounded him. He was, so to speak, forced into vice, deliberately and of set purpose. Once corrupted, he plunged deeper and deeper into the mire of debauchery, until he became the wreck that we all know. He would have been an estimable country gentleman; if let alone, he would have been a tolerable king; it was his fate to be the victim of the reaction from the sanctimonious hypocrisy of his predecessor's court, while his peaceful tastes and the loss of prestige of his reign served as a contrast to the splendid and unscrupulous ambition of Louis XIV.

Charlemagne. By the Rev. Edward L. Cutts, B.A. [The Home Library.] With map. London. 1882. 12mo, pp. 345.

THE Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge is doing a very good work in the series of handy volumes upon various subjects published under its auspices. The "Home Library" forms one of these series. Mr. Cutts's 'Charlemagne' is not so much a life of Charlemagne as a history of the Frank nation and empire, with the great Emperor as its chief feature. Less than half the book is devoted to him; the first half of the volume describes the fortunes of the Franks from their first appearance in history down to the time of Charlemagne. It is written in a pleasant style, and appears to be the result of conscientious preparation. The relation of Church and State at this important epoch is handled in a very fair spirit. The least satisfactory part of the book is that which treats of constitutional matters—we should rather say which does not treat of them, for they are entirely neglected. It would be a mistake, in a book designed for general readers, to enter into such points with any fulness; still, these formed so important a portion of the activity of Charles the Great, and they are so essential to any understanding of the times, that they ought to have received some attention. St. Columbanus is said (p. 513) to have been born in 543, and to have crossed over to Gaul in 585, at the age of thirty—not a very exact bit of calculating. On page 163 Carinthia is spelt Corinthia.

Stories from the State Papers. By Alexander Charles Ewald, F. S. A. [of the Record Office.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1882. 8vo, pp. 360.

MR. EWALD'S interesting volume is for the most part confined to the history of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, none of the stories belonging to a later period, and only one to an earlier one. The first paper, "The Youth of Henry the Fifth," shows, from the evidence of contemporary documents, that there is no foundation for the tradition as to this king's youth with which we are all familiar from Shakspere; that, on the other hand, he was trusted and employed by his father in important concerns. It is noted incidentally that the wish ascribed to Henry IV., that some fairy had exchanged Prince Henry for the infant son of the Earl of Northumberland in their cradles—"then would I have his Harry and he mine"—is a ludicrously impossible one, Hotspur being only six months younger than Bolingbroke himself.

The stories here related are fifteen in number, ranging from so familiar a subject as "The Invincible Armada" to "The Sweating Sickness" and "The Lancashire Witches." In "A Perished Kernel" we are interested to find the case of the Earl of Somerset and Sir Thomas Overbury related—which has recently been treated by Mr. Spedding in his (and Mr. Gairdner's) 'Studies in English History' (see the *Nation*, April 27). Mr. Ewald holds the common view that Somerset knew some discreditable secret about King James, which he threatened to divulge. He does not, however, answer, or even notice, the arguments, which appear to us conclusive, that Mr. Spedding brings up in favor of the King. His suggestion that "the King had given instructions, independently of and unknown to Lady Somerset, to make an end of Overbury," seems to us puerile. And when he proceeds to pronounce such a crime not unlikely on the part of James I., he runs counter to the judgment of the best-informed students of this period, which is, on the whole, more favorable to the ability and character of James than that of former historians.

As a companion to English history, this book will be welcomed; especially as illustrating by striking and lucid examples the degree in which fresh light has been thrown upon old subjects by the exploration of the state papers.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Appletons' Hand-book of Summer Resorts. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Baker, C. Alice. A Summer in the Azores. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1 25.
Bastian, A. Der Buddhismus in seiner Psychologie. Berlin.
Burnham, Clara Louise. A Sane Lunatic. Chicago: Henry A. Sumner & Co. $1.
Hamilton, F. H. Health Aphorisms. Bermingham & Co.
Hunt, Sara K. The Deems Birthday-Book. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.
Ingersoll's Interviews on Talmage. Washington, D. C.: C. P. Farrell.
King, J. W. The War-Ships and Navies of the World. New ed. Boston: A. Williams & Co.
Marjory: a Study. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Mothers' Record. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.
Oliphant, Mrs. Literary History of England. XVIIIth and XIXth Century. 3 vols. Macmillan & Co.
Richardson, J. G. Long Life, and How to Reach it. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. 30 cents.
Scott, L. Ghiberti and Donatello, with Other Italian Sculptors. Scribner & Welford. $1.
Stretton, Hesba. The Lord's Pursebearers. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1 25.
Studley, Mary J. What Our Girls Ought to Know. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.
Trinity, The: A Nineteenth-Century Passion-Play. Cambridge: E. Johnson.
Two Days. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 60 cents.
Wonderful Fan. By Aunt Ella. E. P. Dutton & Co. 50 cents.
Wright, C. D. The Relation of Political Economy to the Labor Question. Boston: A. Williams & Co.

Summer Reading.

WILLIAM PENN. By Robert J. Burdette, of the Burlington *Hawkeye*. 16mo (Lives of American Worthies), $1 25.

YESTERDAY. An American Novel. 16mo (Leisure-Hour Series), $1.

SERJEANT BALLANTINE'S Some Experiences of a Barrister's Life. Large 12mo, with portrait, $2 50.

THE OLD REGIME. By Lady Jackson. 12mo (uniform with 'Old Paris'), $2 25.

HEAPS OF MONEY. By W. E. Norris, author of 'Matrimony.' 16mo (Leisure-Hour Series), $1.

THE REVOLT OF MAN. A Satirical Novel. 16mo (Leisure-Hour Series), $1.

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

INDEX TO VOLUME XXXIV.,

JANUARY TO JUNE, 1882.

Summary of the Week's News.

4, 24, 48, 68, 90, 112, 134, 158, 178, 198, 220, 242, 262, 286, 306, 328, 350, 372, 392, 416, 436, 454, 474, 494, 514, 534.

The Week.

AT HOME.

Agriculture, Commissioner of, ruled out of the Cabinet by Mr. Nimmo, 512—Senator Allison's Gold Certificate Bill, 88—President Arthur vetoes the Anti-Chinese Bill, 283, 303, signs it amended, 389, nominates a Stalwart to the Boston Collectorship, 303, 325, advised that he cannot restore Gen. Fitz-John Porter, 325, message on the Arizona outrages, 370—Boston *Advertiser's* libel suit, 176—Assessments on Navy-yard employees for party purposes, 491, how to legalize them, 511, the circular sent out, 531—C. F. Adams and the banco swindlers, 452.

Brewster, Attorney-General, letter to George Bliss on pushing the Star-route suits, 2—Rev. Leonard Bacon on the Mormon question, 21—Rev. Henry W. Bellows deceased, 89—Rev. Dr. Bevan on the religious press, 391—Secretary Blaine's Panama Canal despatch and British rejoinder, 21, diplomatic negotiations with Peru to be investigated, 22, official correspondence published, 87, 88, treatment of Hurlbut as a wild young man, 88, instructions to Mr. Trescot revised by President Arthur, 109, offers mediation between Mexico and Guatemala, 131, memorial address on Garfield, 176, stirs up the Colombian Congress to abrogate treaty of 1846, 259, wrangle with Perry Belmont, 369, 391, discovery of the British fleet, 369, declines to run for Congressman-at-large in Maine, 472—Mr. Blackburn and General Burbridge spoiling for a fight, 22—Montgomery Blair favors Miller's Anti-Chinese Bill, 195—Senator Blair's testimony in the Shipherd investigation, 369—Senator Beck would abolish banks discriminating against silver, 451, Judge Blatchford nominated to the Supreme Court, 217—Baltimore, Collector Webster on competitive examinations, 240—Business, 3, 23, 45, 87, 109, 131, 155, 175, 195, 217, 239, 259, 325, 348, 370, 390, 413, 435, 471, 492, 512, 531.

California view of newspaper libel, 22, pro-Chinese minority protest against Congressional legislation, 89, Tichborne claimant getting up his case, 473—Cleveland Ladies' Land League denounced by Bishop Gilmour, 472—Cincinnati *Gazette* on the bearings of Bismarck's protectionism, 371—Chicago *Tribune* on the value of the silver dollar in Europe, 1—*Christian Union* on the Mormon question, 21—Delegate Cannon examined as to Mormonism, 132, refused a seat, eligible for blood-atonement, 348—Gen. Chalmers unseated, 370—Chinese legislation by Congress protested against, 89, bill virtually prohibitory, 259, vetoed by the President, 283, outcry on the Pacific Coast, 303, new bill signed, 389, protest from the Chinese Government, 532—General Newton M. Curtis assessing Government officers, 89, services dispensed with by Secretary Folger, 132, prosecution not agreeable to Thurlow Weed, 176, indictment, 195, attempted intimidation of witnesses, 219, indictment quashed, 283, 284, another chance to face the music like a soldier, 348, convicted, 452—Columbia College law graduates claiming admission to the bar, 110—Colleges small but not under parental control, 156—Crédit Industriel and the U.S. guano agency, 110—Roscoe Conkling's nomination and fitness for the Supreme Court, 176, position declined, 195, slandered by the Kingston *Freeman*, 433, advisers as to standing for reëlection, 472—Cregan, Mike, dinner to, 218—Don Cameron on ex-post-facto reform platforms, 433, summons a new State Convention, 452, gets an internal-revenue collector appointed, 472, aims to make a Congressman of John Wanamaker, 491, 512—Geo. Wm. Curtis's letter to Senator Mitchell, 433, reply to Jay Hubbell on assessments, 531—Coinage Committee's report to House of Representatives, 196—Commissioner of Agriculture ruled out of the Cabinet by the Chief of the Statistical Bureau, 512—Wm. E. Chandler appointed Secretary of the Navy, 304, on building more ships, 511—Cabinet changes, 283, 304, Cabinet-making by the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, 512—Copyright negotiations in suspense, 241—Catholic Provincial Council on equality and the source of power, 305—Churches, cost of, as compared with that of war vessels, 434.

Congress: XLVIIth, first session: Mr. Orth's protest against the formation of the Committees (House), 21, thwarted, 45—Debate on Arrears of Pensions Act, 46, 131, on Funding Bill (Senate), 65—Hazeltine's bill to coin paper currency (House), 65—Funding Bill passed; Allison's Greenback-Redemption Bill (Senate), 111—Logan's bill to retire General Grant, 156, passed (Senate), 176—Apportionment Bill passed (House), 156—Investigation of Morton, Bliss & Co.'s connection with the Crédit Industriel (both Houses), 175—Anti-Chinese Bill debated (Senate): Coinage Committee's bill and report (House), 196—Temperance Commission of Inquiry Bill passed (Senate), 218—Republican caucus on the tariff; Vote to take up the Tariff Commission Bill, 239—Senator Brown, of Georgia, favors a protective tariff (Senate), 260—Indian Appropriation Bill with educational amendment (Senate), 284—Bill to count the electoral vote passed (Senate), 304—Amended Anti-Chinese Bill passed (House), 325—Voorhees's dungeon speech (Senate), 327—Mississippi Improvement Bill; Bill repealing appropriation for silver coinage, passed, (Senate); Committee on Banking and Currency report against silver coinage (House), 347—Petition for the exclusion of Irish immigrants, Delegate Cannon refused a seat, recompense for Garfield's physicians (House), 348—Anti-Chinese Bill passed (both Houses), 369—Tariff Commission Bill passed (House), 389—Geneva Award Bill passed (House), 413, (Senate), 452—Confirmation of Cameron's man Kauffman (Senate), Crapo bill extending national-bank charters passed (House), 433, (Senate) 532—Deadlock over South Carolina contested-election case broken by a new rule, 451—Japanese indemnity voted without interest (Senate), 491—Retirement age in Army fixed at sixty-four (Senate), 492—Backwardness with the appropriation bills, 532.

Darwinism and religious circles, 370—Lieutenant De Long's party found dead, 390, 391—Dublin murders, sermons on, 413, New York Irishmen's denunciation of, 415—Michael Davitt on the nationalization of land in Ireland, 512—Dramatic copyright affirmed in Massachusetts, 434.

Election of President, Congressional plan of avoiding disputes, 110—Esposito case, Senate Judiciary Committee report on, 111—Senator George F. Edmunds declines a seat in the Supreme Court, 217—Extravagance, popular, condemned by the press, 472.

Folger, Secretary, and Gen. N. M. Curtis, 132, on over-certification of bank checks, 155—Cyrus W. Field's defence of his Manhattan operations, 2—Secretary Frelinghuysen announces abrogation of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, 471—Floods in the West, 195.

Guiteau trial, Judge Cox's laxity explained, 1, prisoner's speech ruled out, but printed in *Herald*, Davidge for the prosecution, 45, verdict of guilty, Scoville's address to the American people, demand for a new trial, 87, denied, 433, plea for mercy from his former wife, 473, Guiteau unpopular in insane asylums, 66—Gen. Grant convinced of Fitz-John Porter's innocence, 2, Logan's bill to put him on the retired list, 156—Grain and stocks, 155—Jay Gould displays his wealth, 217.

Hewitt, Abram S., bill for free exchange of gold and silver dollars, 1, speech on the tariff, 283—Senator Ben Hill denounces extending the U. S. bonds at a lower rate, 65—Dr. John Hall on the Mormon question, 110—Mrs. Julia Ward Howe bespeaks kindly intercourse for Oscar Wilde, 156—Peter Hevener's claim against Peru, 197—Minister S. A. Hurlbut on the Cochet claim, 284, advised in the margin to "Go it, Steve," 259, 326—Stenographer Hayes removed by Speaker Keifer, 284—Capt. Howgate takes leave of jail, 327—Jay Hubbell defends the assessment squeeze, 531.

Illinois, the Hellhake boys shooting Dr. Hoffman at Quincy, 473—Immigration heavy in 1881, 1, relation to "protection," 23—Senator Ingalls on the employment of Chinese by the Californians, 369—Irish-Americans in British dungeons, 261—International Monetary Conference, nothing expected of it, 240—Indian delegations to Washington, educational amendment to the Indian Appropriation Bill, 284—Indian Territory, Congressional Railroad raids into, 390, invaded by Paine, 453, Indian police acting bravely in New Mexico, 532—*Independent* on Darwinism, 370.

James, Postmaster-General, letter on the exclusion of fraudulent postal bids, 21—Jesse James, the brigand, killed and buried 304, dies poor, Sunday-school education of his boy, proposed testimonial to his widow, 326, standing in Baptist Church, revengeful programme of his brother, 349, Frank James in negotiation for a quiet life, 453, Missouri Baptists exonerated from the charge of fellowship, 473—*Jeannette*, De Long's party found dead, 390, 391.

Kentucky, steamboat chase of a sheriff by a mob, 22, rough-and-ready punishment of contempt of court, 46—Secretary Kirkwood's proposed visiting Indian Commissioners, 89—Speaker Keifer removes stenographers for cause, 284, 326—Keely about to reveal the nature of his Force, 512.

Lowell, James Russell, Westerners anxious to replace him, 451, 471, *Herald* and *Sun* backward in apologizing to him, 471—Judge Lowell's view of newspaper libel, 176—Lamson's case, Dr. Boyland on, 304, affidavits of insanity, 327.

Minnesota judge impeached, 261—Massachusetts Republican papers on Worthington's nomination to the Boston Collectorship, 325, dramatic copyright decision, 434—Mormon question, Dr. Bacon and *Christian Union* on, 21, plan of dividing Utah, 21, Dr. Howard Crosby's idea, 66, Dr. John Hall's, 110—Senator Miller's Anti-Chinese Bill, 196, 259, 283, his former view, 303—Morton, Bliss & Co. and the Crédit Industriel, 157, 175, Minister Morton's explanation insufficient, 239—Representative Money's Steamship Subsidy Bill, 240—Sergeant Mason's application for habeas corpus denied by Supreme Court, 390—Ex-Governor F. J Moses sent to the penitentiary, 473—Mint proposed in New York, 88.

New York, *State:* Assembly resolution on the Dublin assassinations, 389; on allowing the American flag on foreign-built ships, 414; Attorney-General decides woman-suffrage unconstitutional, 414.—*City:* Chamber of Commerce on the revival of American Shipping, 46, Ministers interviewed on the Mormon problem, 66, Stalwart dinner at the Lincoln Club, 132, Fourth National Bank defalcation, 218, United Trade and Labor Union on convict labor and satchel warfare, 240, Tariff-reform meeting, 325, Recorder Smyth punishes assault of a Chinaman, 390—New York *Tribune* troubled by Mr. Belmont, 391—New York *Times* on Southern satisfaction with the Democratic party, 453—National banks likely to have their charters renewed, 65—Naval officers on the need of fast cruisers, 155, Navy injured by reinstating the drunken, 260, Navy-yard assessments, 491, Why the public oppose building more ships now, 511—Rev. Dr. Newman on civil-service reformers, 453.

Ohio, temperance question making trouble for the Republicans, 472; Republican Convention, 491; Bishop Gilmour's injunction against the Cleveland Ladies' Land League, 472.

Pennsylvania, taxation of foreign corporations, 176; Stalwart civil-service plank not ex-post facto, 433; new convention called by Cameron, 452, opposition, 512; Philadelphia tax frauds, 196—Senator Plumb's amendment to the Funding Bill, 45—Peruvian character defended against Mr. Christiancy, 131, claim of Peter Hevener, 197, Cochet claim defined by Minister Hurlbut, 284—Commissioner Price on Indian delegations coming to Washington, 284—Postmaster Pearson on postal clerks in politics, 304—Pension frauds and how to prevent them, 66, Ingalls resolution in the Senate, 131.

Railroad war, a truce, 65, securities dropping, 175—John Roach to establish a ship-yard in France, 109, opposes higher wages for boiler-makers, 451—Rugby colony breaks down, 111—Receiverships of life-insurance companies, 285—Refunding Bill, R. P. Flower on the need of, 413—M. Roustan on the Tunisian war and Rochefort trial, 513—Signor Rossi on American dramatic art, 240.

Silver coinage reported against by House Banking Committee, and appropriation for coinage repealed by Senate, 347—Supreme Court, Senator Davis's bill for the relief of, 88, sugar decision, 195—Star-route trial, sage brush and plunder, 491—Judge-Advocate-General Swaim upsets Whittaker and Mason courts-martial, 260—Ex-Senator Sargent nominated Minister to Germany, 175—Geo. E. Spencer made Government Director of the Union Pacific R. R., 511—Jacob R. Shipherd investigation, 241, 259, 326, 369, Shipherd discharged but wants to testify, offers reward for Blaine, 434—John F. Slater gives $1,000,000 to educate the freedmen, 326—Sugar decision of Supreme Court, 195—Strikes ended, 434.

Tennessee Supreme Court decides Funding Act unconstitutional, 131—Tariff Commission should consist of Congressmen, 3, actual composition, 491, 511, reform meeting in New York, 325—Mr. Trescot's despatch conveying Chili's terms to Peru, 88—Senator Teller appointed Secretary of the Interior, 304, visit to the Indian school at Carlisle, 532—Rev. Talmage on biennial sessions, 133.

Virginia: Readjuster redistricting scheme defeated, 325—Wm. H. Vanderbilt opposed to a railway commission, 240.

Whittaker case, court-martial finding to be set aside, 22, in the hands of the Secretary of War, 132, Whittaker dropped from the Academy, 260—Attorney-General Ward's explanation of the elevated railway litigation, 1—D. A. Wells on British subsidies to ocean steamers, 66, on immigration precipitating a labor crisis, 451—Thurlow Weed on the prosecution of General Curtis, 176—Oscar Wilde on Art Decoration, 414—Washington *Republican* to become the organ of the Administration, 111—Wall Street flurry and moralizing, 175—Western Miner's Bureau on the standard silver dollar, 414—Whiskey tax, proposal to lower the, 217—Wives not to be engaged as actresses, 241.

Young, John Russell, appointed to the Chinese Mission, 217.

ABROAD.

Great Britain:—Meetings of Irish landlords in Dublin, 3, first appeal from sub-commissioners decided, 67, reductions sustained, Bence Jones's experience, 177, Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke assassinated in Dublin, 389—Otto Trevelyan succeeds Lord Frederick Cavendish, 389, first speech, 435—Gladstone's hint of Irish Home Rule, 133, 157, not to resign, 177, motion against the Lords' Commission of Inquiry into the Land Act, 157, 177, carried, 219, speech on the state of Ireland, 285, budget, change in Irish programme foreshadowed, 349, executed, 371—Suspects released, Mr. Forster resigns, difficulty of

finding a successor, Earl Cowper succeeded in the Lord Lieutenancy by Lord Spencer, 371—Cabinet dissensions, 513—Debate on the conditions of Parnell's release, 415—Canadian memorial for the release of the suspects, 349—Arrears of rent unaffected by Land Act, 241, 285, new relief bill, 415, coupled with but subordinated to the Prevention of Crime Bill, 513—Prevention of Crime Bill, 415, 435, 473, protest of Irish judges, 493—Dillon's relation to the murder of Mr. Bourke, 493—Michael Davitt advocates state ownership of land, 492, 512—Anti-Land League joint stock company, 533—Prayer for Ireland ordered in the churches, 533—*Economist* on the execution of the laws in Ireland, 435—Irish violence not a new story, 493—Minister Lowell's dungeon difficulty, 197—Parliamentary obstruction to be overcome, 23, new rules introduced, opposition, 133, closure by majority carried, 285—Lord Derby's adhesion to the Liberal party, not sanguine about Ireland, 23—Lord Salisbury's programme for forcing dissolution, 327—Tories outbidding the Liberals for the favor of the Irish tenants, 371—Tory use of Blaine's Canal pretensions, 47—Liberals beaten in the North Riding of Yorkshire, 89—Mr. Bradlaugh expelled the House, 177, reëlected, 197, Lord Redesdale's bill excluding atheists, 197—Marriage with a deceased wife's sister defeated in the Lords, 492—Vote favorable to the County Franchise Bill, 261—Lord Granville's despatch on the Isthmus Canal, 131, 156, 157—London *Standard* on the decadence of the American State Department, 451—Queen Victoria fired at by Roderick MacLean, 197—Excitement over Barnum's purchase of the elephant Jumbo, 219—Attempt to save Dr. Lamson on the ground of insanity, 261, the plea not used by his counsel, 371—Charles Darwin deceased, 347—Military preparations to coerce Arabi Bey, 533.

FRANCE :—Financial panic, 65, suspension of Union Générale, 87, arrest of the managers, 109, effect on Gambetta Ministry, 66—Gambetta thwarted by Committee on Revision of the Constitution, hint of a *coup d'état*, 67—Resignation of Gambetta and programme of Freycinet Ministry, 89—M. Roustan appointed Minister to Washington, 177—Report in favor of an inland sea south of Algeria, 391—Journalistic discussion of the meaning of *snobisme*, 414—French birth-rate dwindling, 435.

SPAIN :—Ratification of commercial treaty with France, 349.

ITALY :—King gives notice that the Papacy is an internal question, 46—Pope's removal to the United States suggested, 47.

GERMANY :—Nature of the budget, 3—Bismarck's relapse from Liberalism, Division of parties over Windthorst's motion, 47, motion carried, 67—Reichstag commitee reports against the tobacco monopoly, 435.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY :—Uprising on account of conscription in Herzegovina, 47, reported mobilization of the Montenegrin army, 219—Count Taaffe puts his foot on Jew-baiting, 308—German fraternization in Hungary, 391.

RUSSIA :—General Skobeleff's outburst against the Germans, 157—Assassination of General Strelnikoff, conciliation of the Catholics, 285—Final retirement of Gortchakoff, 305—Ferocious persecution of the Jews, 349.

TURKEY :—Sultan interviews General Wallace on American tax collection, 241, displays his treasures *à la* Jay Gould, 305.

EGYPT :—Chamber of Notables form a new Ministry under Mahmudi Bey, 111—Arabi Bey's *coup d'état* breaks down, 414, 415—Causes and course of the crisis, 453—Sultan's opposition to a European conference, 473—Arrival of Dervish Pasha, outbreak at Alexandria, 493—Foreign fleets give no concern to Arabi Bey, 512.

CANADA :—Outcry against the Anglo-Canadian copyright system, 110.

AUSTRALIA :—Bishop of Melbourne will not pray for rain, 533.

SOUTH AMERICA :—Minister Adams in Bolivia suffering from tampered mails, 219—Minister Logan claps a Guatemala editor into prison, 219—Pierola's proclamation to restore government in Peru, 241—Colombia gives notice of abrogation of treaty of 1846 with United States, 259—Chilian Congress meets; President's message on American intervention, 533.

CHINA :—Indignation over the Anti-Chinese bill, 532.

Notes.

Announcements, 11, 34, 54, 76, 99, 123, 145, 166, 186, 207, 226, 251, 273, 296, 315, 338, 356, 381, 400, 423, 440, 462, 480, 500, 521, 544—Auerbach, Berthold, last years of, 208—Asbjörnsen's Folk Tales, 316—Allen, Grant, on the great classical fallacy, 502—Acland and Ransome's Handbook of English Political History, 316—Appletons' Cyclopædia, awaiting the census, 54—Arabian Nights, Payne's translation of the, 54, 55—American Indian languages, Müller's grammatic sketches of, 14—American School at Athens to be started at once, 12—Archæological Institute of America's third report, 481—Assos report of the first year's excavations, 523—Antioch College suspends again, 146, 187—Angling, Bartlett's Catalogue of Books on, 423—Apprentices' Library free, 99—Auction catalogue bibliography, 99—Army retired list, 296—*Amerika*, 444—*Appalachia*, 523.

Bartlett's Catalogue of Books on Angling, 423—Bainbridge's Round the World Tour of Christian Missions, 316—Brinton's 'Names of the Gods in the Kiché Myths,' 317—Berens's Myths and Legends of Ancient Greece and Rome, 523—Baretti on the Translation of Shakspere, 187—Berlioz's "Romeo and Juliet," 297—Bréal and Bailly's 'Leçons de Mots,' 340—Bonnier, Gaston, on science in French *lycées*, 402—Buchholz's Homerische Realien, 444—Boulnois's 'Dirty Dustbins,' 123—Bremen Geographical Society's Defence of Capt. Dallmann, 79—Berlin Historical Society's *Jahresberichte*, 210, Berlin University's professorship of philosophy going begging, 502—Boston Record Commissioners, seventh volume, 273—British Museum's reading-room, originality of design questioned, 316—Biblical chronology harmonized with that of the Assyrians, etc., 297—Brahmo Somaj, progress of, 102—Bêche-de-mer industry, 464.

Chester, Joseph Lemuel, deceased, 546—Coues, Dr. Elliott, new Check List of North American Birds, 296—Carpenter, Matthew, library of U. S. documents, 401—Claretie, Jules, 'La Vie à Paris,' 501—California, emigration bringing in malarial diseases, 78, California woodpeckers' acorn-storing habit, 481—Coal, bituminous, census estimate of U. S. product, 124—Census list of first hundred cities, 187—City populations as distributed by the census, 187—Cattle industries, Grinnell on the, 442, 443—Comprehensive Atlas and Geography, 167—Caravan Route between Egypt and Syria, 383—Copra trade in South Pacific, 464—Comet Wells, elements and ephemeris, 275—Cock-horse, etymology of, 382—Céans Maitresse, 340—*Cabinet Historique*, 424—*Civil-Service Record*, 35.

Dana, Richard H., deceased, 36—Draper, Dr. John W., deceased, 36—Deffner's Tsaconian Grammar, 188, defence of the Krupp guns, 482—Dallmann and Wrangell Land, 79—Du Camp, Maxime, reminiscences of Gautier and Flaubert, 124, 125—Dantean emendation, Purg. iii., 187—Dummer Academy redivivus, 99—Dutch prize for a Latin ode, 464—Dictionary catalogues in Germany, 146, in Italy, 253.

DRAMA :—"Lights o' London," 55, "The Colonel," 100, Miss Mary Anderson in "Pygmalion and Galatea," 101.

Emmons, S. F., on the geology of the Leadville region, 501—English Channel tunnel, military danger to England, 228, English Dialect Society's publications, 228, English Political History, Handbook of, 316—Etruscan language, Deecke's last views on, 464—Eucalyptus plantations in California, 481—Electric light in reading-rooms, 524.

Freeman, Edward A., error about Roger de Montgomery, 340—Fournier, Édouard, indefatigable note-taker, 502—Freiligrath library, 463, life by Buchner, 463—Floigl, V., ancient Semitic chronology, 298—Fleischer's science and arts quarterly, 524—French academies unfriendly to science, 402—French library and other periodicals, 424, French school-books cheap, 55, French delegates at Yorktown, 297—Florida, Barbour's and Upham's works on, 78—Fire-proof building and insurance, 124.

Goudsmit, Prof., deceased, 340—Gill, David, obtains the Valz prize, 297—Goldsmith, Cunningham's edition, 123—Galton, Francis, chart of isochronic passages, 14—Gannett, Henry, proposed grouping of States and Territories of U. S., 100—Grinnell, J. B., on the U. S. cattle industries, 442, 443—Gautier, Du Camp's recollections of, 124, 125—Gothenburg liquor traffic, regulation of, 425—Greek accentuation, Chandler's Introduction to, 401, Greek Historical Inscriptions, Hicks's, 401—Geographical nomenclature, 523—Gravity measured at Tokio, 253—*Guide du Libraire Antiquaire*, 424.

Haeckel, Prof., trip to Ceylon, 252, 253—Holtzendorff's Sketches of Scottish Travel, 424—Hartmann, E. von, on the exclusion of art from the churches, 383—Hübner, Prof., on the Roman army in Britain, 424—Hendschel's artistic career, 502—Horn, F. W., Denmark's Literature, 102—Hoffmann's 'Card-sharping Exposed,' 401—Hayman's Odyssey completed, 297—Homeric Greeks, Buchholz on, 444—Harvard Arnex, second year's statistics, 12, College Observatory, 79, Law School Library in need, 317, Greek Play, Norman's, 12—How John Bull lost London, 228.

Irrigation and malaria, 78—Iron and steel-testing machine and commission, 358—*Inter-Ocean* and Chicago's hold on the lumber trade, 168.

Jacobson, the Finnic enthusiast, deceased, 402—Johnston's History of American Politics, 316—Japanese Sanitary Bureau report, 146.

Ko, Professor, deceased, 187—Koch, Dr., on the nature of tubercular disease, 443—Krupp guns in Greece, 482.

Legouvé's 'La Lecture en Action,' 124, collaboration with Scribe, 209—Lesignano, Princess de, Constitutions of All Countries, 37—Le Plongeon, Dr. A., on the 'Vestiges of the Mayas,' 228, 251—Lang's Poems of E. A. Poe, 79—Ludwig Salvator, Archduke, books of travel, 382, 383—London, Old Society for Photographing Relics of, 524—Librarian Authors, 34—*Livre, Le*, 482.

Muir, John, deceased, 252—Moe, J. I., deceased, 383—Mahaffy's Old Greek Education, 227—Mendenhall's gravity measurements at Tokio, 253—Madvig's Constitution and Administration of the Roman State, 146—Müller, Friedrich, 'Outlines of Linguistic Science,' 14—Musset, A. de, a daughter discovered, 482—Maryland Archives to be transferred to the Historical Society, 274, 275—Michigan University calendar, 297, performance of Terence's "Adelphi," 545—Manchester Literary Club's volumes, 35—Musarabic mass misinterpreted, 482—Military Service Institution, 340—Magazines for December, 1881, 13, January, 12, 13; February, 76, 77, 78; March, 166, 167; April, 252, 274; May, 339, 358; June, 441, 442; July, 522, 545—*Magazine of American History* in new hands, 340.

MUSIC :—"Messiah," by the Oratorio Society, 14, "Israel in Egypt," 188—Symphony Society's concerts, 36, 125, 209, Berlioz's "Romeo and Juliet," 317, 318—Philharmonic Society's concerts, 56, 80, 147, 229, 341—Brooklyn Philharmonic, 169, 253—New York Chorus Society's concerts ("Œdipus" choruses), 101, 275—Materna's concert at the Academy of Music, 503—Remenyi's solo violin concert, 56—Joseffy's concert, 383—Operetta: "Apajune," 56, Strauss's "Merry War," 254—Patti in "Traviata," 188, in the "Barber of Seville," 209—Gerster in "Sonnambula," 188—Mapleson's Company in "Fidelio," 229, "L'Africaine," 275, "Robert le Diable," 358.

Necrology of 1881, 14—Norman's translation of Schwegler's 'Greek Philosophy,' and 'Account of the Harvard Greek Play,' 12—New York and Boston library systems contrasted, 78, 99—New Jersey, topographical map of, 274—National Academy of Sciences, annual meeting, 358, constitution, membership, and committees, 545—National Board of Health on collecting vital statistics, 207—Naval assistant-surgeons' rank under the law, 208—Notaryship, bibliographies of, 546.

Olaf, St., miracles of, 425—Operas, books giving their plots, 36.

Porter, President, first printed report, 35—Palmer Family Reunion proceedings, 463—Putnam's Comprehensive Atlas, 167—Peabody (Mass.) Institute's optimism, 501, Peabody Institute, Baltimore, Catalogue, 227, Peabody Museum of Archæology needing funds, 227—Persian monuments photographed, 37—Potomac River flats, plan for remedying, 228—Park Row fire, 124—Pearl fishery at Assab unprofitable, 223—Plays for amateurs, 79—Pianoforte tones sustained by tuning forks, 125—"Parsifal" at Bayreuth, 482—Popular literature of all nations, 402.

Rogers, Prof. Wm. B., deceased, 481—Raff, Joseph Joachim, deceased, 547—Rice, Isaac L., on the value of land, 443—Renan's passion for natural science, 100—Rome, fragment of ancient plan discovered, 402—Roman army in Britain, Prof. Hübner on, 424—Romance palæography, 298—Round the Yule Log, 316—*Revue de l'Extrême Orient*, 358—*Revue International de l'Enseignement*, 55.

Stowe, Mrs. H. B., seventieth birthday celebration, 523—Smith, Joseph R., on the Army retired list, 296—Spofford's Founding of Washington City, 34—Shakspere, Baretti on the translation of, 187—Sunderland Library, second third sold, 401—Siemens, Dr., theory of the conservation of solar energy, 443—Schwegler's 'History of Greek Philosophy,' translation by H. Norman, 12—Surgeon-General's collections in danger, 187—Suicide, O'Dea's studies in, 79—Signal Service weather prediction districts, 208—Standard Time Company of New Haven, 481—Savings-bank discipline for school children, 251—Spiritualists and anti-vivisectionists join hands, 358—Salvation Army's aged convert, 425—Scavenger Service, English, 123—Syllabus perverted by a printer's error, 37—Statesman's Year-Book for 1882, 357—Social-Democratic *index librorum prohibitorum*, 546—*Strict-Constructionist*, 546.

Trollope, Anthony, likeness of his 'Fixed Motive' to Massinger's 'Old Law,' 340—Taillandier's 'Études Littéraires,' 146—Trübner's Catalogue of Dictionaries and Grammars, 357—Tauler and the "friend of God from the Oberland," 502—Tokio, University Calendar, 168, force of gravity measurements at, 253, geology of the environs, 403—Transit of Venus, observation plans for 1882, 209—Taensa language, Parisot's grammar of, 382—Tsaconian Grammar, Deffner's, 188—Tree superstition in N. Y., 253—Trinkgeld, Prof. Jhering on, 424.

United States rearranged in natural groups, 100—Under the Sunset, 316.

Vital Statistics, national collection by State agency, 207.

Wagner's Nibelung Tetralogy performed in London, 464, 465, 546—Wilde, Oscar, letter to Joaquin Miller, 208—Wolfe's Dictionary catalogues, 146—Warner Observatory's misleading woodcut, 168—Wisconsin Historical Society to have a new building, 251—Weather districts, true system of, 208.

Yale, President Porter's first printed report, 35—Yorktown, M. O. d'Haussonville's report on the celebration, 297.

Editorial and Miscellaneous Articles.

Advisory Board and Fitz-John Porter's Case ... 475
Agnostic Worship ... 161
Alexander III., First Year of ... 244
Aliens and Natives under the Irish Coercion Act ... 353
Anti-Polygamy Legislation, New ... 161
Appointment? What is Our Present System of ... 330
Baltimore, Libraries in ... 116
Bankruptcy Laws, Object of ... 115
Berlin, Administration of ... 245, 267
Bismarck's Defeat ... 517
Blaine-Belmont ... 374
Blaine's Diplomacy, Another Chapter of ... 92
Blaine's International Law, More of ... 264
Blaine's Manifesto ... 114
Blaine's Method and Frelinghuysen's ... 496
Blair Tale ... 394
Brigandage and Piety ... 308
Chinese Bill and the Republican Party ... 222
Chinese Translation of U. S. Constitution ... 29
Claims in Congress ... 70
College Faculties, Organization of ... 202
Commercial and Financial Situation ... 223
Conkling's Nomination ... 180
Crops and the Strikes ... 476
Darwin, Charles ... 354
Democratic Banking Theories ... 136
Doctor and Patient ... 497
"Dungeon" Correspondence ... 308
Emerson ... 375
Emperor William's Longevity ... 265
England, Fair-Trade Agitation in ... 288
English and American Ministers ... 200
English Politics ... 115
English Radicals and the Royal Marriages ... 266
Fair-Trade Agitation in England ... 288
Fitz-John Porter's Case and the Advisory Board ... 475
Forests, Our "Protected" ... 6
Four-Years-Term Scheme ... 516
French Finance ... 374
French Judiciary ... 497
French Stock Speculating ... 6
Funding Bill and the National Banks ... 50
Gail Hamilton, Terrible Remarks from ... 516
Gambetta's Fall ... 93
Garibaldi ... 476
Geneva Award Farce ... 136
Germany, Political Reaction in ... 27
Granville's Answer ... 395
Guiteau and the "Experts" ... 536
Guiteau Trial ... 93
Herzegovina ... 331
Ireland, New Policy in ... 420
Irish-American "Suspects" ... 264
Irish Horror, The ... 394
Italy, Scrutin de Liste in ... 181
Juries, Non- artisan ... 223
Librarians at Cincinnati ... 458
Libraries in Baltimore ... 116
Library in New York, The Coming Public ... 420
Longfellow's Poetry ... 266
Lowell, Minister, and the Irish ... 438
Lowell should be Recalled, Reasons Why ... 457
Mark Twain's Visit to Canada ... 7
Mason Craze ... 244
Materna and Patti ... 355
McCarthy's, Justin, Apology for the Land League ... 536
Men's Clothes ... 71
Mexico and the United States ... 27
Moore, of Tennessee, on the Civil Service ... 439
New-Year's Day ... 8
New York, Coming Public Library in, 420
Non-Partisan Juries ... 223
Oldest of Emperors ... 265
Organization of College Faculties ... 202
Parnell's Imprisonment, Prolongation of ... 70
Pennsylvania Convention ... 419
Pennsylvania Independents ... 457
Performance and Evasion ... 288
Peruvian Mystery ... 352
Pine Supply of the Lake Region ... 138
Poland ... 289
Precious Metals, Over-Production of the ... 290
Prize Fight, Moral of the ... 137
"Protected" Forests, Our ... 6
Railroad Deadhead ... 138
Railroads as Private Property ... 180
Reformers Who do not Wish to Reform ... 496
Republican Independents in Pennsylvania ... 456
Republican Party and the Chinese Bill ... 222
Scrutin de Liste in Italy ... 181
Shipherd ... 160
South, Blundering in the ... 438
Southern Pine ... 421
Spanish Claims Commission, Deadlock in the ... 330
Spanish Troubles ... 309
"Spirited Foreign Policy" ... 200
Stewart's ... 332
Strikes and the Crops ... 476
Summer Dining ... 537
Supreme Court, Plans for Relief of ... 418
True Course for Independents and Half-Breeds ... 456
United States and Mexico ... 27
Vaccination Question ... 201
Virginian Repudiation ... 26
Wilde, Oscar ... 28
Worthington's Appointment, Theory of ... 418
Yale and Harvard ... 51

Special Correspondence.

Domestic—Charleston Revisited ... 94, 118
England—Mansion-House Fund ... 29
What is the State of English Opinion about Ireland? ... 95
Fall of Gambetta, and English Opinion ... 162
Judicial Changes in England ... 163
Beginning of the Session ... 182
First Debates of the Session ... 204
Quarrel of Lords and Commons over the Irish Land Act ... 247
Tyranny of Minorities in England 248
Personal Government and English Democracy ... 292
Bradlaugh Case in its Latest Phase ... 293
New Rules of Procedure ... 310
Political Outlook ... 332
Position of the Monarchy in England ... 334
Suggestions for Dealing with the Irish Problem ... 376
Death of Mr. Darwin ... 377
Signs of the Times in England ... 395
Dublin Assassinations ... 458
Prevention of Crime Bill ... 477
Case against Mr. Gladstone ... 518
England in the Egyptian Crisis ... 519, 538
Germany—Progress of Reaction ... 30
Royal Rescript ... 120
Bismarck in a Rage ... 164
Government Absorption of Prussian Railways ... 224
Defeat of the Tobacco Monopoly ... 311, 478
Ultramontane and Conservative Compromise ... 397
Bismarck at Frankfort ... 520
Egypt—Muzzling the Egyptian Press ... 32
Egyptian Affairs ... 97
Anglo-French Note to the Khedive ... 121
The Past Year in Egyptology ... 139
The Fellaheen and the Money-Lenders ... 183
Change of Ministry in Egypt ... 205
National Party and the Egyptian Control ... 270
Problem of European Control in Egypt ... 355
National Party and the Copts ... 398
Egyptian Crisis ... 440
Egypt and English Opinion ... 519, 538
France—Matthews's French Dramatists ... 51
Grandson of Madame de Sévigné ... 72
Decline of Gambetta's Administration ... 120
Yriarte's Rimini ... 183
French Panic—The New Cabinet 203
Alienation of Russia from France 269
Precursors of the Renaissance ... 312, 336
Renan's Ecclesiastes ... 378
The Rantzaus ... 422
Correspondence of George Sand ... 460, 499
Italy—Opening of the St. Gothard Tunnel ... 498
Last Days of the Italian Liberator ... 539
Garibaldi and the Movement of 1848 ... 540
Greece—Recent Archæological Discoveries in Phrygia ... 249
Mexico—Political Symptoms in Mexico ... 399

Occasional Correspondence.

Adams's Manual of American History ... 440
Agnostic Churches in Germany ... 313
Agnostic Churches? Shall there be ... 185, 206
Agnostic's Religion ... 206
American College *vs.* the European University ... 142
Assos, Excavations at ... 9
Austria-Hungary, Slavic Population of ... 399
Boyland, Dr., and Dr. Lamson ... 379
California Primary ... 74, 98
Canadian Copyright ... 53
Candidates, Nomination of ... 98
Chinese and the Democrats ... 295
Chinese Question ... 337, 380
Chinese Question and the *Nation* ... 313
Chinese Question, One of Many Answers to ... 271
Classical and Non-Classical ... 32, 75, 98, 142
College Discipline ... 142, 185
Colleges, Raised Standards of Our ... 98
Compulsory Book Buying ... 379
Convict Labor ... 271
Corinth, Tomb Discovery near ... 544
Dalmatia, The Revolt in ... 140, 250
Defoe and the Maryland Redemptioners ... 122
Disintegration ... 273
Electoral College and the Title of the Presidency ... 144
Fiction for School Children ... 337
Fire Insurance, Partial Payment of ... 206
Fruits of the Pacific Coast ... 54, 76
Geneva Award ... 144
Harvard Elective System, Working of ... 314
Homœopaths and Regulars ... 542
Hoosier Bibliography ... 142
Hungarian Music ... 185
Insurance of Animals against Accident ... 206
James, Jesse, Conversion of ... 379
Laborer's Question ... 521
Land Questions ... 543
Lange's 'Alterthümer' ... 295
Law-making by Commission ... 33
Liquor-Traffic Commission ... 251
Lowell and the American Suspects ... 462
Mason Craze ... 314
Matabele Land, Climate and Ruler of 52
Mathematical Coincidence, Strange ... 165
Mexican Precautions against American Interference ... 74
Monroe Doctrine, The True ... 9
National-Bank Extension ... 480
Nation and the Chinese Question ... 313
Passed Assistant Surgeons, Promotion of ... 272, 337, 399
Paternal College Government ... 75
Pension Arrears Act ... 206
Pensions, Medical Examination of Applicants for ... 250
Plagiarism on a Plagiarist ... 53
Poland Again ... 337
Political Economy and the Goulds ... 543
Primary in California ... 74
Primary, The ... 33, 74
Protectionists in the South ... 379
Quorum, Powers of a ... 73, 98, 122
Railroad Accounts and Management, Publicity of ... 226
Railroad Rates, Differential ... 225, 272
Readjustment in Virginia, Progress of ... 184
Reasonable Doubt as to Insanity ... 8, 54
Rice, Isaac L., on Ricardo ... 461, 479, 500
Richter, The Painter ... 52
Servants' Clothes ... 98
Shirt and Fork Question ... 461
Tariff Tinkering ... 53, 74
Tomb Discovery near Corinth ... 544
Unsectarian Ethics in our Public Schools ... 34
Vaccination Ratios, Vogt's ... 226
Virginia, Progress of Readjustment in ... 184
Virginia, The New ... 423
Vogt's Vaccination Ratios ... 226

Leading Reviews.

Abbott's Primitive Industries ... 37
A Kempis, Thomas ... 484
American Poetry, Recent ... 149
Anthropologist on the Irish Question ... 236
Ayres's Verbalist ... 40
Bancroft's History of the Constitution ... 524
Berlioz, Private Correspondence of ... 319
Boston, Memorial History of ... 58, 190
Bowne's Metaphysics ... 405
Cobden ... 103, 125
Copley the Painter ... 299
Cox's Second Battle of Bull Run ... 404
Davids's Indian Buddhism ... 342
Elton's Origins of English History ... 255
English Constitution from 1760 to 1860 ... 318
English Poetry, Recent ... 360
Fisher's Physics of the Earth's Crust 506
Foote's Annals of King's Chapel ... 234
Fornander's Polynesian Race ... 82
Fort Griswold, Storming of ... 341
Freeman's Subject and Neighbor Lands of Venice ... 129
Freeman's William Rufus ... 526
Froude's Carlyle ... 465
Gardiner's Charles I ... 210, 232
Gardner's Waterloo ... 426
Gordon's, General, Diary ... 321
Gottschalk's Tour in the U. S ... 16
Green's Making of England ... 275
Greg, W. R ... 80
Hamilton, Alexander ... 444
Heine on Germany ... 485
Holley, Myron ... 211
Howorth's History of the Mongols ... 127
Hungary ... 256
Huxley's Science and Culture ... 425
Irish Question, Anthropologist on the 236
James's Portrait of a Lady ... 102
Johnston's Cecil County ... 104
Jowett's Thucydides ... 15, 39
Lalor's Encyclopædia of Political Science ... 17
Law Books, Recent ... 277
McClellan and Pope ... 84
Martin's How to Dissect a Cheloniaa. 128
Mendelssohns, The ... 169
Metternich ... 170
Meyer's Fach-Lexika ... 58
Mill, John Stuart ... 403, 482
Müller's Kant ... 445
Napoleon Bonaparte ... 56, 81
Novels, Recent ... 18, 59, 171, 279, 385, 504
Peninsular Veteran ... 191
Perry's History of Greek and Roman Sculpture ... 547
Poetry, Recent American ... 149
Poetry, Recent English ... 360
Pulszky's Memoirs ... 548
Roscher's Political Economy ... 165
Rosenthal's America and France ... 525
Russia and the Russians ... 446, 467
St. Clair Papers ... 383
St. Louis Bridge ... 280
Schouler's United States under the Constitution ... 41, 109
Scio and Credo ... 320
Siberia, New Light on ... 230
Stage, Books About the ... 427
Stallo's Physics ... 466
State Trials of the Nineteenth Century ... 503
Stillman's Horse in Motion ... 359
Symonds's Renaissance in Italy ... 298
Thirlwall, Bishop ... 147
Vega, Voyage of the ... 254
Volcanoes ... 189
War on the Pacific ... 361
Women, Common Sense About ... 231
Wren, Sir Christopher ... 151
Zola as a Critic ... 233

Titles of Books Reviewed.

The asterisk designates the Shorter Notices, for which also see the Notes.

Abbé Constantin (Halévy's) ... 504
*Adams, John Quincy (Morse's) ... 301
*Africa, (Selous's) Hunter's Wanderings in ... 344
Agency, (Story's) Commentaries on the Law of ... 277
A Kempis, Thomas, and the Brothers of Common Life (Kettlewell's) ... 484
*Algeria, (Barclay's) Mountain Life in 409
*America (Mackenzie's) ... 152
America and France (Rosenthal's) ... 525
*Analytical and Topical Index, U. S. Engineer's Reports ... 107
*Anatomie, (Duval's) Précis d' ... 365
*Anecdota Oxoniensia ... 302
*Antietam and Fredericksburg (Palfrey's) ... 172
*Archéologie Grecque (Collignon's) ... 365

*Architecture, (Audsleys') Dictionary of..... 429
*Arctic Sunbeams (Cox's)..... 388
Arsiesis..... 149
*Art, (Collier's) Primer of..... 431
*Art-Work in Earthenware, etc. (Wheatley and Delamotte's)..... 469
*Asia Minor, (Scott-Stevenson's) Our Ride through..... 509
Aspasia (Hammerling's)..... 278
Aus dem literarischen Frankreich (Lindau's)..... 427
*Bank of North America, (Lewis's) History of the..... 344
*Barrister's Life, (Ballantine's) Some Experiences of..... 527
*Bentley (Jebb's)..... 486
Benvenuta (Marshall's)..... 278
Berlioz, Hector: Lettres Intimes..... 319
Bills and Notes, (Ames's) Law of. 277
*Birds'-Nesting (Ingersoll's)..... 387
Bits from Blinkbonny (Strathesk's)... 385
*Bonapartes, (Bingham's) Marriages of the..... 193
Booth, (Clarke's) Elder and Younger. 427
*Borneo, (Bock's) Head-Hunters of... 447
*Boston Athenæum, (Cutter's) Catalogue of..... 212
Boston, Memorial History of 58, 190
Braes of Yarrow (Gibbon's)..... 59
Bride of Bar-Cocab (Mair's)..... 150
Bull Run, (Cox's) Second Battle of.... 404
Burgomaster's Wife (Ebers's)..... 278
*Burnside, Gen. A. E., (Poore's) Life of..... 430
*Cambridge Philological Society's Transactions..... 257
*Capturing a Locomotive (Pittenger's)..... 43
Carlyle, Thomas (Froude's)..... 465
Castle and Town (Peard's)..... 505
Cecil County, Md. (Johnston's)..... 104
*Chambers's Etymological Dictionary of the English Language..... 508
*Chancellorsville and Gettysburg (Doubleday's)..... 257
*Charlemagne (Cutts's)..... 550
Charles I., (Gardiner's) Fall of the Monarchy of.....210, 232
Christmas at Sea..... 59
Christowell (Blackmore's)..... 59
*Classics for the Million (Grey's) 366
Cobden, Richard, (Morley's) Life of.103, 125
*Coffee from Plantation to Cup (Thurber's)..... 192
*Columbus, Christopher (Alden's).... 130
Comet of a Season (McCarthy's)..... 171
*Common Law Glossary (Stimson's). 215
Common Sense about Women (Higginson's)..... 231
Concepts and Theories of Modern Physics (Stallo's)..... 466
Constitution of the U. S. A., (Bancroft's) History of the Formation of 524
Copley, J. S., (Amory's) Domestic and Artistic Life of..... 299
*Corwin, Thomas (Russell's)..... 60
*Cox, David (Hall's)..... 61
Creed of Science (Graham's)..... 320
Criminal Law, (Bishop's) Commentaries on..... 277
*Cuban Sketches (Steele's)..... 42
Cushman, Charlotte (Clement's)..... 427
*Cyclopædia of Practical Quotations (Hoyt and Ward's)..... 343
*Decay of Modern Preaching (Mahaffy's)..... 428
Dick Netherby (Walford's)..... 171
Dingy House at Kensington..... 278
Dr. Breen's Practice (Howells's)..... 18
Documents Littéraires (Zola's)..... 233
Dorothea..... 504
Dorothy (Munby's)..... 360
Down the Bayou (Townsend's)..... 149
Echo of Passion (Lathrop's)..... 504
*Egyptian Obelisks (Gorringe's)..... 406
*Electricity, (Thompson's) Elementary Lessons in..... 237
*Electricity, (Maxwell's) Elementary Treatise on..... 153
Életem és korom (Pulszky's)..... 548
Eleventh Commandment (Barrili's)... 504
Empire des Tsars et les Russes (Leroy-Beaulieu's).....446, 467
*Encyclopædia Britannica, vol. xiii.. 42
Encyclopædia of Political Science, etc. (Lalor's)..... 17
England, (Yonge's) Constitutional History of..... 318
England, (Green's) Making of..... 275
*English Church Architecture (Scott's) 19
*English Grammar, (Hinds's) Some Topics in..... 6
English History, (Elton's) Origins of.. 255
*English History, (Gairdner's) Studies in..... 364
English Stage, (Fitzgerald's) History of..... 427
Entstehung der physischen und geistigen Welt aus dem Aether (Schlesinger's)..... 320
Esau Runswick (Macquoid's)..... 278
Essays, Speeches, and Sermons (Thirlwall's)..... 147
Eunice Lathrop, Spinster (Noble's).... 278
*Evelyns in America (Scull's)..... 215
Evenings with the Skeptics (Owen's). 320
*Events and Epochs in Religious History (Clarke's)..... 213
Exchange No Robbery (Betham-Edwards's)..... 385
Fach-lexika (Meyer's)..... 58
*Familiar Allusions (Wheeler's)..... 362
Faustin, La (Goncourt's)..... 427
*Feldzug im Nord-Virginien im August, 1862 (Mangold's)..... 62
*Fifty Years of Science (Lubbock's).. 343
Fixed Period (Trollope's)..... 385
Four Macnicols (Black's)..... 278
*Frank Forester, Life of..... 429
*Französischen Schweiz und Savoyens, (Semmig's) Kulturgeschichte der..... 344
*Freaks and Marvels of Plant Life (Cooke's)..... 237
Freres (Alexander's)..... 385
From Hand to Hand (Raimund's)..... 505
Frühlingsboten (Werner's)..... 59
*Garfield, President, and Education (Hinsdale's)..... 106
*Garfield's Place in History (Pedder's)..... 449
Geist und Stoff (Ludewig's)..... 320
Genji Monogatari 385
Germany, (Heine's) Religion and Philosophy in..... 485
Giant Raft (Verne's)..... 18
*Glossary of Technical Terms of the Common Law (Stimson's) 215
God and the Man (Buchanan's)..... 278
Gomm, Field-Marshal, Letters and Journals of..... 191
*Graphic Arts (Hamerton's)..... 548
Greek and Roman Sculpture (Perry's) 547
Groton Heights, Battle of..... 341
*Hall, Robert (Hood's)..... 364
Hamilton, Alexander (Lodge's)..... 444
Hamilton, Patrick (Johnston's)..... 360
Happy Boy (Björnson's)..... 171
*Harper's Popular Cyclopædia of U. S. History (Lossing's)..... 281
*Hawaii, (Coan's) Life in..... 448
Heaps of Money (Norris's)..... 504
Heart's Problem (Gibbon's)..... 278
*Historical Literature, (Adams's) Manual of..... 387
Holley, Myron (Wright's)..... 211
*Home Amusements..... 151
*Home Decoration (Ruutz-Rees's).... 151
*Homiletics (Hoppin's)..... 528
Horse in Motion (Stillman's)..... 359
*Hugo, Victor, and His Time (Barbou's)..... 508
*Hunter's Wanderings in Africa (Selous's)..... 344
*Index-Guide to Travel (Loomis's).... 469
*India, (Temple's) Men and Events of My Time in..... 407
*Indian Hills, (Arnold's) On the..... 107
*Indigestion, Biliousness, and Gout (Fothergill's)..... 60
In the Distance (Lathrop's)..... 385
John Barlow's Ward..... 59
John Eax (Tourgée's)..... 278
John Inglesant (Shorthouse's)..... 278
*Journal of Hellenic Studies..... 152
*Kantian Ethics (Schurman's)..... 214
Kant's Critique of Pure Reason (Müller's)..... 445
*Kant, (Stirling's) Text-book to..... 63
Kate Comerford (Thornet's)..... 59
King's Chapel, (Foote's) Annals of.... 234
Kith and Kin (Fothergill's)..... 18
*Knickerbocker Life in New York, (Dayton's) Last Days of..... 468
Lads and Lasses of Langley (Yonge's) 385
*Lady's Cruise in a French Man-of-War (Gordon Cumming's)..... 323
*La Fontaine and Other French Fabulists (Collins's)..... 322
*La Fontaine, (Wright's) Fables of... 322
*Lamb, Charles (Ainger's)..... 407
Laodicean (Hardy's)..... 18
League of the Iroquois (Hathaway's). 149
*Lee, Rev. Luther, Autobiography of 487
Letters, Literary and Theological (Thirlwall's)..... 147
Letters to a Friend (Thirlwall's)..... 147
Libel and Slander, (Bigelow's Odger's) Law of..... 278
Lora (Pastnor's)..... 150
Lottie of the Mill (Heimburg's)..... 505
Love Poems and Sonnets (Jennison's) 150
Magyarland..... 256
Marco Visconti (Crossi's)..... 171
*Massachusetts in the Woman Suffrage Movement (Robinson's)..... 173
Maurine (Wheeler's)..... 149
*Mediæval History, (Stillé's) Studies in 447
*Men and Events of My Time in India (Temple's)..... 407
Mendelssohn Family (Hensel's)..... 169
Mendota (Mayer's)..... 149
Metaphysics (Bowne's)..... 405
Metternich, Prince, Memoirs of..... 170
Mill, John Stuart (Bain's).....403, 482
Miot de Melito, Count, Memoirs of...56, 81
Miscellaneous Essays (Greg's) 80
*Money-Making for Ladies (Church's) 363
Mongols, (Howorth's) History of the.. 127
*Montesquieu's Considerations on the Grandeur and Decadence of the Romans (Baker's)..... 549
*Mosaïque (Gerspach's)..... 365
Moses Resisted (Helms's)..... 149
*My Boy and I (Brine's)..... 20
*Myth and Science (Vignoli's)..... 550
My Wife and My Wife's Sister..... 171
Nationalökonomik des Handels- und Gewerbfleisses (Roscher's)..... 105
*Naval War of 1812 (Roosevelt's)..... 507
*Oddities, (Andrews's) Book of..... 174
*Old Régime (Jackson's)..... 550
*On a Raft (Ellis's)..... 300
*Onéguine, Eugene (Pushkin's)..... 213
One May Day (Grant's)..... 278
*Opium-Smoking (Kane's)..... 363
*Orations and Essays (Diman's)..... 409
*Ornamental Trees for Massachusetts Plantations (Robinson's)..... 61
Our Nationalities (Bonwick's)..... 236
*Ovidii Nasonis Ibis (Ellis's)..... 487
Pacifique, (Arana's) Histoire de la Guerre du..... 361
*Paris Herself Again (Sala's)..... 322
*Parisian Year (Bacon's) 469
*Peinture Hollandaise (Havard's).... 365
Peninsula Campaign (Webb's)..... 84
Philosophy of Self-Consciousness (Fitzgerald's)..... 320
*Physical Education (Oswald's)..... 468
Physics of the Earth's Crust (Fisher's) 506
Pianist, (Gottschalk's) Notes of a..... 16
*Plain-Speaking (Craik's)..... 388
Poems (Bennoch's) 360
Poems (Botta's)..... 150
Poems (Spofford's)..... 150
Poems and Essays (Hubner's)..... 149
Polynesian Race (Fornander's)..... 82
Pope, (Ropes's) Army under..... 84
Portrait of a Lady (James's)..... 102
*Preaching, Modern, (Mahaffy's) Decay of..... 428
*Pribylov Group, (Elliott's) Monograph of the..... 301
Primitive Industry (Abbott's)..... 37
Private Theatricals..... 427
Prudence (Lillie's)..... 385
*Purcell (Cummings's)..... 449
Pygmalion (Woolner's) 360
Quatre-Bras, Ligny, and Waterloo (Gardner's)..... 426
*Réforme au XVIe Siècle (Laugel's).. 408
Religion des Gewissens als Zukunftsideal (Wernicke's)..... 320
Religion, (Davids's) Lectures on the Origin and Growth of..... 342
*Religious History, (Clarke's) Events and Epochs in..... 213
Renaissance in Italy (Symonds's)..... 298
Reverend Idol..... 504
Revolt of Man..... 504
Rival Heirs (Crake's)..... 504
Rocky Fork (Catherwood's)..... 504
*Rose, (Ellwanger's) The..... 366
*Russia, (Dole's) Young Folks' History of..... 84
*Sache, Leben und Feinde (Dühring's)..... 509
Saint Louis Bridge, (Woodward's) History of..... 280
Savonarola (Austin's)..... 360
*Schiller und Goethe im Urtheile ihrer Zeitgenossen..... 508
*Schule und Heer (Guhl's)..... 365
Science and Culture (Huxley's)..... 425
*Science, (Lubbock's) Fifty Years of. 343
*Scotland in Early Christian Times (Anderson's)..... 214
St. Clair, Arthur, Life and Public Services of..... 383
Search the Scriptures..... 149
Senior Partner (Riddell's)..... 278
Severa (Hartner's)..... 18
Siberia, Through (Lansdell's)..... 230
*Social History of the Races of Mankind (Featherman's)..... 192
Son of Belial..... 171
Spinoza (Auerbach's)..... 385
*State Papers (Ewald's), Stories from the..... 550
State Trials in the Nineteenth Century (Browne's)..... 503
*Stephens, Joseph Raynor, (Holyoake's) Life of..... 173
Stuart, Mary (Swinburne's)..... 360
*Studies of Modern Mind and Character (Wilson's)..... 486
Subject and Neighbor Lands of Venice (Freeman's)..... 129
*Sun (Young's)..... 43
*Supplement to Revised Statutes of U. S. (Richardson's)..... 85
Tallahassee Girl..... 385
*Tarjuma-i-Alif Laila..... 529
*Thackeray, W. M., Extracts from the Writings of..... 487
Théâtre de la Révolution (Welschinger's)..... 427
Theon (Roach's)..... 149
Thucydides (Jowett's).....16, 39
*Twenty Questions, Treatise on the Game of..... 489
*Twit-twats (Théobaud's)..... 62
Under the Aspens (Pfeiffer's)..... 360
*United States under the Constitution (Schouler's).....41, 409
Usages and Customs, (Lawson's) Law of..... 277
Vega, (Nordenskiöld's) Voyage of the. 254
Venice, (Freeman's) Subject and Neighbor Lands of..... 129
Verbalist (Ayres's)..... 40
*Versailles, (Dussieux's) Château de. 488
Vertebrate Dissection, (Martin's) Handbook of..... 128
Vicar's People (Fenn's)..... 59
Voice of St. John (Newton's)..... 149
Volcanoes (Judd's)..... 189
War Diary (Gordon's)..... 321
*Washington, (Johnston's) Original Portraits of..... 193
*Webster, Noah (Scudder's)..... 449
*Whittington, Sir Richard (Besant and Rice's)..... 62
Why Frau Frohmann Raised Her Prices (Trollope's)..... 504
William Rufus, (Freeman's) Reign of 526
*Words, Facts, and Phrases (Edwards's)..... 362
*World's Foundations (Giberne's).... 387
Wren, Sir Christopher (Phillimore's). 151
*Young Nimrods around the World (Knox's)..... 509
*Zhizn za Okeanom (Lopukhin's)..... 430

Books of the Week.

20, 63, 85, 108, 130, 153, 174, 194, 215, 237, 258, 282, 302, 323, 344, 366, 388, 409, 431, 450, 469, 489, 510, 529, 550.

Fine Arts.

The Two Oil-Color Exhibitions.....344, 366
The Music Festival..... 409

ERRATA.

Page 1, col. 3, line 14 from bottom. For "430,000," read "700,000."

Page 84, col. 3, line 29. For "Porter" read "Pope."

Page 203, col. 1, line 23. For "Goethe" read "Schiller."

Page 211, col. 3, line 2 from bottom. Omit "Holley."

Page 229, col. 1, lines 33, 34. Omit "and the *North American Review*."

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